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THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION 1876-1957

BY

Dennis Vincent Thomison

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THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY PARK
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA 90007

This dissertation, written by

Dennis Vincent Thomison

under the direction of his Dissertation Committee, and approved by all its members, has been presented to and accepted by The Graduate School, in partial fulfillment of requirements of the degree of

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Charles H. Mayo

Dean

Date February 1973

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

Martha Boaz
Chairman

Raymond L. Gialla

Arthur R. Kohler

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1876 the American Library Association was formed by a few men and women who saw the need for an organization dedicated to libraries and librarians.[1] Its stated purpose was very simple: to promote library interests in the United States. Over a period of eighty years the concept of the Association has changed. Its role and its putpose have both been enlarged as the Association has grown. From a small organization with a rather simple structure it developed into a huge, complex Association of 20,000 individuals and numerous subdivisions. This is the story of that development, covering the beginning to its reorganization in 1957.

The Association was, and is, a product of its time. Its origin came during a period of American history when many professional associations were being formed. Like the other groups, ALA met annually and accomplished little between conferences. The history of the Association during this early period is a record of these conferences, for

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[1] In succeeding pages the American Library Association will be referred to as ALA or the Association.

there was little else accomplished. Over the years this gradually changed. However, it was World War I which changed the organization into an active, viable group which attained a national recognition. While there were reverses and setbacks after the war, the Association would never again be the sleepy little organization it once was.

The ALA at the time of this study in 1957 was also a product of its time. It was divided, insecure in certain respects, yet always confident, too, in its own abilities to achieve success. There was a developing awareness of social responsibilities, but not to the extent desired by many of its members. The Association had a sense of pride in itself, but was not sure what a professional association ought to be doing. It was divided in so many ways that its membership often wondered how it continued to stay together, yet basically it was convinced that it ought to remain one organization. It was aware of its many accomplishments, but was acutely conscious of its many deficiencies, too.

Limitations of this Study

As with any historical study, this paper may be criticized for what it has omitted as well as for what it has included. The essence of history, however, is its selectivity. The author has selected what he believes to be important, interesting, and significant in the

mainstream of the history of ALA. Some aspects were chosen for more detailed treatment because they help to show the atmosphere of the times. Some topics receive slight treatment because there is very little information available. This is because time and people have been careless with some of the early archives of the Association. Many records have been destroyed or dispersed during the history of the organization. Furthermore, record-keeping was very sporadic during the early years. Other subjects, such as library education, receive brief treatment because of the existence of extensive studies by previous researchers. In a general history such as this, it is not possible to develop in detail the growth of some of the component parts. Thus the divisions and affiliated organizations are discussed only in their relationship to ALA. Each division and affiliated association within ALA may well deserve a separate study to do it justice.

This study has time limitations as well. It begins with the unsuccessful attempt at organization in 1853, because at least the seeds were sown then for later establishment. The study ends in 1957, the date of the last reorganization of ALA. It is this organizational structure under which the Association now operates. One may thus examine ALA with some historical perspective, and still be viewing the organization as it basically exists in 1972.

Sources

The main dependence in this paper has been on the archives of ALA in Chicago. The correspondence of some of the early officers has been preserved there, as well as the official records of the Association. Special mention might be made of two very important collections of material there. One is a scrapbook containing all the letters, circulars, and telegrams concerned with the conference of 1876. There is also an extensive collection of materials, including confidential correspondence, dealing with ALA's role in the selection of the Librarian of Congress in 1939. Minutes and proceedings of the Executive Board and the Council were made available to the author by the ALA Headquarters staff. These accounts were not always verbatim, however, and occasionally it was necessary to depend on unofficial accounts. The two journals which have served as official organs of ALA, Library Journal and ALA Bulletin have been checked for all references to the Association. In addition, the official organ of the Special Libraries Association, Special Libraries, has been consulted because of the special relationship between the two organizations. The New York Times was checked for all references to ALA. The Congressional Record was used only in connection with the selection of the Librarians of Congress. Archival material

at the Newberry Library and Columbia University was consulted. All dissertations and theses concerning ALA which were listed in Library Literature were read. In addition, the author corresponded with some individuals, such as Louis Shores, Cora Beatty, and Archibald MacLeish in order to gain more accurate information. The bibliography at the end of this paper reflects the record of books, periodicals, and dissertations found useful in the study.

Related Research

There has been an unusual lack of writing concerned with either the general history of ALA or with even a small segment of that story. It is almost as George B. Utley wrote in 1926, that ALA and its members "pause for only a glance at their history. Their eyes are turned ahead . . ." There have been some historical studies, however, and the most important of these are described in the following pages. The writings are grouped by type: general historical studies, research in library education, and bibliographical works. These are the areas which have received the greatest amount of attention by researchers. The major findings of each study are summarized. In addition, other studies are cited in the body of this paper when appropriate.

General Historical Studies

George B. Utley, a long-time member and secretary of the Association, provided the profession with its first history in his Fifty Years of the A.L.A.[1] Although it is briefly told, the history and development of the Association are covered accurately, beginning with the 1853 conference. This meeting, he noted, almost led to the founding of the modern library movement. But it failed, and Melvil Dewey "took it upon himself to appoint a committee to call the conference and make arrangements for it."[2] This is an uncharitable and to some extent incorrect statement that will be discussed in Chapter II. In general terms the history of ALA is told, with little elaboration or interpretation. Utley's conclusion was that at the end of the fifty years ALA had accomplished very little in view of what remained to be done. It was, he said, "hardly more than a beginning, a mere scratching of the surface."[3]

Samuel S. Green's history of the development of public libraries in this country is a particularly valuable contribution to the early history of librarianship and the ALA.[4] Green was a charter member of the Association,

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[1]George B. Utley, Fifty Years of the American Library Association (Chicago: American Library Association, 1926).

[2]Ibid., p. 29. [3]Ibid.

[4]Samuel S. Green, The Public Library Movement in the United States, 1853-1893 (Boston: Boston Book Co., 1913).

served as its president in 1891, and was for thirty-eight years the librarian of the Free Library of Worcester, Massachusetts. His book provides extensive coverage of both the conference of 1853 and of 1876. The part played by each leader in the organization is described in detail. Green wrote his history in a chatty, informal style, but he made extensive use of the papers and proceedings of ALA. He knew the men personally, and was often closely involved in the events taking place in the library world. William Fletcher's Public Libraries in the United States is less valuable for ALA history.[1] He covers the early history and also the convention of 1853. Included in his short chapter on the Association is a list of the resolutions passed in 1853, and the statement that it is incredible in view of the successes of that meeting no permanent organization was effected. He commented further that the meeting of 1876 was brought about largely as a result of two forces. The centennial celebration in 1876 gave an impetus to all such movements, and Melvil Dewey's role as an organizer were the main reasons for the success of the meeting.

The first ten years of ALA were examined by Lucy

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[1]William Fletcher, Public Libraries in the United States (London: Sampson, Low, Marston, 1894).

Maddox.[1] She concluded that the period from 1876 to 1885 marked the beginning of the modern library movement in the United States. During this time the following landmark events occurred: ALA was established; Library Journal began publication; the first ALA cataloging code, based on the rules of Charles Cutter, was formulated; the Dewey Decimal Classification system was announced and widely adopted; the beginning of library service to children and young adults was made; and the acceptance of an economical and functional architecture for libraries was effected. Her general conclusions are that the methods established during this early period of library work are still being used, and that many of the general patterns of librarianship emerged at this time.

There are two important sources for information on the librarians' convention of 1853. The primary source is Norton's Literary Register, which carried a comprehensive account of the proceedings.[2] Although it is not verbatim, it includes more information on the meetings than is available in other sources. George B. Utley's The Librarian's Conference of 1853 provides the best secondary

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[1]Lucy Maddox, "Trends and Issues in American Librarianship as Reflected in the Papers and Proceedings of the A.L.A., 1876-1885," unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1958.

[2]Norton's Literary and Educational Register for 1854 (New York: Norton, 1854).

source of information.[1] This work was based on the Seth Hastings Grant papers in the ALA archives, and on Norton's Literary Register. Utley's final analysis was that the conference was a failure in some of its immediate purposes, but successful because of its indirect achievements.

Research in Library Education

The first important research in library education was Professional Education for Librarianship by Tse-Chien Tai.[2] The purpose of this dissertation was to formulate a program for library education at the State University of Iowa. It was Tai's thesis that a theoretical basis for a systematic body of knowledge about librarianship could be formulated by analyzing the forces which have stimulated the development of libraries, and then determined the character of their services. He includes the development of library schools in Europe and the United States. The study is especially valuable because of Tai's interpretation of the forces leading to library education.

The most extensive history of the early period of library education was done by Sarah Vann.[3] She wrote of

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[1]George B. Utley, The Librarian's Conference of 1853 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1951).

[2]Tse-Chien Tai, Professional Education for Librarianship (New York: Wilson, 1925).

[3]Sarah K. Vann, Training for Librarianship Before 1923 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1961).

the period prior to 1923, and saw it as a time of "cautious but positive progress." It was also a period of conflict caused by new ideas from strong-willed individuals. ALA could not, according to Vann, unify the various concepts and provide the needed leadership. However, through its various agencies, the Association began to assume control over library education through accreditation. The accomplishments of the post-1923 period were seen by Vann as being the fruition of the 1876-1923 efforts. The Origins of the American Library School by Carl White covers essentially the same span of time as Vann, but is more selective.[1] His emphasis is on those meaningful social changes and ideas which have contributed to the concept of professional education. White is particularly critical in his judgment of the apprenticeship programs often found during the early years of library development. He said they did not even deserve to be called apprenticeship courses because they were so informal. A later period in library education was examined by Charles Churchill.[2] He divided the evolution of library training into three periods: (1) pre-1887 when all librarians were educated

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[1]Carl M. White, The Origins of the American Library School (New York: Scarecrow, 1961).

[2]Charles D. Churchill, "Education for Librarianship in the U.S.: Some Factors Which Influenced its Development Between 1919 and 1939," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Illinois, 1966.

through apprenticeship programs; (2) 1887-1919, when the number of library schools grew from one to nineteen and assumed an importance comparable to the various apprenticeship centers; (3) 1919-1939, when several forces coalesced and forced ALA to exert a positive influence on the evolution of library education. According to Churchill, the state of library education in 1939 was the "product of interactions between traditional concepts of library education and emerging social forces." Furthermore, librarianship failed during the period to provide an acceptable system of education because of the lack of a unifying force in meeting the "competing and specialized needs of librarianship."

Research on Library Leaders

Joseph Borome's biography of Charles Jewett is of some value here.[1] One chapter in the book is devoted to the proceedings of the 1853 convention, of which Jewett was president. It was Borome's belief that Jewett was the prime influence at the convention, and this is supported by other library historians. Borome relates the major contributions of Jewett, including the pioneering in cooperative cataloging, dictionary arrangement of catalogs, codified cataloging rules, and the development of the

[1]Joseph Borome, Charles Coffin Jewett (Chicago: American Library Association, 1951).

library at the Smithsonian Institution. Jewett's work was done before the establishment of ALA, however.

Fremont Rider's biography of Melvil Dewey is valuable in understanding Dewey's role in the development of the Association.[1] According to Rider, Dewey was not alone responsible for the founding of ALA, but no one played a larger share. Through his tremendous energy, Dewey turned the dream of a professional organization into a reality. In Rider's view, Dewey was largely responsible for carrying ALA "safely and with continually strengthened vitality through its childhood and youth." In the field of library education, the Columbia Library School personified Dewey in every way. Rider contended that the school transformed, perhaps created, the library profession, and it served to vitalize library service in this country and abroad. Edward Fleming's biography of R. R. Bowker is one of the truly outstanding biographical works in the professional literature.[2] Fleming noted the contributions of Bowker in three areas: (1) he played a major role in the call for the conference of 1876, which led to the founding of ALA; (2) he was one of the leaders in the fight for the appointment of Herbert Putnam as

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[1]Fremont Rider, Melvil Dewey (Chicago: American Library Association, 1944).

[2]Edward Fleming, R. R. Bowker, Militant Liberal (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952).

Librarian of Congress in 1889; (3) and he was a close adviser to librarians. According to Fleming, the success of 1876 was made easier because of the establishment of the American Book Trade Association several years earlier. It would seem to this author that it would be more reasonable to credit some success to the general establishment of professional organizations following the close of the Civil War, rather than to point out a single organization for credit.

In its long history, no individual treated ALA as critically as John Cotton Dana did for almost thirty years. But this criticism, as Chalmers Hadley pointed out, was born of a desire for a more effective organization.[1] Dana was bitterly disappointed with the Association in many respects: the official coolness towards the Special Libraries Association; the spending habits of ALA, which he compared to "a drunken sailor"; and the preoccupation with library surveys and the publishing of library textbooks. William Williamson's study of William Poole adds relatively little information about the Association, but it has excellent coverage of the Dewey-Poole rivalry which highlighted a number of conferences.[2] Williamson presents

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[1]Chalmers Hadley, John Cotton Dana (Chicago: American Library Association, 1943).

[2]William L. Williamson, "William Frederick Poole and the Modern Library Movement (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963).

an unattractive view of Dewey, whom he blames for encouraging the development of "bloodless slaves to rules." In contrast, Poole was a champion of the individualized library. Each library had to respond to its community in its own way. Thirteen years after the founding of ALA, Poole led an unsuccessful fight to stop the Association from endorsing procedures or opinions. Dewey was the target of this move, but as usual he was able to outmanuever the opposition. Two statements made by Williamson are open to question. First, his view that Dewey started ALA is an oversimplification. It does not do justice to the work of R. R. Bowker and Frederick Leypoldt. Second, Williamson's acceptance of Poole's statement that "the conference of 1876 has never had a warmer friend, from the start, than W. F. P." is bewildering if one considers Poole's open hostility when the idea was first suggested. In spite of these minor flaws, however, the study is an excellent work.

CHAPTER II

THE FOUNDING OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

The Convention of 1853[1]

Although the American Library Association was founded in 1876, its origins can be traced back to the first convention of librarians held in 1853. At the time of this meeting, it was the intention of those in attendance that there should be annual meetings and a permanent organization should be established. In both respects this convention failed, but the idea was implanted in the minds of librarians. Twenty-three years later the time was more propitious; other similar associations had been formed, and ambitious leaders were emerging in the library field. The convention is significant, then, not for what was accomplished during its sessions, but because it was the progenitor of the more famous conference of 1876.

The first printed suggestion that a national

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[1]This discussion is based on the official proceedings of the conference as published in Norton's Literary and Educational Register for 1854 (New York: Norton, 1854).

convention of librarians should be held appeared in the pages of Nelson's Literary Gazette and Publishers' Circular.[1] This was on July 15, 1852, in an editorial which was apparently written by the publisher, General Charles B. Norton, a New York bookseller who was especially concerned with library interests. A year elapsed and much persuasion was necessary before the convention of 1853 occurred. After the initial call was made, the major impetus for the meeting came from Professor Charles C. Jewett of the Smithsonian Institution. He was a highly respected librarian and has been called the "ablest and most zealous of the early American reformers in the methods of library administration."[2] Others, such as Daniel Coit Gilman of Yale, Seth Hastings Grant of the New York Mercantile Library, and Reubin A. Guild of Brown University also promoted the idea. After a considerable amount of correspondence on the subject between the leading librarians of the country, the Gazette in May, 1853, made a formal proposal that librarians meet in New York in September. Although the suggestion aroused favorable comment among librarians, Jewett soon became worried about the possibility of an embarrassingly small response. One

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[1] Hereafter referred to as the Gazette.

[2] William F. Poole in A.L.A. Papers and Proceedings (New York: American Library Association, 1886), p. 1.

month before the meeting was to be held he wrote to his friend Grant:

> Since the call was published, I have seen but very few who would be likely to take an interest in the convention. I have found some, on whom I had counted, who seem unwilling to take any active part. The fact is our fraternity are generally very quiet, unostentatious men, not accustomed to public speaking, or fond of exhibiting themselves.[1]

Jewett wrote to librarians in this country and abroad in an effort to interest them in attending the convention. When General Norton was in Europe, he attempted to persuade the great English librarian, Sir Anthony Panizzi of the British Museum, to attend. Panizzi wrote to a friend that he had a great desire to attend, but the expense was too great for him, and his trustees refused to subsidize the trip.[2]

The concern over a possible small response to the convention call was unnecessary. When the librarians met on September 15, 1853, there were eighty men present, representing forty-seven libraries.[3] Jewett, as the "leading spirit" of the convention, was elected president and Grant was elected secretary. In his opening address,

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[1]Letter, Jewett to Grant, August 16, 1853, in American Library Association Archives.

[2]Louis A. Fagan, Life of Sir Anthony Panizzi (London: Remington, 1880), Vol. I, p. 98.

[3]Several other sources indicate that there were eighty-two men present.

Jewett outlined the rather simple purpose of the convention:

> It is not, so far as I know, proposed to accomplish any end by this Convention, beyond the general one expressed in the call, of 'Conferring together upon the means of advancing the prosperity and usefulness of public libraries,' and of seeking mutual instruction and encouragement in the discharge of the quiet and unostentatious labors of our vocation. . . .[1]

As Jewett pointed out in this speech, this was actually not the first convention of its kind ever held in the world. Others had taken place, but according to Jewett, they had been made up primarily of 'dilettante,' not practicing librarians."[2] The librarians at this meeting were for the most part from the northeastern part of the country, but there were representatives from as far away as New Orleans and San Francisco. In addition to librarians, there were historians, lawyers, professors, and ministers present.[3]

Prior to the convention, the Gazette had published a comprehensive list of subjects which might be considered by the librarians. This list was divided into the following categories: The Library: Its Character; The

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[1] Norton's Literary and Educational Register for 1854 (New York: Norton, 1854), p. 54.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Elmer D. Johnson, Communication; An Introduction to the History of the Alphabet, Writing, Printing, Books and Libraries (New York: Scarecrow, 1960), p. 146.

Library Building: Points to be Observed; and Library Management. The few days of the convention did not offer enough time to allow a thorough consideration of all the items proposed, but the list was apparently meant to insure that the delegates would have enough material to justify a meeting. In this the planners were successful, for there were long and often heated debates over the proposals presented.

Most of the problems considered have been resolved by now, but there are some which are still of importance and interest to librarians today. One of the proposals made at this convention which soon proved to be impractical was Jewett's plan for printing the catalogues of the major libraries of the country for general distribution. He suggested that "stereotype" plates might be used to reproduce the catalogue information from various libraries, resulting in the production of inexpensive catalogues and bibliographies. While metal would be desirable, the need for 'cheap' materials led to experimentation with clay and shellac. Jewett believed this material to be more resistant to wear than metal, and thought there would be no appreciable loss of quality in printing even over a period of years.[1] An integral part of this plan was the

[1]For a full discussion of this proposal, see Joseph A. Borome, Charles Coffin Jewett (Chicago: American Library Association, 1951), pp. 45-71.

need for a uniform set of cataloguing rules, which Jewett both collected and devised. William Frederick Poole of the Chicago Public Library dismissed the idea as "Mr. Jewett's mud catalogue" but others saw a tremendous potential in the concept. In spite of the unanimous approval of the plan by the delegates, when the invention was finally put into operation, the shrinking and warping of the clay plates prevented success. However, the same principle was later incorporated in the production of catalogues by using metal plates. In addition, Jewett's attempt at a codification of rules was the first of several attempts in this country to standardize library practice in the cataloguing of books.

Several other topics discussed during the convention may be described briefly. Charles Folsom of the Boston Athenaeum presented a proposal for a "card catalogue," which was actually a series of punched slips of paper on a string. Many other librarians saw the desirability of having a manual of accepted library practice. The Librarian's Manual, published by Reubin Guild of Brown University in 1858, was probably a result of this expression. Samuel Osgood, a Unitarian minister, suggested in a speech that popular libraries should be established throughout the nation. Reverend Edward Everett Hale, representing the Worcester Young Men's Christian Association library, seconded the suggestion but pointed out that the term "public" referred to subscription

libraries, not public libraries in the modern sense of the term. In addition, Poole's periodical index was on display, and the librarians formally approved plans for the second edition. At the end of the meeting, it was voted to form a permanent organization and to hold a second meeting the following year in Washington.

Throughout the convention it was obvious the librarians intended to establish a permanent organization. In fact, President Jewett had said in his opening address:

> I unite most cordially in the hope which I have heard expressed this morning, that the Convention may be the precursor of a permanent and highly useful organization.[1]

Before the end of the convention, a committee of five members was appointed to make arrangements for the next meeting. Several matters were referred to committees with instructions to report back at the 1854 meeting. Thus, there is conclusive evidence that the librarians fully intended to meet again.[2]

For a number of reasons the committee charged with making arrangements failed to do so, and a second meeting was never held. There have been several explanations offered by authors and historians of the period.[3] The

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[1] Norton's Literary and Educational Register for 1854 (New York: Norton, 1854), p. 55.

[2] Ibid., p. 94.

[3] See Samuel S. Green, The Public Library Movement in the United States, 1853-1893 (Boston: Boston Book Co., 1913), p. 10.

immediate reason for the failure to meet in Washington, D.C. as planned was that in July of 1854, Jewett was removed from his position at the Smithsonian Institution. Jewett, as the most influential librarian at the 1853 convention, a member of the arrangements committee planning the second meeting, and the only resident of Washington on the committee, was no longer in a position of authority. General Norton of the Gazette later encountered financial difficulties and was unable to continue his active promotion of library interests. Other reasons for not meeting later were probably the financial crisis of 1857, the events leading to the Civil War, and the Reconstruction era.

The convention of 1853 was in several important respects a failure. The librarians were unsuccessful in their attempt to found a permanent organization, and they were not successful in stimulating a second meeting. There were, however, some important indirect results from this meeting:

1. An informal arrangement was made between librarians for the regular exchange of reports and circulars.
2. Librarians had the opportunity to learn about the systems of classification in use in the various libraries.

3. The resulting publicity in newspapers was entirely favorable, helping to establish a climate friendly to library development.
4. Folsom's crude "card catalogue" was explained to other librarians.
5. A considerable number of librarians became personally acquainted and more aware of each other's problems.
6. Although no permanent organization resulted, the precedent was established for holding national meetings of librarians. This precedent contributed to the later founding of the American Library Association.

The Conference of 1876

There was general agreement following the convention of 1853 that it had been highly successful, but twenty-three years elapsed before a second national meeting of librarians was held. During this time, it is possible that librarians wrote to each other about the convention and about meeting again, but there is no record of this. Then as the centennial year of 1876, celebrating the American revolution, approached, it apparently occurred to a number of librarians that another meeting would be appropriate.

It is, of course, now difficult to determine the

point of origin for the idea of librarians holding a second conference or convention. There were many librarians still living who had attended the 1853 meeting and apparently the spirit of that meeting had not entirely dissipated.[1] It might also be pointed out that a number of associations had already been formed, including the American Book Trade Association, and the time seemed ripe for this type of cooperation. Moreover, there were many professional meetings scheduled to be held during the centennial celebration in Philadelphia, and it seemed logical for librarians to go along with the trend. If the later word of Melvil Dewey, librarian of Amherst College, can be accepted, for several years, he had had in mind the formation of a national organization of librarians and the establishment of a library periodical.[2] Therefore, while it is difficult to determine precisely who was really responsible for the meeting, there were a number of leaders who became interested in the possibility of a meeting. The time also seemed to be very appropriate for the formation of an association of librarians.

The first suggestion in print that a conference should be held was apparently an anonymous letter in the

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[1]George B. Utley, The Librarians' Conference of 1853 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1951), p. 3.

[2]R. R. Bowker, "Postscript," Library Journal, XXI (February, 1896), 52.

London Academy in March, 1876.[1] The writer commented, "In these days of International Congresses, it is strange that no attempt should have been made to convene a Congress of librarians." The letter was noticed by Frederick Leypoldt of The Publishers' Weekly and reprinted in that journal on April 22, 1876. Charles Cutter, librarian of the Boston Athenaeum, also commented on the letter in the April 20, 1876, issue of The Nation.

One of those who read the letter in The Publishers' Weekly was Melvil Dewey at Amherst. On May 16, 1876, he left for New York to talk over his various plans with Leypoldt and Richard R. Bowker, also of The Publishers' Weekly. Dewey's diary indicates the date of the meeting as May 18, but the discussion apparently occurred on May 17.[2] The result of the meeting was an agreement to issue a call for a national library conference. On May 17, Leypoldt and Dewey sent a letter to Justin Winsor of the Boston Public Library, enclosing a preliminary call. Several days later, a similar call went out to other librarians, but this time it was signed by Leypoldt, Dewey, E. L. Jones of the American Catalogue, and William I. Fletcher of Hartford, Connecticut. Fletcher's name was

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[1]Identified as Professor Friedrich Max-Muller, former curator of the Bodlein Library.

[2]Melvil Dewey's Diary, Melvil Dewey Papers, Columbia University Libraries.

added, without his knowledge, at the suggestion of Dewey. In this regard, Dewey wrote in his diary for May 18, 1875:

> I told them that Fletcher of Hartford who was the most promising of the young librarians was in favor of such a convention, and would surely sign the call as soon as it was offered to him, indeed from what he told me I should think it safe to put his name down on the list as in favor of the project.

As a matter of fact, it was not "safe," for Fletcher's superior at the Watkinson Library in Hartford refused to let him attend the meeting. This situation proved to be very embarrassing to Dewey, and he wrote in his diary on May 20, "we got into an awkward little hole" over the mistake.

The call sent out was simply a suggestion that "efficiency and economy in library work" would be promoted by such a conference. It recommended August 15, 1876, in Philadelphia as a practical time and place for a meeting. It noted another call would be issued in the near future and asked all librarians who were willing to sign such a call to write Melvil Dewey at The Publishers' Weekly office. The response from this announcement was quite favorable, but there were several problems. According to Justin Winsor, unless the librarians met in Boston, it would be practically impossible for him to attend. Although Dewey wrote in his diary that "Poole & the Boston people were all agreed to sign without knowing more of the character of the project . . . ," Poole was not at all

willing to add his name to the call. In a letter to Winsor, Poole grumbled first of all about being contacted by telegram. He added he would have to know more about the meeting and "who is at the bottom of it before giving the use of my name."[1] Six days later, Poole again wrote to Winsor to say he had received a circular from Leypoldt and was surprised to see it indicated Winsor's support of the conference:

> Is this authorized? I inferred you were not for the plan from your note to me. They want my name. I have not given it, for it looks to me as if there were axes to be ground. Leypoldt says you will be asked to draw up a circular. I have written to Leypoldt that when you do this, he is authorized to append my name to it.[2]

Another librarian who posed a problem for the conference planners was Ainsworth R. Spofford, the Librarian of Congress. Although he expressed the opinion conferences were "mere wordy outlets for impracticables and pretenders," Spofford thought it might be possible to attend the proposed meeting.[3] He was not, however, willing to sign his name to the call. Poole transmitted this information to Winsor in Boston, with the added comment attributed to the President of Amherst College that Dewey was a "tremendous

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[1]Letter, Poole to Winsor, May 18, 1876, Boston Public Library.

[2]Letter, Poole to Winsor, May 24, 1876, Boston Public Library.

[3]Letter, Spofford to Leypoldt, May 29, 1876, "A.L.A. Scrapbook," ALA Archives.

talker, and a little of an old maid." As if to finish the discussion about attending the conference, he closed with the comment, "It won't pay for you and me to attend that barbeque."[1]

Fortunately, other librarians were more enthusiastic about the proposal. Important leaders such as Reubin Guild, Henry A. Holmes of the New York State Library, and Lloyd P. Smith of the Library Company of Philadelphia indicated their support. The significant exception was still Poole. Dewey realized the importance of having his signature, so he not only wrote to Poole, but he also asked Charles Cutter to write Poole a letter of reassurance. Cutter wrote of Dewey that he was "no imposter, humbug, speculator, deadbeat, or anything of the sort," but of course Poole had never indicated that he believed this to be true of Dewey.[2] In his letter, Dewey reassured Poole that the only reason he was so prominent in the planning of the conference was that no one else was willing to do all the necessary work without compensation. He ended his letter in an almost pleading manner:

> We can't do without you and feel satisfied. Your name is always mentioned among the very first, and it would look all wrong not to see it in the list we now have.[3]

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[1]Poole to Winsor, May 31, 1876, "A.L.A. Scrapbook."

[2]Cutter to Poole, June 5, 1876, "A.L.A. Scrapbook."

[3]Dewey to Poole, June 5, 1876, "A.L.A. Scrapbook."

Apparently the coaxing was effective, for between June 5 and June 10 a second call went out to librarians regarding the proposed conference, and this time Poole's name was included among the signers. Indeed, Poole was soon writing to Dewey with suggestions, and hinting that Spofford, the only major librarian who had not signed the call, might easily be persuaded to join in the planning.[1]

At the suggestion of a number of people, the time of the conference was changed to October 4-6. Another printed call went out on June 28 which included the names of many prominent librarians and was signed by Winsor, Poole, Smith, and Dewey. In addition, Charles Cutter commented in The Nation on June 27, "the profession is awakening to a sense that it is a profession" and in need of a permanent organization such as other professions had already established. The response to this call, and perhaps the additional publicity, was reassuring. Even Spofford responded, saying he would be able to be present and would be willing to present a paper.

The problem of providing full or partial stenographic reports of all meetings led to an argument between the strong-minded Dewey and the equally strong-minded Poole. Poole was against the idea because of the cost, as he explained in a letter to Winsor on September 18:

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[1]Poole to Dewey, June 15, 1876, "A.L.A. Scrapbook."

> I am somewhat in doubt whether we want full reports. It will be a premium offered to loquaciousness. And who is to bear the expense? Our librarians cannot do it. Please apply a breaching to Dewey & hold him back.

Poole prevailed in this argument, but Dewey only reluctantly gave up the idea. As one of the secretaries at the conference, he later complained about the additional work this detailed.

The day of the conference arrived, and 103 librarians assembled in the Pennsylvania Historical Society rooms. Justin Winsor was elected President, while Spofford, James Yates, Poole, and Smith were all elected Vice-Presidents. Since stenographers were not hired, Dewey, Charles Evans of the Indianapolis Public Library, and Guild acted as secretaries. The general plan was to have a paper presented, followed by a general discussion. Among the topics covered were cooperative indexing, cooperative cataloging, injuries to books from gas and heat, sizes of books, branch libraries, novel reading, and public relations. The practical emphasis of the conference was shown in the policy of allowing general questions, with prominent librarians stating how they solved the problems.

The influence of Dewey was everywhere at the conference, as can be seen in the committee reports and in the transcripts of the general sessions. Perhaps the best example of this influence was in the action taken on the question of book sizes and how they were to be noted in

catalogs. Charles Evans had delivered an excellent paper on the "Sizes of Printed Books" which caused considerable discussion, and resulted in the appointment of a committee to investigate the possibilities.[1] Before the close of the conference, Evans, as chairman of the committee, reported to the assembled librarians. He indicated the committee members recommended book sizes be noted in centimeters. Since Dewey was active in metric reform, which he believed would be adopted by the entire world in a short time, it was obvious who was behind the proposal. Poole arose to object, saying he had been a committee member but was not aware of this decision. Dewey explained:

> It will shed some light on the remarks of the gentleman from Chicago if I say that during the session of this committee last evening a very small minority felt constrained to retire--shall I say it?--to smoke. It was during the absence of this small minority that the report presented was unanimously adopted by the committee.[2]

The "small minority" had been out-manuevered, and the committee report was adopted without further comment.

A paper that has often been overlooked, but which at the time probably created much discussion was presented by Samuel S. Green, librarian of the Worcester,

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[1]Committee members were Dewey, Evans, Poole, John Edmands of the Mercantile Library Company of Philadelphia, Jacob Schwartz of the New York Apprentices' Library, James Whitney of the Boston Public Library, and Lloyd P. Smith.

[2]Papers and Proceedings of the American Library Association in Library Journal I (October, 1876), 143.

Massachusetts Free Library. Green advocated closer personal relations between librarians and their public, a new concept for the time.[1] The New York World on January 3, 1877, went so far as to suggest that all public librarians and their assistants should be required to pass an examination on the contents of Green's address.

In addition to the reports and the speeches given, there were other benefits derived from the conference. The special report, Public Libraries in the United States of America, the first truly national survey of libraries, was brought to the conference from Washington by its editor, Samuel R. Warren.[2] The cataloguing rules of Charles Cutter, which actually formed Part II of the national survey edited by Warren, were made available for perusal; in fact, they were so available the twenty-five copies brought to the meeting "for display only" were said to have lasted about that many minutes. The secretary, probably Dewey, noted that this was a good illustration of the warning to "beware of specialists who are prone to carry off the volumes which they most thoroughly

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[1]Samuel S. Green, "Personal Relations Between Librarians and Readers," American Library Journal, I (November 30, 1876), 74-81.

[2]Samuel R. Warren, ed., Public Libraries in the United States of America (Washington: Bureau of Education, 1875-76).

appreciated."[1] The first edition of Dewey's Decimal Classification system was presented to the public at this conference, and Dewey answered questions raised by librarians. Several committees were also established to consider means of cooperation, and this augured well for the future.[2] Above all else, a forum had been established. There was now an organization with meetings where common problems could be discussed, new ideas proposed, and friendships sealed. Unlike the convention of 1853, the organization would prove to be permanent and the momentum would continue. The American Library Association had been established by resolution during the final session of the closing day of the conference.

A pleased Melvil Dewey wrote about the success of the conference several months later. He believed that it had been a triumph beyond the hopes of even the most ardent proponent. He added this prediction of one of the oldest librarians: "Through all coming time 1876 will be looked upon as the most eventful year in the history of libraries." In addition, Dewey said it was the year in which librarians took their place among the recognized

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[1] Ibid., p. 170.

[2] Among the committees established were the following: Cooperation Committee, Committee on Poole's Index, and the Committee on the Sizes of Books.

professions.[1]

Library Journal

The year 1876 had also seen the arrival of the first periodical devoted to librarianship. This was the American Library Journal, with the first issue dated September 30, 1876. On the masthead, Melvil Dewey was listed as Managing Editor and F. Leypoldt as the Publisher. The name was changed to Library Journal in the September, 1877, issue. By the date of the first issue, and by its contents, it is easily seen that the new publication was not a result of the birth of the new Association, but instead preceded it. An editorial stated:

> The Committee's programme for the Philadelphia Conference is printed elsewhere. It will be seen that discussions on the more important library topics will be opened by papers from the leading librarians of the country. . . . There is no lack of inducement for librarians to attend; and as it should be the most profitable three days of their library life, it is scarcely to be supposed that any Board will refuse to grant leave of absence, not the least important outcome of this meeting should be the proposed national organization.[2]

The same issue also carried a brief sketch of the development of the idea of the new periodical. According to this short history, formal plans had been made for its publication at the May, 1876, meeting between R. R. Bowker,

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[1]Melvil Dewey, "The American Library Association," American Library Journal, I (March 31, 1877), 245-46.

[2][Editorial], American Library Journal, I (September 30, 1876), 12-13.

Frederick Leypoldt, and Melvil Dewey. Thus it is easily understandable that Bowker resented the later statements that Library Journal was an achievement of ALA. Bowker was more willing to accede to Dewey's claim to be the originator of the idea, although he clearly did not agree with the claim.[1] On the final day of the conference, after the formation of ALA had been accomplished, it was moved that the American Library Journal be considered the organization's official organ. Although the proceedings of the meeting do not indicate that this resolution was passed, apparently it did because the February 28, 1877, issue added the words "Official Journal of the American Library Association" to the masthead.

Although benefiting somewhat from the designation as the official organ of ALA, there was no direct subsidy to the Library Journal. The subscription list was small, and the struggle for mere existence was a constant one for the new periodical. Libraries in general had suffered from the extended period of depression following the panic of 1873, and found even the low subscription price a burden. With the resumption of specie payment in 1879, there was a general resurgence of prosperity in the country. For some time, however, it seemed as if the improved economic conditions had come too late. In a cautious note in

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[1]R. R. Bowker, "A Postscript," Library Journal, XXI (February, 1896), 52.

December, 1879, the publisher announced that the Library Journal would be continued through 1880. The statement expressed the hope that "the efforts of the friends of library progress will be more actively exerted in its behalf."[1] Two months later the "Title Slip Registry," a feature of Library Journal, previously discussed, was discontinued. In June, 1880, the publisher announced that Library Journal was to be suspended. A loss of $2,500 had been incurred in the publication, and the publisher felt that the lack of support from the library profession meant it was futile to continue. Most of the material previously appearing in Library Journal would henceforth be included in The Publisher' Weekly, according to the announcement. At some future time, when the growth of public library interest warranted it, the publication would be resumed. This announcement created considerable protest and sympathy among librarians, and led to the resumption of Library Journal with a July-August, 1880, issue. Frederick Leypoldt replaced Bowker as editor, with Melvil Dui also listed as an editor.[2] Although the editors promised only to complete the volume, in December it was announced that

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[1]"Publishers Note," Library Journal, IV (December, 1879), 461.

[2]Dewey was an early and ardent advocate of spelling reform. The change in spelling appeared for the first time in the January, 1880, Library Journal.

publication would be continued for another year. Thus, the periodical seemed to have survived its worst period of inadequate financial backing and deficient circulation.

Summary

After the abortive attempt in 1853, librarians were successful in establishing their own professional organization in 1876. Credit cannot be given to any one individual for proposing ALA, since it seemed to have occurred to a number of people at the same time. But Melvil Dewey was certainly the guiding force in the planning and success of the Philadelphia conference. This conference was successful in establishing the professional organization, in setting up a committee structure to insure continuity, and in establishing a pattern which was followed in future ALA meetings. Three characteristics can be noted in the 1876 conference which became trends for the following conferences: (1) a dependence on older, well-established librarians for the leadership;[1] (2) the presentation of papers of a practical nature to stimulate thought and discussion; and (3) the use of a committee structure to provide further investigation in depth for the benefit of librarians.

The profession was fortunate also in the

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[1]Dewey, who was twenty-five years old in 1876, was the notable exception.

establishment of its own periodical, the Library Journal, in 1876. Although an independent operation, it was tied to ALA as the official organ. Library Journal contributed to the esprit de corps in the profession, to the body of knowledge of library science, and to the communication of news of interest to librarians. Hampered by the inadequate financing, as was ALA, the new periodical managed to continue publication after a very brief interruption. In doing so, it may well have contributed to the survival of the Association itself, since the periodical created publicity, provided a means of easy communication, and added to the common bond among librarians. The close relationship between the Association and Library Journal continued until the establishment of the ALA Bulletin as the official organ of ALA in 1908.

At this point in the summary, it would be appropriate to suggest reasons why the 1876 conference was successful, whereas the 1853 meeting failed to produce a permanent organization. The United States had changed significantly in the period of time between conferences. In 1853 the divisive issues leading to the Civil War were uppermost in the minds of the people. By 1876 the Reconstruction period was almost over. The nation was about to embark on a long period of comparative sectional harmony and economic growth. An urban life style was rapidly replacing the rural society of pre-Civil War

America. Libraries were becoming more numerous and more important. In 1853 there were about 500 libraries; in 1876 there were 3,700 libraries. Transportation was also becoming less of a problem with the urbanization. It was easier for librarians to travel and to meet one another. The growth and success of other professional organizations undoubtedly had an effect on the establishment of ALA. Already established were such groups as the American Medical Association in 1847, the National Education Association in 1857, and the American Dental Association in 1859. Soon to be formed were the American Bar Association (1878) and the American Economic Association (1885). The period of time, an era of growing nationalism, seemed to be especially favorable towards the establishment of professional groups. The Library Journal provided the publicity and constant encouragement to continue the efforts. Finally, the 1876 conference had energetic leaders like Winsor, Dewey, and Bowker. These men, and others, provided the momentum which enabled the conference to develop into ALA.

CHAPTER III

DECADE OF ESTABLISHMENT

The librarians at the Philadelphia conference had chosen as the first ALA President, Justin Winsor, who was undoubtedly the best-known figure in the library world at that time. He had been Superintendent of the Boston Public Library since 1868, but in 1877 he became Librarian of Harvard University. In both positions Winsor displayed a remarkable talent for administration. Besides Winsor, the Association chose three Vice-Presidents: Ainsworth R. Spofford of the Library of Congress, William F. Poole of the Chicago Public Library, and Henry A. Holmes of the New York State Library. Melvil Dewey was chosen as Secretary. This group was named to act as an Executive Board, and was charged with the responsibility of drawing up a constitution. This document was printed in the Library Journal of March 31, 1877, and was characterized by the editor as "admirably brief and clear. . . ."[1] Two points in this first constitution are worth noting. First, it called for the membership of the Association to elect an Executive

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[1] [Editorial], Library Journal, I (March 31, 1877), 1.

Board of five members. This group had the power to select additional members, and was then to elect officers of ALA from the Executive Board thus constituted. The Board was also given the task of naming committee members from its own membership.[1] The Executive Board was given full authority to act for the Association between conferences in all matters on which the Board was in unanimous agreement. The spirit of democracy, then, does not appear to be strong in this constitution, but at least the leaders provided a check on the Executive Board's authority to act for the Association.

Following the first conference there was an unusual amount of committee activity growing out of the initial meetings at Philadelphia. A very strong spirit of friendliness and cooperation is evident in the reports of progress made by the several committees. The committee concerned with book sizes was an example of this cooperative spirit. Its members recommended the substitution of letters for numerical symbols then in use in describing the sizes of books. It suggested the use of the letter Q for 4^{o}, O for 8^{o}, and D for 12^{o}.[2] The committee reported it had also

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[1]The apparent intent of this rule was to limit membership of committees to current members of the Executive Board.

[2]"Report of the Committee on Sizes," Library Journal, I (January 31, 1877), 180.

reconsidered the use of the centimeter instead of inches in cataloging information. It will be remembered that at the Philadelphia conference Dewey had successfully manuevered ALA into adopting the metric system. After considering the question, committee members declined to make a change:

> They find on investigation that even the opponents of the metric system acknowledge that it is soon to come into general use in this country . . .[1]

Not surprisingly, one notes that Dewey was a member of this committee, along with James L. Whitney and Charles A. Cutter. At this time progress was also noted on a new edition of Poole's Index to Periodicals. William Frederick Poole had produced two editions of this index, the basic periodical index of the nineteenth century. He had then indicated that if a new edition were to be produced, it would have to be a cooperative venture. Librarians at the Philadelphia conference had expressed a strong interest in additional indexing. Dewey had noted that Amherst College library was spending $50.00 each year in supplementing Poole's work.[2] After Poole outlined the problems he had encountered in his first two editions, librarians agreed to undertake a new edition on a cooperative basis. A

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "The Proceedings," American Library Journal, I (November 30, 1876), 116.

committee was formed to establish policy and to make plans. It reported the initial findings in January, 1877. The committee decided to establish a uniform set of rules for indexing, to limit their indexing to English language periodicals, to issue supplements at five year intervals, and to continue the subject-only indexing of the first two editions.[1] Poole also reported that he had found an associate editor in William I. Fletcher.[2]

Several months later the cooperative committee, with Dewey as its secretary, announced the first major project of ALA. This was a proposal to provide libraries throughout the country with library supplies of good quality at low prices. A common problem at this time was the lack of sources of supplies of a uniform quality, so the suggestion of the committee was timely. The committee also announced that a unique financial arrangement had been made: any profit derived from the project was to accrue to ALA, and any loss would be absorbed by Dewey. This supply department was headquartered at Dewey's address in Boston for a period of one year. During that time, there was some criticism of ALA for being engaged in a commercial venture.

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[1]"Report of the Committee on a New Edition of Poole's Index," American Library Journal, I (January 31, 1877), 182.

[2]Fletcher was then the librarian of the Watkinson Library in Hartford, Connecticut, and was later librarian of Amherst College.

The result was that the relationship was curtailed, although the service was continued. Subsequent names of this supply department were "The Readers' and Writers' Economy Company" and the "Library Bureau."

An early editorial in the American Library Journal on standardization and cooperation had unknowingly prophesied internal dissension in the new organization. This article was unsigned, but had all the earmarks of the managing editor, Dewey.[1] It stressed the need to arrive at "agreement upon certain points," such as book sizes, abbreviations, form and order of titles, and other problems facing the librarian. According to the author of the editorial, after library procedures were agreed upon and approved by ALA, then the organization could concern itself with other matters. This emphasis on uniformity was characteristic of Dewey, and would lead to many bitter debates later on.[2] At this time, however, the spirit of cooperation was too pervasive to allow differences of opinion to hamper library progress.

New York Conference, 1877

President Justin Winsor opened the 1877 conference with remarks which illustrated the general positive

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[1][Editorial], American Library Journal, I (January 31, 1877), 176.

[2]Two early examples of this can be seen in the discussions of the 1877 and the 1885 conferences.

attitude of the librarians:

> I think we meet with a confidence greater than last year, and with the feeling that a good work has begun, and well begun. Our purpose then was undefined as compared with our present aims. We have fostered a fellow-feeling that has been helpful to each other. . . . We have vindicated the profession before the ordinary, working-day world.[1]

This conference was meant to be a working meeting, so there were few papers presented. Topics included were: the problem of fires in libraries, the distribution of public documents, discounts on book purchases, accession records, and the spread of disease by books. Mr. Winsor reported on the recently established telephone network between the central library of Boston and its branches. He also commented on a new machine which had recently become available:

> I have experimented somewhat with typewriters. I never succeeded in getting any satisfactory work.[2]

It was at this conference that internal strife first surfaced. The problem was uniform title entries, and the question of capitalization in titles. Dewey was for the omission of capitals and wished to have the Association endorse this position. On the opposite side was William Frederick Poole, who said:

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, II (September, 1877), 5.

[2]Ibid., 34.

> I wish to say that I do not propose to be bound by anything that this Association may do in this matter. I do not regard it as an essential matter; it is simply a matter of taste. The Association ought not to prescribe any special rule in this matter, no more than it ought to say what kind of a necktie a male shall wear. . . . I propose to stick to the old English system, and to use it until we get ready to write a small "I" for the personal pronoun.[1]

It was Dewey's position on this and other questions of standardization that it was necessary for the organization to set policy. He, as Secretary, received many letters from librarians asking for advice on procedures. The replies given would carry more authority if they represented decisions made by the Association, according to Dewey. It was, of course, more than this. Dewey was very systematic and well-organized. It was his desire that libraries should be organized uniformly for the convenience of patrons. This would only be possible if all libraries adopted similar policies. Sanction of ALA would encourage uniformity among librarians.[2] Poole was not alone in opposition to Dewey, but he was the leader. Thus, it was Poole who was characterized as the "Martin Luther of the Conference" in an editorial in Library Journal. This editorial was unsigned, but was probably written by the managing editor, Dewey. It pointed out that:

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

> The Association is not a mandatory body, nor does it assume infallibility. The difficulty against which Mr. Poole . . . frequently protested, has therefore no existence: it is not expected that large existing libraries should revolutionize existing systems for the sake of ideal but inconvenient uniformity. But a uniform system, for the value of those who can conveniently use it, is none the less desirable.[1]

International Conference of Librarians

Following the close of the conference, twelve members of ALA sailed to England to the International Conference of Librarians. One member of the party, Reubin Guild, tried to set the pattern for "ship togs" and frivolity. Unfortunately, before the ship got out of the New York harbor he became sick and found it necessary to return to his room. Except during brief periods of good weather and smooth water, he remained there the rest of the journey.[2] Arrangements abroad had been made by Dewey, and it was soon discovered that all of the hotels were temperance hotels. As a contemporary account points out, the librarians were "nowhere subjected to the allurements of the charms of the sociable and attractive barmaids of England. . . ."[3] After a quick tour of some of the

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, II (September, 1877), 14.

[2]Samuel S. Green, The Public Library Movement in the United States, 1853-1893 (Boston: Boston Book Company, 1913), p. 60.

[3]Ibid.

libraries of Great Britain, the librarians went to London. There they met in conference on October 2, with 200 delegates from other countries. More than half of the delegates were from the British Isles. All except four of the delegates to the conference were men.[1]

John Winter Jones, Librarian of the British Museum, was elected president of the conference. In his opening address, he paid tribute to American inspiration for holding the meeting:

> The idea of holding a Conference of Librarians originated in America--in that country of energy and activity which has set the world so many good examples, and of which a Conference of Librarians is not the least valuable, looking to the practicl results which may be anticipated from it.[2]

As had been true of ALA's first conference, almost every library topic was discussed at this meeting. Two topics are worthy of note here. There was considerable discussion over the desirability of printing the catalog of the British Museum. Although there was not unanimous agreement that this project should be undertaken, the thorough airing of the possibility helped to lead to its future publication. A second topic was the discussion which led to the formation of an organization similar to ALA. The Library

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[1] Ibid., p. 65.

[2] Transactions and Proceedings of the Conference of Librarians (London: Trubner, 1878), p. 1.

Association of the United Kingdom was the result of this discussion. It was established on October 5, 1877, the last day of the conference.[1] Following the close of the meetings, most of the Americans visited libraries in Paris before returning home to the United States.

Enroute to the United States on the steamship Alsatia, the Executive Board of ALA decided to eliminate the annual conference in 1878. There would be, instead, an international meeting in Boston to be held early in 1879. Meanwhile there was to be an emphasis on committee work and on cooperative effort within the organization.[2] Committees had been very active already and a number of proposals had been suggested. Firm progress had been made on several of the suggestions. By omitting a conference in 1878, further efforts might be expected in 1879, leaders believed, because it would allow greater concentration on the work, rather than on the meetings. One of the problems receiving a great amount of attention at this time has remained to the present day. This was the proposal to have the books arrive at the library already cataloged. As Library Journal pointed out in 1879, "no other thing has served as cornerstone for so many library

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[1]"The English Conference," Library Journal, II (October, 1877), 65.

[2]"Omission of Annual Meeting," Library Journal, III (August, 1878), 222.

utopias."[1] A Committee on Publishers Title-Slips had been working on the problem for a period of time without coming up with a realistic solution. It was even suggested that advertising material be included with the title-slips to help defray the cost of cataloging. Publishers, however, were unwilling to assume the additional financial burden of providing the cataloging information. For a short period of time Library Journal included a "Title Slip Registry" which was similar in nature, but this, too, was unsuccessful and was soon discontinued.[2] In a related area, the Committee on Uniform Title Entries presented the "Condensed Rules for Cataloging" in March, 1878, according to Library Journal. These rules were later accepted by ALA as the basic cataloging rules. They were then presented to the Library Association of the United Kingdom to be used as the basis for establishing a common code of rules, but agreement on this was not possible until 1908.[3] In the United States, too, many libraries with established collections refused to conform to the new rules because of the cost of catalog revision.

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[1]"Publishers' Title Slips," Library Journal, III (May, 1879), 112.

[2]"Publisher's Note," Library Journal, IV (December, 1879), 461.

[3]"The Oxford Conference," Library Journal, III (October, 1878), 289.

Boston Conference, 1879

On June 30, 1879, ALA began what was hoped to be an international library conference in Boston. Sir Anthony Panizzi of the British Museum and other leading foreign librarians were invited, but did not attend. It is interesting to note that Panizzi's chair and table were sent to the conference, and were used by the officers. Papers were presented on such topics as library legislation, theft problems in libraries, binding, cataloging and classification, ventilation of library buildings, and the spread of diseases by books. The major complaint heard at the conference was that the time consumed in presenting so many papers left little time for discussion. Dewey, in a long and rambling report as secretary, began with this observation:

> Coincidences and surprises seem the order of the day, and I was lucky to have discovered a few hours ago that this first day of the Boston meeting is the thousandth since we met to organize. Our President shows his suspicion of the decimal character of my coincidence, but I plead innocent of any knowledge of the fact till last evening.[1]

He reported that during the three years, a total of 15,227 letters and cards had been sent out by the headquarters of the Association. Membership stood at 365 in 1879.

During the previous year ALA had undertaken the

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, IV (July-August, 1879), 282.

sponsorship of a major bibliographic project. This was the announcement of the Cooperation Committee of the beginning of a "general cooperative catalogue," also called the "A.L.A. catalogue." The purpose of this work was to act as a buying guide for small libraries. It was to be a carefully selected list of several thousand volumes chosen by experienced librarians. The December, 1878, issue of Library Journal stated that the "A.L.A. catalogue is so far started that it may also be expected next year."[1] This was, however, an overly-optimistic prediction. At the Boston conference the membership was told of the lack of financial support for the cooperative venture. Not enough subscriptions had been received to guarantee a successful sale for the publisher. Dewey mentioned that 200 additional subscriptions were needed, and said that he would be willing to be responsible for one-fifth of that total. Responses from the audience completed the required total, and publication of the "A.L.A. Catalogue" was thus assured.

During the Boston conference Dewey suggested that ALA should be incorporated. The chief advantages, according to the secretary, were: (1) a permanence and dignity which were lacking in the present organization; (2) the actions of ALA could not in any way become liabilities to its members; and (3) the organization could receive large

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[1]"Library Progress in 1878," Library Journal, III (December, 1878), 367.

gifts and hold property legally without taxation.[1] Although the proposal was accepted by the organization, and incorporation was obtained on December 10, 1879, this was not announced until one year later. With tongue in cheek, the editor explained that the delay was in the futile hope that the "first considerable gift . . . could be announced at the same time."[2]

Washington Conference, 1881

There was no annual conference in 1880. The next meeting, held in Washington, D.C. in February, 1881, was poorly attended. However, excellent papers were presented on library training, distribution of public documents, and library architecture. Following the discussion of architecture, the Association adopted the following resolution:

> In the opinion of this Association, the time has come for a radical modification of the prevailing typical style of library building and the adoption of a style of construction better suited to economy and practical utility.[3]

Dewey was discouraging in his report as Secretary. He felt that very little had been accomplished since the Boston conference in 1879. A great amount of work remained to be

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[1] "Incorporation of the L.L.A.," Library Journal, V (November-December, 1880), 307.

[2] Ibid.

[3] "The Proceedings," Library Journal, VI (November, 1881), 140.

done, but no one seemed to have the time:

> I thought four years ago that our work was like a wheel which, once under powerful motion, would run itself for a long time. But it has proved itself to be like a pump-handle, and it is not in human power to pump so hard that a single stroke will go on by its own momentum.[1]

He suggested the Association needed to have a full-time man "working the lever all the time" as its Secretary. This was later introduced as a resolution but was defeated. Samuel S. Green of the Worcester (Massachusetts) Public Library commented that the missionary work of ALA would be better performed by individual efforts and through the Library Journal than through the efforts of one man. After the resolution was defeated by a parliamentary manuever, Dr. H. A. Holmes of the New York State Library predicted that "the time would come when the Association would recognize the value and the expediency of the measure."[2] Dr. Holmes was correct, of course, but the Association was not financially stable enough in 1881 to undertake such a project.

The perplexing problem of government publications had faced the Association before without solution. At this conference a resolution was passed which is worth noting,

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[1]"Secretary's Report," in Papers and Proceedings of the A.L.A. Conference (New York: American Library Association, 1881), p. 112.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, VI (February, 1881), 135.

although it failed to produce any immediate results. In this resolution ALA called for (1) the distribution to libraries of all documents through one central agency; (2) documents to be offered for sale at a fixed proportion of actual cost; (3) a list of libraries to be designated to receive all public documents regularly; (4) a catalog of all public documents be prepared to date and kept current by supplements; (5) a scheme for arranging, cataloging, and indexing public documents devised and submitted to the Association.[1] These five points were eventually obtained.

The year 1881 saw several developments in the library world outside of ALA. First, there was the beginning of Andrew Carnegie's library endowment, with gifts to Braddock and Pittsburgh. Secondly, a number of local and regional library conferences were held. The Western Library Association was formed at Springfield, Illinois, as a result of one such meeting. This was to be the beginning of the proliferation of library organizations. The development was partly a result of the visit to London in 1877. Leaders of ALA had noted that the newly formed Library Association of the United Kingdom had a larger membership and was far more active than ALA.[2]

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[1] Ibid., 131.

[2] Charles A. Cutter, "Note on the London Conference," Library Journal, VI (November, 1881), 290.

It was felt that the success of the British organization was attributable to the close proximity of the libraries and to the frequency of the meetings. Many members of ALA felt that local and regional associations could meet frequently and thus reduce the necessity of having large annual meetings. Therefore, the "splintering" of the profession was actively encouraged as a partial solution to the problem.

Cincinnati Conference, 1882

The 1882 annual conference was held in Cincinnati in May. Because this city was so far from the center of library activity the meetings attracted the smallest group thus far, only forty-six. A feature of the program was the emphasis on progress reports on the state of knowledge in various areas of librarianship. Reports were given on charging systems, classification, and library architecture. On the topic of library buildings the chief interest concerned plans for the new building of the Library of Congress. The Association unanimously condemned the plans of Congress as being faulty. It had taken the same stand at the Washington conference, only to have the chairman of the Joint Committee on the Library Building state that librarians "warmly approved" of the new plans. In a separate resolution ALA informed Congress that this was not

the case.[1] It is true that the plans for the building were changed, but there is no evidence that the action of the Association had any influence on the decision. As an editorial in Library Journal pointed out, Congress hardly seemed aware of the existence of librarians, let alone their national association.[2]

William F. Poole reported at this conference that the manuscript for the new edition of his Index to Periodicals was completed, and that printing had begun. As noted before, this cooperative project had first been approved at the 1876 conference. Poole suggested that a "General Index" to works other than periodicals should be the next cooperative effort of ALA. Essays and miscellanies would be analyzed and indexed under specific headings, according to Poole. This was later approved and published by ALA in 1893 as the ALA Index.

Lake George Conference, 1885

It had originally been intended to have the 1884 conference in Toronto. A September meeting of British scientists was scheduled there, and it was believed that many members of the Library Association of the United

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, VII (June, 1882), 203.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, VII (December, 1882), 289.

Kingdom would be in attendance. When it was discovered that there would be no British librarians present, the 1884 meeting was cancelled.[1] The Executive Board then decided to meet at Lake George, New York, in September, 1885. This action set a pattern of meeting at a resort during alternate years which was generally followed until ALA became too large to be accomodated by any resort.

An interesting highlight of the Lake George meeting was another clash between Poole and Dewey. This time it involved the question of transliteration. Dewey wanted the Association to endorse the method of using letters rather than phonetic sounds. From the discussion it was obvious that few people really understood the principles of transliteration, and Poole therefore questioned the wisdom of a vote:

> What authority will any opinion have which we may express? We do too much voting. I have never asked the Association to endorse by vote any of my hobbies in methods of library work. . . . I will accept Mr. Dewey's opinions on some subjects (laughter); but these opinions will not be strengthened by a vote of the Association.[2]

J. L. Larned commented that "Mr. Dewey is trying to get some opinion out of us who haven't any opinion."[3] Charles

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[1]"Postponement of Toronto Conference," Library Journal, IX (July, 1884), 115.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, X (September-October, 1885), 309.

[3]Larned was librarian of the Young Men's Library Association of Buffalo, New York.

A. Cutter of the Boston Athenaeum also joined in. He was chairman of the Transliteration Committee, but admitted he knew very little about the subject:

> I do not think either that the Association knows anything about it. (Laughter) And I do not think that a definite vote at this time is desirable.[1]

The opposition was too much for Dewey and he withdrew his motion for endorsement.

As the Association completed its first decade of existence at this meeting, President Winsor announced he would not be a candidate for re-election. He had served as President since 1876. Although there was no evidence of any dissension in the organization because of his long reign, nevertheless it was generally believed that the precedent should not be continued. There would be a greater interest in the Association by the membership if all offices were open. The result was that only the Secretary and the Treasurer remained in office. Even the committee memberships were changed as a result of this desire for wider and increased participation. Poole was elected to serve as the ALA's second President.[1]

Summary

The end of Winsor's ten year reign as President

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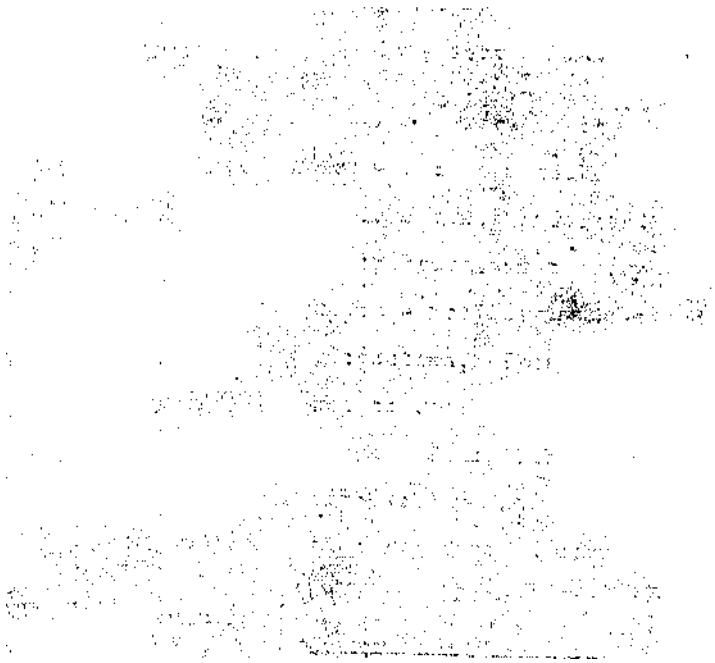
[1]"The Proceedings," op. cit., 311.

[2]Green, op. cit., 127.

may also be considered the end of the first segment of the Association's history. During this period, the organization was firmly established, although its membership was well under 500. Progress in the profession had been helped through the leadership of its members. A new edition of Poole's Index had been published, and work on the General Index had begun. Standardization had been promoted by general policy positions which ALA had taken. An excellent body of literature had already been established by the many papers presented at the conference, as well as those published in Library Journal, the Association's official organ.

If there were successes, there were also disappointments. The history of the Association during the period was largely that of the conferences, for little was accomplished between meetings. As Charles A. Cutter remarked, the conference was a "whip" to the members. Members noticed the more viable Library Association of the United Kingdom and were jealous of its activities. By comparison, ALA was thought by some to be "decaying"; certainly the interest lagged between meetings. Support of the Association by librarians in general was poor, if judged in terms of numbers. Support of its official publication, as related in the previous chapter, was even worse. It was only through the charity of its publisher that Library Journal continued to exist during these lean

years. Even in its activities the Association was led by its members, rather than providing leadership itself. Its greatest accomplishment was the new edition of Poole's Index, and yet the Association carefully avoided becoming financially involved in the venture. The Index was the work of cooperating librarians; Poole assumed full financial responsibility for it, but the Association received most of the credit for the publication.



CHAPTER IV

CONSOLIDATION AND EXPANSION

Milwaukee Conference, 1886

In spite of the fact that Milwaukee was the westernmost conference site yet chosen, the meetings attracted the largest attendance up to that time. The most important outcome of this conference was the establishment of a Publishing Section. Its stated purpose was to further cooperation among libraries by preparing and publishing bibliographies, indexes, and special catalogs. The Section began by assessing a membership fee of $1.00 per year which then entitled members to receive all publications. This assessment policy was unsuccessful and was soon dropped because of lack of response. The Section then turned to the more common practice of charging individual prices on their publications.[1] The establishment of the Publishing Section is important for two reasons. It led to an increase in the publishing of important library publications, which might not be economically feasible for commercial publishers to undertake. It also indicated that the Association intended to take an

[1]Green, op. cit., 130.

active part in publishing. As mentioned previously, during its first ten years ALA had been content to play a passive role in publishing. The establishment of the Section, along with a firmer basis for ALA itself, enabled the development of a concrete publishing program.

William Frederick Poole was re-elected President of the Association. He was the second and last President to serve two consecutive terms, as the organization had decided at its Buffalo meeting that it would not again re-elect its President. In the opinion of this writer, this extra-constitutional decision was a significant change because it relegated the presidency to a ceremonial position. No person elected would be able to gather personal power during the one year term of office. As the organization grew larger, it would require a permanency in its leadership which could not come from the President. Thus the power of leadership would in time be with an executive officer, and not with the President of ALA.

A number of topics occupied librarians, but possibly the most heated debate developed over the subject of classification. At this time, there were several classification schemes, each with their very vocal adherents. In the pages of Library Journal during 1886 there are many articles on the subject, especially concerned with the "Dui-Decimal Classification Scheme." The discussion was so protracted and became so personal that it was the subject

Poole's presidential address at Milwaukee. He urged an end to the debate, and suggested that further efforts be directed towards making classification less complicated. According to Poole, a classification scheme should be such that a librarian "who has not the wisdom of Solomon and the ingenuity of a magician" would be able to understand it.[1]

Thousand Islands Conference and the First Library School

As Poole had indicated earlier, he was not a candidate for re-election. An informal vote was taken and then the Executive Board chose Charles A. Cutter as the new President. Since the informal vote was not made public, there is now no way of positively knowing who the popular choice was in this election. But one can speculate that it might have been Ainsworth Spofford, rather than Cutter. The only evidence is in a letter Charles Evans wrote to Poole on December 30, 1887:

> I think your successor should, naturally, have been Spofford, and not Cutter; and the manner in which the latter was put through seems to call for a reform in the manner of voting for officers.[2]

Evans was not at the conference, and therefore would have had no firsthand information on the election results. He could have obrained the news from Poole, with whom he was

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[1] Ibid., 183.

[2] Evans to Poole, December 30, 1887, Newberry Library, Chicago.

in regular correspondence. Furthermore, if the Executive Board had followed the wishes of the membership, Evans would presumably have had no cause for complaint. Whatever the basis for complaint, action was taken at the next conference which prevented the Executive Board from acting contrary to membership opinion in elections. Following a motion by Dewey, the Board was restricted in its power to act as both nominator and elector. In 1893, direct election of the officers by membership was instituted.[1]

Since this was a resort, it was perhaps appropriate that the conference had many lighter moments. Dewey gave a report on the use of the electric light bulb in libraries, and its suspected injurious effects. One result was said to be an increase in freckles. But Dewey pointed out that he had observed neither an increase in freckles nor a decrease in the number of ladies using the reading rooms. Many librarians suspected that a wealthy gas company was behind the rumor campaign.[2] Dewey also scheduled a baseball match between librarians and other vacationers at the resort. According to Dewey, since only two of the librarians knew "which end of the bat was for the hands," the opposition was chosen from those "equally efficient."

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[1]"Conference of Librarians," Library Journal, XVIII (September, 1893), 56.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XII (September-October, 1887), 428.

On the team were Poole as the pitcher, Winsor as the catcher, and Dewey as the shortstop. Unfortunately, the proceedings of the conference do not report the result of this match.[1]

The opening of the first library school, the School of Library Economy of Columbia University, in January, 1887, proved to be the major library event of the year. At this point, it would be useful to retrace the development of this school, which was Dewey's undertaking. The first written statement on library education to be made by Dewey appeared in May, 1879. It is interesting in view of his later ideas about professional education. He proposed a training school or "librarians' normal school," which would be attached to a large library. The teaching would be done by experienced librarians as part of their job. Students would be exposed to a number of different teachers and therefore would receive a variety of viewpoints. Dewey seemed to have in mind a somewhat formalized apprenticeship program rather than a library school as it is known today. However, he also predicted that someday a central library school would be necessary for the profession.[2] Four years later, Dewey demonstrated that he

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[1]Melvil Dewey, "Report of the Committee on Arrangements," Library Journal, XII (September-October, 1887), 429.

[2]Melvil Dewey, "Apprenticeship of Librarians," Library Journal, IV (May 31, 1879), 16.

had changed his ideas about library education. At the Buffalo conference in 1883 he announced that he had proposed the establishment of a library school at Columbia. The proposed school was far different from today's library school. Dewey saw the program as one primarily concerned with the technical aspects of librarianship.[1] Although Dewey's announcement came as a surprise to the profession, it should not be assumed that the proposal was novel. The idea had been discussed a number of times previously. The first issue of Library Journal had carried a statement by Justin Winsor on the need for such training. The following year the delegates to the International Conference in London frequently debated the question on board ship. Samuel S. Green later recalled he had suggested to Winsor that Harvard offer courses for training librarians.[2] It remained, however, for Dewey to make the formal proposal to Columbia College. In his typical fashion he then asked the Association to approve his proposal. As was often the case, opposition came from Poole:

> . . . I have entertained the idea that practical work in a library, based on a previous education in the schools, was the only proper way to train good librarians. The information cannot be imparted by lectures; and who, that is competent, has the time to do the lecturing?

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[1]W. Boyd Rayward, "Melvil Dewey and Education for Librarianship," Journal of Library History, III (October, 1968), 299.

[2]Green, op. cit., 109.

> I do not precisely know what he intends to do, if anything, beyond what I have stated as desirable to be done, and what every large library ought to be doing.[1]

The reaction of Dewey to this statement was to remind librarians that Poole had also opposed the 1876 conference. Furthermore, according to Dewey, Poole had since invited Dewey to kick him in the seat of the pants for that opposition. A very angry Poole threatened to make public letters in his possession which disputed Dewey's claim to being the originator of the 1876 conference:

> This sort of talk must stop, or I shall feel it necessary to say something in public which you won't like to hear. . . . I can give the public some extracts from these letters if it is necessary. I shall be sorry to do it, but I won't be attacked by in this way.[2]

Poole further indicated that he was tired of being called an obstructionist every time he failed to support one of Dewey's projects. He asked for a public apology and a retraction. This Dewey refused to do, but he did promise not to repeat the statements.

Other librarians also opposed any sanction of the proposal by ALA. In a compromise move, President Winsor then appointed a committee to decide what resolution might be appropriate. The result was a carefully worded

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[1]"A.L.A. Proceedings," Library Journal, VIII (September-October, 1887), 288.

[2]Letter, Poole to Dewey, December 28, 1883, Melvil Dewey Papers, Columbia University Libraries.

statement in which the Association expressed its "gratification" that the Columbia College regents were considering the possibility of giving instruction in library work. Further, the statement said it was hoped "the experiment may be tried."[1] This was not the wholehearted endorsement which Dewey desired to have from ALA. In view of the division on the question within the organization, however, it was the most satisfactory position that could be arranged.[2] In addition, a new committee was appointed to take into "consideration all projects and schemes for the education of librarians," and to report on its findings at the next conference. In this inauspicious way, ALA began its program of evaluation which was to develop into the accrediting of library science programs. Thus even before the first formal course was offered, the organization had asserted its interest.

Dewey's School of Library Economy at Columbia opened in January, 1887. He had done some recruiting at women's colleges during the previous year, so that a group of seventeen women and three men formed the first class. The curriculum of the school followed the general pattern which Dewey had outlined in 1883, assuming a rather technical nature. There is some evidence to indicate that

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[1]"Proceedings, 1883," Library Journal, VIII (September-October, 1883), 290.

[2]Vann, op. cit., 27.

Dewey himself was not strongly committed at this time towards a technical program or a more broadly based curriculum. He was perhaps more concerned with striking a balance between what ALA would accept on the one hand, and how far Columbia's regents would go on the other hand.[1] Although the new school had been in existence only a few months, it was the subject of a committee report at the Thousand Islands Conference in 1887. The committee members submitted enthusiastic, friendly reports. The only negative comments made suggested that there might be a danger of provincialism, and that the atmosphere of the school was "slightly feverish."[2]

The relationship between Dewey and the regents of Columbia College was strained from the beginning. The primary cause of the trouble was the enrollment of women at what was then a men's school.[3] Therefore, it was not a surprise when it was announced in December, 1888, that Dewey had been appointed Director of the State Library of New York. From January to April, 1889, the School of Library Economy remained at Columbia, but it was then

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[1]W. Boyd Rayward, "Melvil Dewey and Education for Librarianship," Journal of Library History," III (October, 1968), 299.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XII (September-October, 1887), 426.

[3]For an extensive discussion of the problem, see Vann, Training for Librarianship Before 1923.

transferred to the State Library at Albany, where it was again under Dewey's direction. The following letter is illustrative of the general understanding librarians had about the situation at Columbia:

> Columbia I understand does not regret parting with it. Your surmise that there must have been an inside history to Dewey's move is undoubtedly correct. . . . It seems to be generally conceded that there was considerable dissatisfaction at Columbia and Dewey had taken 'time by the forelocks.'[1]

Catskills Conference, 1888

The Association planned to meet in St. Louis in 1888, primarily because the city's new library was expected to be completed then, but the conference was cancelled when it became clear that the building would not be ready.[2] It was too late to plan a regular conference so an unofficial meeting was held in September, 1888. With only twenty-seven members present, informal sessions were held at Kaaterskill Falls, New York. As was often the case, the librarians discussed library architecture and architects. Most of the comments were very uncomplimentary. President Charles Cutter commented that:

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[1]Letter, W. T. Peoples to George W. Cole, January 18, 1889, in ALA Archives. Peoples was Librarian of the New York Mercantile Library and Cole was at the Newberry Library.

[2]"St. Louis Conference," Library Journal, XIII (March-April, 1888), 69.

> I think from our experience of architects' plans that we can safely say the architect is the natural enemy of the librarian.[1]

The American Architect and Building News responded in September with a very critical editorial. It said that the conference of librarians had "amused itself, as usual, by falling foul of the architects." The editor wondered how architects could help build libraries since no two librarians ever agreed on building plans. What one librarian proposed, others laughed at, according to the editorial.[2] There was more than a germ of truth to this editorial, for there is a great deal of conflicting advice on architecture in the proceedings of ALA and in the articles of the Library Journal.

Other topics at the Catskills meeting included discussion of a proposed portrait index and public access to shelves in libraries. On the latter subject it was generally agreed that public access was not desirable. According to Cutter, any such plan would not be long-lived. He said, "I should think that in a public library in a city all the books would finally disappear.[3] The need for

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[1]"Conference of Librarians," Library Journal, XIII (September-October, 1888), 318.

[2]"Librarians and Library Architecture," reprinted in Library Journal, XIII (November, 1888), 339.

[3]"Conference of Librarians," Library Journal, XIII (September-October, 1888), 309.

a published portrait index was revealed by the fact that a large number of librarians had already begun to develop their own indexes. Such a project would obviously save librarians both time and money.

St. Louis Conference, 1889

At the St. Louis meeting the following year, ALA began its first attempt at subdivision. This was the establishment of an association of state librarians as a section of ALA. Provision was also made for a section composed of college and university librarians to be formed at the next conference in 1890. Another section devoted to the work of trustees was also formed at the 1890 conference.

As usual, one of the problems facing librarians was the distribution of government publications. A committee had been at work for some time trying to obtain desired changes in the government procedures, but had not yet been successful.[1] During the St. Louis conference, it was decided to try a different method. This was the appointment of a representative to go to Washington to lobby for changes. E. C. Hovey, a trustee of the Brookline (Massachusetts) Public Library was chosen for this

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[1] "The Proceedings," Library Journal, XIV (September-October, 1889), 267-68.

purpose.[1] Although he did go to Washington, and was successful in seeing some congressmen, the efforts were not immediately fruitful. It took an additional six years before Congress enacted the legislation requested by librarians.[2] This was the United States Printing Law of 1895, and it represented the first legislative victory for ALA. It was not a victory in the sense that it resulted from extensive lobbying on the part of the librarians, but it was the culmination of years of effort and many public statements on the problem. John G. Ames, Chief of the Documents Division of the Department of Interior, predicted that librarians would in general be satisfied with the new law:

> As I view the subject, nearly everything that was desired by the A.L.A. is embraced in the new law. . . . Taking everything into consideration, it seems to me that library interests have been largely sub-served by the passage of the new law. . . .[3]

Among other features, the 1895 law provided for the centralization of the distribution of documents, which was the chief concern of librarians because it expedited the acquisition of publications by libraries.

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[1]"Conference of Librarians," Library Journal, XV (December, 1890), 116.

[2]Green, op. cit., 207.

[3]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XX (December, 1895), 78-79.

This conference at St. Louis displayed the most evidence of internal dissension yet seen in the organization. The division was primarily between the older members of ALA and Melvil Dewey. William I. Fletcher of Amherst College presented a paper called, "Some Library Superstitions," in which he criticized the "worship of decimals." Since Dewey was the founder of the American Metric Association and had manuevered ALA into adopting the metric system in describing book sizes, Fletcher's target seemed to be rather obvious. Dewey wasted no time in responding to the attack:

> A man who dares to stand up and argue against decimals today must be curiously unfamiliar with their recent wonderful growth in use. . . . Such conservatives will soon stand with poor old Ruskin bewailing the folly of the railroads.[1]

Although the debate on the decimal system then ended, it was resumed later when William Poole complained that the system had been endorsed by individuals and not by ALA. He pointedly commented, "I have my hobbies, but I don't want you to endorse them."[2] Spelling reform, another of Dewey's hobbies, was also criticized. It had entered into official reports of the Association, and was greatly resented by some members who felt it discredited the ALA.

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XIV (May-June, 1889), 217.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XIV (May-June, 1889), 284.

Poole had another complaint:

> Then we have colon names. You say that my name should be W colon, F colon. I almost faint when I see it printed. My name is William, not an F and a colon. N, with a colon turned down, means Nancy. I call any man who uses it a Miss Nancy.[1]

Dewey made no comment during this discussion aimed at his hobbies. Perhaps in a playful mood, Dewey as Secretary reported the remarks were made by "Mr. W: F: Poole," as he had done in the past. However, the use of simplified spelling and the colon in personal names were almost completely dropped from Association materials after this conference.

White Mountains Conference, 1890

The 1890 conference held in the White Mountains was considered by many in attendance to be the best yet held. Excellent papers were presented in such areas as architecture, documents, and the role of the trustee. There had been a special effort made to get library trustees to attend.[2] Twenty-five of the 242 people attending were trustees; a special section for this group was formed during the conference. Led by one of the trustees, E. C. Hovey of Brookline, Massachusetts, ALA formed an Endowment Fund. Although several thousand dollars were

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Green, op. cit., 204.

raised, its immediate goal of $20,000 was clearly unrealistic for the Association at this point.[1]

The debate between architects and librarians was continued at this conference and was enlivened by an after-dinner speech by Poole. He criticized the plans of the new Boston Public Library, and the fact that the Librarian had not even been consulted. It was also an indirect indictment of trustees, since they were to blame for the lack of communication.[2] This speech brought Poole a letter from Charles Evans, who was to have troubles with trustees throughout his career:

> I congratulate you upon the neatness and dispatch with which you have killed a trustee. They are the natural enemies of librarians. . . . This event overshadows the rest of the work of the convention.[3]

In an interesting development, Dewey refused to serve again as Secretary. He had held the position since the organizational meeting in 1876, and had unsuccessfully tried to resign in 1885. An informal ballot for President was held, and Frederick Crunden received the largest number of votes. However, the Executive Board then elected

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[1]Green, op. cit., 206.

[2]"Mr. W. F. Poole's Remarks at the Publishers' and Booksellers' Dinner," Library Journal, XV (December, 1890), 164-65.

[3]Letter, Evans to Poole, October 14, 1890, Newberry Library.

Dewey. In an emotional speech at the final session of the conference, Dewey declined the presidency. The membership, however, refused to accept his decision. Instead, he was given a standing vote of approval, and Dewey then accepted the position.[1]

Just prior to this conference, Library Journal had taken a look at the number of organizations for librarians, and became very alarmed. It commented:

> The library profession can no longer be spoken of as an unorganized calling. It is, in fact, beginning to be difficult to remember how many Library Associations he belongs to. . . . The danger just now may be over-organization rather than the lack of it, and it is perhaps worthwhile to put in a word of caution.[2]

The caution had little effect, however. The New York Library Association had been formed the month before, with Dewey as President. Four more state organizations began in 1890, followed by another four in 1891. In addition, there were numerous city library clubs in existence. Whether desirable or not, this fragmentation and specialization has been characteristic of librarianship to the present time.

San Francisco Conference, 1891

Because of ill-health, Dewey did not serve his full term as President. He resigned in July when his doctor

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XV (August, 1890), 227.

[2]"Special Meeting of the Executive Committee," Library Journal, XVI (July, 1891), 200.

refused to let him make the long trip to San Francisco, the site of the 1891 conference. Samuel S. Green was selected as Dewey's replacement and presided over the annual conference.[1] The meetings were attended mostly by westerners, and only forty members journeyed from the east coast to California. Socially, the conference was very successful, but as a working conference it was not very productive. Library Journal called it the least effective of any of the annual meetings. The President said later that there was so much entertainment the members were not fit to do any work. He suggested that future conferences be held in quiet, "less seductive" places.[2]

During the succeeding two years the energy of many librarians was consumed in the preparation of an exhibit which was planned for the Columbian Exposition in 1893. It was hoped to have an international congress of librarians at this meeting and to have a major exhibit. The planned exhibit would show improvements in library methods. It was also intended as a practical exhibit which would be instructional in nature for beginning librarians. Space was donated by the United States Bureau of Education. There was also a promise by the Bureau of financial aid to underwrite the project. Chicago was chosen as the site of

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[1]"Special Meeting of the Executive Committee," Library Journal, XVI (July, 1891), 200.

[2]Green, op. cit., 237.

this Exposition, or World's Fair, and it was expected that the central location of that city would attract a record attendance.[1]

In the interval before the celebration, ALA was caused embarrassment by the malfeasance of its chief elected official. The Association had elected K. A. Linderfelt, President, at the San Francisco meeting in 1891. However, in May, 1892, the Executive Committee met to accept his resignation. The Committee selected William I. Fletcher as President and instructed the Secretary to record Fletcher as President for the entire term. The cause of this unusual action was the arrest of Linderfelt for embezzlement. Linderfelt was the Head Librarian of the Milwaukee Public Library and was highly esteemed in the library profession. On April 28 he had been arrested for stealing public funds, and the news greatly shocked the membership. Samuel Green, who had preceded Linderfelt as President, said, "I should have as soon suspected myself as Linderfelt."[2] J. N. Larned admitted a "painful sort of inquisitiveness" about the circumstances surrounding the case. In a letter to Poole

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[1]George W. Cole, "Notes on the Library Exhibit of the Columbian Exposition," Library Journal, XVI (August, 1891), 238.

[2]Letter, Green to Poole, May 21, 1892, Poole Papers, Newberry Library.

he wondered:

> Has he fallen under slavery to some hidden vicious habit--gambling or wantoning with women?[1]

Dewey was perhaps the most understanding and sympathetic of the leaders. He urged Poole, as "the Nestor of us all" to go to Milwaukee to comfort Linderfelt. It was also Dewey who urged the action which was finally taken by the Executive Committee. This was the quiet resignation of Linderfelt and the appointment of Fletcher for the entire term. Dewey further suggested that absolutely no mention of the incident be made at the next conference, but it is not likely that the subject was avoided.[2]

Lakewood Conference, 1892

The Association met at Lakewood, New Jersey, in May, 1892, under Fletcher's leadership. The main topic was constitutional reform, for the organization was still operating under the original constitution and it was becoming outmoded. There were two important features of the new constitution, finally adopted in 1893, which are worthy of note. Election of officers became the direct prerogative of the membership rather than that of the

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[1]Letter, Larned to Poole, May 3, 1892, Poole Papers, Newberry Library.

[2]Letter, Dewey to Poole, May 5, 1892, Poole Papers, Newberry Library.

Executive Committee. This change came in the form of an amendment to the revised constitution. It was narrowly defeated when introduced at Lakewood, but was passed at the 1893 conference.[1] The second important change was the addition of a Council as an advisory board with very broad powers. Under the terms of the amendment there could be no recommendation in regard to library policy of ALA without the approval of the Council. Further, no new section could be established unless the Council approved. The Association membership would elect ten members to the Council, which in turn would elect ten additional members. It was not until 1896 that the Council was completely organized. It did not prove to be an effective or active organ of the Association until years later.

The Lakewood conference was the largest meeting thus far in the Association's history, with 260 in attendance. It was not considered either a success or a productive conference in spite of the large gathering. People had complained at previous conferences that there were too many papers presented. No formal papers at all were read at Lakewood. An editorial in Library Journal commented that the new format was more like a library club than that of ALA. It sarcastically added that the program committee had "adopted the heroic measure of cutting off

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XVII (August, 1892), 56

the patient's head to save him from hydrocephalus."[1] The unstructured format led to a wide variety of discussion, including the Association's poor financial condition. A deficit in the budget resulted in dues being raised from $2.00 to $5.00 per year. Dewey protested in vain that the increase would eliminate many potential members. He suggested that the proper course of action would be to run the organization in a business-like manner instead of raising the dues.[2]

Chicago Conference, 1893

The scheduling of the World's Fair for Chicago in 1893, where the Association was to meet, lent increased importance to the choice of the President for that year. It was felt the nature of the Fair would attract librarians from throughout the world. Therefore, the President should be the person considered to be the greatest librarian in the country.[3] Following this line of reasoning, Dewey was chosen to preside over the conference, and Poole was extremely unhappy over the election. He thought Dewey was trying to establish himself as the "great bibliographer

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[1]"The Lakewood Conference," Library Journal, XVII (April, 1892), 119.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XVII (August, 1892), 119.

[3]"Officers for the Coming Year," Library Journal XVII (August, 1892), 80.

and librarian of the land."[1] Poole was also upset with what he thought were overzealous activities of the library school people in obtaining Dewey's election. Since the Executive Committee was still empowered with the final selection of officers, it is difficult to document Poole's belief. There was a large number of library school students and graduates at the conference, so it is possible that undue pressure was exerted. But Poole was not a member of the Executive Committee which elected the President. Thus any knowledge of such pressure would have had to come from another person. The extant correspondence does not indicate a similar unhappiness among other library leaders.

The 1893 conference was a success in the number of members present, but a failure as an international congress. In spite of the attraction of the World's Fair, where most of the sessions were held, only six of the participants were foreign librarians.[2] The chief feature for librarians was the "model library" of over 3,000 books, prepared by the New York State Library School. A catalog of this collection was published by the United States Bureau of Education as a buying guide for librarians, and

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[1]Letter, Poole to Winsor, May 22, 1892, Massachusetts Historical Society.

[2]The total attendance was 200 librarians.

the exhibit itself was later moved to the Bureau's Washington offices. President Dewey in his inaugural address pointed out that much had been accomplished during the brief existence of the Association. He said, however, it was really only the beginning because so much remained to be done.[1]

Among the innovations of this year was the introduction of two printed cataloging services. The Rudolph Indexer Company announced "the end of library cataloging problems" at the World's Fair conference. It proposed to supply catalog cards for all books in the ALA "model library" at the Fair, and for all future books published in the United States. The company promised cataloging for a total of 100,000 books. Almost simultaneously, the Cooperation Committee announced that the Library Bureau would begin a similar service. Subject cards would be included and the books would be annotated in the Library Bureau service.[2] It seemed as if the struggle for centralized cataloging, urged at the first meeting of ALA, had been won. Richard R. Bowker commented on the newly acquired cataloging services that "it never rains but it

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[1]Green, loc. cit., 282.

[2]"Central Card Cataloging," Library Journal, XVIII (December, 1893), 509.

pours."[1]

The year also saw the realization of the long-awaited ALA Index. This had first been proposed by William Frederick Poole at the 1882 conference. A review of the Index in Library Journal proclaimed that "its publication is glory enough for the publishing section of the A.L.A., even though it never do another thing . . ."[2] Although many librarians aided in the effort, it was largely the work of William I. Fletcher, not ALA. The Association was still lacking in the resources necessary to sponsor and execute a major publication project.

By this time the New York State Library School no longer enjoyed a monopoly on formal library education. In 1894 the Library School Committee reported on library classes at Pratt Institute in Brooklyn (1890), Drexel Institute in Philadelphia (1892), and Armour Institute in Chicago (1893). In addition, there were "training classes" at the Los Angeles Public Library (1891) and the Denver Public Library (1893). The training classes were intended primarily to train applicants for positions in the sponsoring libraries. In addition to these schools,

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[1]R. R. Bowker, "Printed Catalog Cards," Library Journal, XVIII (December, 1893), 497.

[2]"The A.L.A. Index," Library Journal, XVIII (February, 1893), 50.

Amherst College began offering summer courses in 1891.[1]

The appearance of the new library training programs was not taken lightly by the New York State Library School. Dewey regarded his school as the Library School, and as the child of ALA. When the Association's membership list indicated Pratt Institute as "Pratt Library School," Dewey protested to Frank P. Hill, ALA Secretary:

> It seems to me wrong to record the members of the Pratt Institute as 'Library School.' They do not use that name and the understanding has been that there is only one Library School. . . . Of course, we have no copyright on the name Library School, but I have heard yourself earnestly make the point that we should use the name New York as little as possible because this was the Library School.[2]

Dewey went on to suggest that the membership list should include a mark by the names of those who have gone to the Library School. This was "not for the purpose of glorifying the school," according to Dewey, but to show the extent to which graduates become members of the Association. Hill complied with the request not to call it the Pratt Institute Library School, but did not add the suggested mark to indicate Dewey's graduates.

The following year the Albany school reported the demand for its graduates was so great that most of the

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[1]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, IXX (October, 1894), 116-18.

[2]Letter, Dewey to Hill, February 16, 1894, in ALA Archives.

senior class was assigned to field work. In addition, the number of applicants who were college graduates exceeded the number of available seats in the school. The ALA Committee on the Library School predicted that it would not be long before admission would be limited to those who held college diplomas.[1] It was not until 1896 that the Committee demonstrated an interest in comparing the training programs of the various schools. The purpose of such a study was to ascertain how the programs were similar and "to what extent they diverge in their purposes and places." Unfortunately, Committee members found this to be such a difficult undertaking that they abandoned it. The Committee report satisfied itself with one general comparison:

> The conspicuous difference is one well-understood as a general fact, namely that the training for library work given at Albany is more strictly technical than in any of the other schools.[2]

The Committee also noted that typewriting was offered at three schools; several schools offered English composition and bookkeeping. Drexel alone had a course in Children's reading.[3]

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[1] "The Proceedings," Library Journal, XX (December, 1895), 61.

[2] "The Proceedings," Library Journal, XXI (December, 1896), 93.

[3] Ibid.

Cleveland Conference, 1896

The Association met in Cleveland in 1896 under the leadership of John Cotton Dana. His inaugural address was a radical departure from those previously given, for it had a distinctly pessimistic view. In his "Hear the Other Side," Dana complained about the mausoleum-like structures which so often housed libraries, the low calibre of much of the librarian's public, and the low repute of the library profession. Library Journal criticized Dana's approach because it did not set the usual tone of inspiration found in the presidential addresses. The Library Journal also said that the press was apt to print the speech, and, thus, present to the public an inaccurate picture of what librarians thought.[1] As was so often to happen in the future, Dana's gloomy statements were misinterpreted. His purpose was usually to try to goad the profession into action. Unfortunately, he was instead often considered a crank and a soothsayer of gloom. Some people thought he disagreed just to disagree, as a sort of principle.[2] But Dana had a deep commitment to the profession and he wanted it to become better. He was in a public library, but he

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XXI (September, 1896), 395.

[2]Chalmers Hadley, John Cotton Dana: a Sketch (Chicago: ALA, 1943), pp. 96-100.

was also extremely interested in school libraries. As part of this he encouraged a closer relationship with the National Education Association. It was through his efforts that a library section of that Association was formed in 1896.[1]

A novel aspect of this conference in 1896 was the discussion of literature of the previous five years. The purpose of this discussion was to help guide young and inexperienced librarians in book selection. Library Journal called it an "inquest" with Janet Cutler of the Library School acting as "coroner." For three hours the librarians debated the merits of current fiction, such as A Lady of Quality by Frances H. Burnett. Most of the books were relegated to "the darkest of library limbos," according to Library Journal.[2] While this discussion proved to be entertaining, its value was doubted by many members at the conference. To submit a novel to literary judgment by a show of hands hardly seemed dignified, intelligent, or fitting to some people. While it awakened interest, this method did not lead to well-considered judgment of books by librarians.[3]

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[1]"Proposed Library Section of the N.E.A.," Library Journal, XXI (April, 1896), 149.

[2]"Eighteenth Annual Conference, Cleveland, September 1-8, 1896," Library Journal, XXI (September, 1896), 416.

[3]Ibid., 418.

Another show of hands demonstrated a significant change in the attitude of librarians. This was the overwhelming approval of free access to shelves in public libraries. Only twelve of the delegates indicated they were opposed to public access and would not allow it in their libraries.[1] This was in marked contrast to the sentiment shown at previous conferences. Indeed, as one member pointed out, such confidence in the public would not have been shown three years previously.[2] But some librarians had been experimenting with free access, and the favorable results were soon well-known.

Following the formal conference, about eighty people went on a boat excursion to Cleveland. These post-conferences were a popular feature of most annual meetings, and were a welcome relief from the long hours of meetings. On this particular trip, it was reported that even those who "succumbed to the 'whitecaps' of Saginaw Bay were ready again by evening to go ashore at Alpena, Michigan, to 'do' the town." At the end of the trip, Mr. Dana's gloomy presidential address was remembered in a gift to the President. He was given a five pound box of bon-bons, as a "gloom dispeller."[3]

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[1]This was out of a total of 300 delegates.

[2]"Eighteenth Annual Conference," op. cit., 416.

[3]Ibid., 418.

Two months later ALA held its first special session. The purpose was to consider re-incorporation of the organization under an act of Congress. Chartered by Congress, ALA would then become truly national, with headquarters in Washington. It would also act as a board of visitors in overseeing the Library of Congress. This movement was apparently started by Dewey, and received the support of most of the officers.[1] But at the special session, held in New York, there was not enough support demonstrated for the plan.[2] It was reintroduced at the general conference in 1897, but again there was not enough support. The question was then postponed indefinitely, which meant a quiet death for the idea.

International Library Conference, 1897

The 1897 conference held in Philadelphia was overshadowed by the second International Library Conference in London. For forty-seven Americans, the boat trip proved to be a harrowing experience. On the eighth day at sea, the passengers noted a "suspicious quiet aboard which boded little good." The problem was a bent shaft, and a northward drift was soon noted. The helpless drift continued

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[1]"The Three Library Events of 1897," Library Journal, XXII (January, 1897), 3.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XXII (February, 1897), 90.

for about twelve hours before a steamer appeared and towed the boat to the nearest port.[1] Once at the conference, the eighty Americans present could not help noting how different the meetings were from those of ALA. Here the emphasis was on scholarly research. There were no committee reports, in contrast to the American meetings. Finally, there was a noticeable lack of discussion of technical subjects at this international conference.[2]

Philadelphia Conference, 1897

The Association met in Philadelphia in 1897 to commemorate its twenty-first year. In that sentimental spirit, the group once again elected its first President, Justin Winsor. However, on October 22, 1897, Winsor died. The matter of succession then became a problem for the first and only time in ALA's history. The constitution provided for three Vice-Presidents, without ranking them, and without providing for the event of a succession. In the past, the Vice-President receiving the highest number of votes had been considered to be the Vice-President. Thus, when Dr. Linderfelt had withdrawn from the presidency in 1892, the executive board had elected the first Vice-

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[1]"The Second International Library Conference, London, July 13-16, 1897," Library Journal, XXII (August, 1897), 399.

[2]"Differences in English and American Library Methods," Library Journal, XXII (August, 1897), 380.

President as his successor. Although constitutionally unclear, the succession seemed to be logical. With this background, on the death of Winsor, Rutherford P. Hayes had assumed the role of Acting-President. However, custom had also decreed that the President should be a librarian, and Hayes was not.[1] Because of these circumstances, Dewey sent a circular letter to members of the Executive Board stating that no one could succeed to the presidency. An expression of opinion was asked for by Dewey, and as a result two ballots were taken. The January, 1898, issue of Library Journal announced the selection of Herbert Putnam as President. In a letter which appeared in the same issue, Hayes outlined the logic of his action. He concluded with this statement on the powers of the President:

> In my opinion, the present constitution and custom since its adoption give to the president full powers, and leave clerical duties only to the secretary.[2]

This would seem to be based more in anger at Dewey than on any awareness of the structure of ALA. Little power was held by either officer, but the presidency was almost completely ceremonial. Between conferences, at least, the Secretary wielded more influence than the President. This

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[1]Hayes was the son of the 19th United States President. He was a banker and a library trustee.

[2]Rutherford Hayes, "The Presidency of the American Library Association," Library Journal, XXIII (January, 1898), 23.

was partly because of the fact that Dewey usually held the office, but also because the President was in office for just one year.

Whatever the constitutional validity of his appointment, Putnam served the remainder of the term. In his inaugural address, he asked the rhetorical question of whether he was de jure President or simply de facto. He suggested the question be settled by constitutional amendment.[1] The problem was partially solved in the revised constitution proposed in 1899, when the "ranking Vice-President was designated as the successor. However, it did not state which of three Vice-Presidents should be considered "ranking."

Chautauqua Conference, 1898

The 1898 conference at Chautauqua was judged to be the most successful meeting held to that time. There was a remarkable attendance of 500 out of 800 members. The chief topic of discussion was library education. Representatives of each school offering courses in library science were at the meetings to describe the distinguishing characteristics of its programs A central question asked whether the profession should have a few large schools with strong faculties or a large number of schools scattered throughout the country. It was felt by some speakers that

[1]Herbert Putnam, "Address of the President," Library Journal, XXIII (August, 1898), 1.

the Association was not yet in a position to judge or act in this matter. But it was generally agreed that the New York State Library School had the outstanding program which other school tried to emulate. After this full discussion of library education, it is interesting to note the following letter from the secretary to the president of ALA:

> Confidentially, there have been not infrequent expressions among members, in the past two years, to the effect that altogether too much is said and done in ALA about library schools. And that, to them, began to look as if the Association was worked more for that purpose than anything else.[1]

It was decided that the Chautauqua conference had more than adequately covered the topic and that library education would be omitted from conference programs for a time.

Appointment of the Librarian of Congress

The first quarter of 1899 saw the Association involved with the appointment of a Librarian of Congress.[2] After serving as librarian less than two years, John R. Young died on January 17. Sensing a political plum, a swarm of would-be librarians pursued the vacancy.[3] Among

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[1]Letter, Henry Carr to William C. Lane, January 14, 1899, in ALA Archives.

[2]For a more extensive study of this incident, see Thorvald Solberg, "A Chapter in the Unwritten History of the Library of Congress from January 17 to April 5, 1899," Library Quarterly, IX (July, 1939), 285-296.

[3]"Libraries as Political Offices," Library Journal, XXIV (February, 1899), 60.

this group was Samuel G. Barrows, a former Congressman who had obtained the endorsement of Theodore Roosevelt, Governor of New York. On January 18, Barrows wrote to William C. Lane, President of ALA, asking for his support. This, Lane refused, on the grounds that the position needed a professional librarian. Several days later Lane also wrote to Governor Roosevelt regarding the appointment. He stressed the need to have a trained qualified librarian at the head of the nation's greatest library.[1] In a similar memorandum to Roosevelt, the Council of ALA on January 30 recommended the appointment of a professional librarian. On February 3, Lane and R. R. Bowker had a personal talk with President McKinley at the White House. To their surprise, the President authorized Lane to offer the appointment to Herbert Putnam of the Boston Public Library.[2] The President further volunteered the information that he would have preferred to have nominated either Putnam or Melvil Dewey in 1897. When both refused, he had appointed John Young as the third best qualified man. After some hesitation over the salary and the problem of independence from Congress, Putnam informally agreed to accept the position. Meanwhile, however, Congressman Barrows had decided to press his own appointment. In

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[1] William C. Lane, "The Appointment of a Librarian of Congress," Library Journal, XXIV (March, 1899), 99.

[2] Ibid., 100.

embarrassment, Putnam withdrew his name.[1] On February 15, McKinley sent Barrow's name to the United States Senate. Since Barrows had promised to withdraw his name if a prominent librarian were proposed, leaders of the Association felt betrayed. An indignant librarian wrote to ALA Secretary Henry J. Carr:

> I suppose you have heard how Barrows buncoed the A.L.A. and enraged the A.L.A.--after having won the game,--and apparently ensured the appointment and acceptance of Putnam. It was a pity to actually succeed but then be cheated out of the victory.[2]

However, the Senate failed to act on the appointment before adjournment. This was partly because of Barrow's activities on his own behalf and partly because of a desire for a prominent librarian to head the Library of Congress. McKinley, out of courtesy, then offered Barrows a recess appointment. It was refused by Barrows in view of the attitude of the senate. After considerable persuasion on the part of a number of librarians, Putnam agreed to again become a candidate.[3] His decision was communicated to the President. On March 13, McKinley sent the nomination of Putnam to the Senate. This was more than a personal victory for Bowker and Lane; it was also an achievement for

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[1] Ibid., 101.

[2] Charles Soule to Carr, February 14, 1899, in ALA Archives.

[3] Lane, op. cit., 101.

ALA. Although it has been written that ALA "did not appear to sense the importance of immediate action," this does not seem to be an accurate assessment of the situation.[1] President Lane acted within a week of the incumbent's death. This would seem to be a desirable contrast to Congressman Barrows' activities the day after Young died. Furthermore, as President of the Association and acting in its behalf, Lane pressed the issue to its successful conclusion.

Atlanta Conference, 1899

The planning of the conference in 1899 presented a problem. It was scheduled for Atlanta because of the need to do "missionary" work in the South. Annual conferences were often thought to have, and probably did have, some influence on the development of libraries and library interests. The publicity, activities, and zeal of librarians undoubtedly did create a climate favorable to libraries. One of the suggested topics, however, was on "How to Make the Library Do Its Part in Negro Education." The proposed topic was to have been the first real program of its kind and was to be given by W. E. B. Du Bois, noted Negro educator. However, in a letter from the President

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[1] J. C. M. Hanson, "The Library of Congress and its New Catalogue: Some Unwritten History," in W. W. Bishop and Andrew Keogh (eds.), Essays Offered to Herbert Putnam (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1929), p. 188.

to the Secretary, Lane said:

> I am somewhat afraid to tackle [it] and sh'd not want to say anything about it at the present. . . . If we were meeting at the North I should not hesitate to ask him to give us a paper and we could be sure of something worth hearing.[1]

The final decision was to avoid risking angering the Association's Southern hosts. The topic was not discussed formally or informally at the Atlanta meeting.

Andrew Carnegie and ALA

Andrew Carnegie had been engaged in the distribution of his vast wealth, endowing fourteen libraries between 1881 and 1898. In 1899, he contributed $4,000,000 to thirty libraries in the United States. The thought occurred to several people that Carnegie might also include ALA in his generosity. In March, 1900, two officers corresponded over the matter. Secretary Carr indicated he had suggested the possibility to Dewey in February.[2] Charles Soule, member of the Council, responded:

> I have already pushed out tentacles in various directions for getting at Mr. Carnegie, indirectly and socially.[3]

R. R. Bowker wrote to Soule that he would suggest to Carnegie a gift to the ALA Endowment Fund. Carr also wrote about the matter to Miss Helen Haines in July. He explained

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[1]Lane to Carr, March 26, 1899, in ALA Archives.

[2]Henry J. Carr to Charles Soule, March 19, 1900, in ALA Archives.

[3]Charles Soule to Henry Carr, March 21, 1900, in ALA Archives.

there was a "move on Carnegie" from Wisconsin and Indiana. If ALA also asked for funds, it might make it easier to obtain money:

> . . . he would have a trinity among which to choose; or he might endow all three if he pleased (as he probably will not); but which if any he would prefer I could not guess. In fact I doubt if he would deem anything of the kind as tending to prove such an effective apple of discord . . . or as tending to the glory of Andrew Carnegie.[1]

Miss Haines replied that she agreed ALA could do much which state organizations were desiring to do. The problem was to have the fact recognized. She wondered what Carnegie's attitude toward ALA was, and whether there was any chance of receiving a grant. Apparently the careful and diplomatic approach to Carnegie was the proper method of handling the philanthropist. In addition to the Endowment Fund which was obtained two years later, there were many other ALA projects subsidized by Carnegie.

Montreal Conference, 1900

The Montreal conference in 1900 marked the first time the Association met outside of the United States for one of its own annual conferences. The choice of this beautiful Canadian city was appropriate at this time, for the United States itself was engaged in some diplomatic fence-mending. Having recently become a Carribean power

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[1]Carr to Haines, July 10, 1900, in ALA Archives.

as a result of the Spanish-American, the nation was very concerned about the need to establish strong friendships throughout the world, but especially in the western hemisphere. Dr. J. K. Hosmer built on this theme when he spoke at the conference on the brotherhood of the English speaking world. A contemporary source said of the conference:

> The 10 days of this Canadian conference will long stand out in the record of A.L.A. meetings, in their combination of beautiful surroundings, varied interests, large attendance, and the overflowing hospitality and kindliness of the welcome extended by friends and fellow workers in the Dominion.[1]

The Association had always been open to Canadian Librarians, and their membership was actively encouraged. Of a total of 452 librarians at the conference, thirty-nine were from Canadian libraries. Although the program did not emphasize Canadian subjects exclusively, a number of papers were delivered on Canadian literature and libraries. A real interest in Canadian subjects and Canadian history was demonstrated by the visiting American librarians.

Perhaps the most important feature of this conference was the emphasis on cooperative cataloging.[2] The

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[1]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XXV (June, 1900), 285.

[2]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XXV (June, 1900), 291.

assembled librarians recommended that a special committee be appointed to draw up a new set of cataloging rules to replace the brief items drawn up in 1883. A survey taken by the Cooperation Committee revealed that very few libraries used the authorized rules because they were too inadequate. There was also renewed interest and hope in printed catalog cards. The Committee recommended the establishment of a central bureau to catalog books and to supply the information to libraries. Fifty libraries agreed to subscribe to this cataloging service. There was a general feeling at the conference that ALA had taken a decisive step towards cooperation on a broad scale by these efforts.[1] It should be noted that there was already a limited amount of cooperative cataloging. The Library Bureau had started the service in October, 1892, under Nina Browne's direction. Financially it was not successful, and the service was transferred to the Publishing Section of ALA. The old problem of insufficient interest of librarians remained in this new set-up. The enthusiasm shown at Montreal soon disappeared. In January, 1901, the Publishing Section (then called the Publishing Board) announced that it was transferring the service to the Library of Congress.[2] After several delays the transfer

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "American Library Association," Library Journal, XXVI (January, 1901), 22.

was effected, and the Publishing Board gave up on its brief effort at cooperative cataloging.

The Montreal conference led to the establishment of a section for "Library Work with Children." The section was actually formed by the Executive Board after the conference was over. There was also a "round table" for catalogers at Montreal to see if there was enough interest to warrant the formation of a permanent section.[1] Finally, the 1900 meeting saw the formation of the Canadian Library Association, with affiliation similar to the state library associations in ALA.[2] Heretofore, Canadians had simply been included in the membership of the Association. As librarianship developed in Canada, however, some Canadians believed that it was not enough to be included in an all-American organization. It was hoped, of course, that Canadians would be members of both organizations.

Waukesha Conference, 1901

As the 1901 conference approached, a novel event occurred which surprised and annoyed many members. Public Libraries, a journal started by Dewey in 1896, announced that it was supporting Herbert Putnam for President. Prior

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[1]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XXV (November, 1900), 691.

[2]"Conference Notes," Library Journal, XXV (June, 1900), 292.

to this time there was almost no campaign activity in the organization, and any suggestion of such activity was regarded as unseemly. Helen Haines of Library Journal wrote to Henry Carr on June 8:

> I don't at all approve the announcement--it savors entirely too much of politics and influence and such dangerous currents. It is the principle of the thing I object to--not to the items of the ticket.[1]

The campaign was unsuccessfull. At the Waukesha, Wisconsin, conference, John S. Billings of the New York Public Library was elected President of ALA. It is interesting to note that one year earlier at the Montreal Conference, Billings had written to his wife:

> There are about four hundred librarians here and probably there were never so many people together so thoroughly satisfied with their own knowledge.[2]

There is no record of any similar judgment of the delegates to this conference. Although the meetings at Waukesha attracted a large number of members and the program was varied, it was not a productive conference. President Carr noted that in this twenty-fifth year of the Association there were now 1,000 members. Twenty of the original sixty-nine charter members of 1876 were still members. The organization was growing and increasing in influence. But

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[1]Letter, Helen Haines to Carr, June 8, 1901, ALA Archives.

[2]Letter dated June 9, 1900, ALA Archives.

looking forward, the President was not optimistic. He doubted if anything new could be said, or that any old ideas could be placed in a new light.[1] It was an unusual address, contrary to the typical glowing report members were accustomed to. Fortunately, Carr was not correct in his prediction.

As previously mentioned, the Library of Congress took over the printing of catalog cards in late 1901. At the time of the 1902 Conference, it was reported that 170 libraries were subscribing to the card service. Twenty libraries had been designated as depository libraries to receive the complete set of cards. Although these libraries formed only a small proportion of libraries in the country, the situation showed a considerable improvement over previous cooperative cataloging programs.[2] The publication of the revised ALA cataloging rules in 1902 furthered the cooperative movement. When these rules were accepted almost in toto by the Library of Congress, a great step forward was taken by the library profession.[3]

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[1]Henry Carr, "Being a Librarian," Library Journal, XXVI (August, 1901), 1.

[2]C. H. Hastings, "The Card Distribution Work of the Library of Congress," Library Journal, XXVII (July, 1902), 156.

[3]Alice B. Kroeger, "Cataloging and the New A.L.A. Rules," Library Journal, XXVII (December, 1902), 1011.

Library Journal noted this change in September when it called attention to the growing "progressive wing" of cataloging. The author saw less stress given to detail and minute rules by the progressives.[1] The progressives were also more willing to accept the cataloging done by the Library of Congress.

Magnolia Conference, 1902

The Magnolia conference of 1902 had the largest attendance yet recorded at an ALA conference. Over 1,000 of the 1,200 members attended the meetings at the Massachusetts resort. President Billings announced in his opening address that Andrew Carnegie had given the Association $100,000. The money was to be used for the preparation of bibliographies, indexes, reading lists, and other literary aids. The gift resulted from a letter Billings had written to Carnegie on March 14, 1902, suggesting a subsidy for the Publishing Board. The idea was that such lists and aids would promote circulation of the best books.[2] While this gift met with widespread comment and approval, another speech provoked the greatest amount of discussion. This was the proposal by Charles

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[1]"Revision of A.L.A. Cataloging Rules," Library Journal, XXVII (September, 1902), 813.

[2]John S. Billings, "Some Library Problems of To-Morrow," Library Journal, XXVII (July, 1902), 9.

Eliot, President of Harvard College, for the establishment of storage libraries. He had made a similar proposal one month earlier at the Massachusetts Library Club. Even with the advance notice of what was to be suggested, many members sat in stunned silence. The plan was simply to divide books into two categories: the living and the dead. Books still in use would receive the traditional care; unused books would be placed in storage libraries, but would still be available when needed. Eliot foresaw the immediate need for three storage libraries in the United States. Additional facilities would be built as needed.[1] The immediate reaction of many librarians was negative. However, as time went on, library administrators saw the wisdom of the suggestion. The result was the development of the storage library concept, with the New England Deposit Library in 1941 being the first.

On the final day of the Magnolia conference, a constitutional question was raised concerning the power of the Council. President Billings had ruled that no question could be discussed by the membership unless the Council had considered it previously.[2] This was a strict interpretation of the constitution, and one which was immediately

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[1]Charles W. Eliot, "The Division of a Library into Books in Use, and Books Not in Use, With Different Storage Methods for the Two Classes of Books," Library Journal, XXVII (July, 1902), 55.

[2]"The Proceedings," Library Journal, XXVII (July, 1902), 156.

repudiated by the membership.[1] However, the problem was not so easily solved. The ambiguous wording of the constitution prevented an understanding of the powers of the Council, the Executive Board, and the membership. It would take a comprehensive revision of the constitution before the issue could be resolved.

Niagra Conference, 1903

The problem which had engendered the constitutional question was that of concern over library discounts from publishers. The American Publishers' Association, acting for the publishers, had turned down requests for larger discounts. This matter continued to annoy librarians during 1903. In spite of the action of an ad hoc committee on the subject, the publishers bluntly refused to reconsider the matter. The result was that discussion at the 1903 conference at Niagra Falls was concerned primarily with this issue. It revealed how strongly librarians felt on the problem. Unfortunately, no degree of feeling on their part was sufficient to influence the publishers, and the problem remained.[2]

In the area of library education, the committee

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[1] "Conference of Librarians," Library Journal, XXVII (July, 1902), 156.

[2] "Committee Relations with the Book Trade," Library Journal, XXVII (February, 1903), 67.

concerned issued the results of the most extensive survey yet taken of the field.[1] It found that there were a large number of institutions involved in library training. These were arranged in five categories: (1) nine schools giving winter courses; (2) ten summer schools; (3) thirty-three libraries conducting apprenticeship programs; (4) twelve state colleges or normal schools; and (5) four individuals conducting correspondence courses. The committee sent questionnaires to these schools and compiled the responses. It found much to criticize. There was a general lack of faculty competence as indicated by educational background. The curriculum was generally found to be in need of revision. As many as forty courses were taught in some schools. The committee did find, however, that entrance requirements ranged from "good intelligence" to a college degree. In summing up its findings, the committee recommended the formation of higher standards and the need for greater uniformity in the programs. It also called for a standing committee on library training which would submit an annual report to the Association.[2] Although this 1902 report could be criticized because the committee membership was composed entirely of representatives from

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[1]Mary Plummer, "Report of the Committee on Library Training," Library Journal, XXVIII (July, 1903), 83-101.

[2]Ibid.

established schools, it was a milestone in library education. It was, as Library Journal indicated, the "last word" on the subject because it was so extensive. It also opened the way to the later formulation of standards by the Association.[1]

ALA Bulletin

A growing sense of importance and ambition can be seen in an action taken in 1904. Meeting in Atlantic City, the Publishing Board discussed the possibility of the Association publishing its own periodical as its official organ. The main thought at this time was that it should be a reviewing periodical which would also include articles of general interest. The periodical would be sent free to all members of the Association. The Publishing Board suggested the periodical would occupy an intermediate position between Public Libraries and Library Journal. Although several members stressed that it would not compete with Library Journal, it was clear from the discussion that the proposed journal would be very competitive. Furthermore, Library Journal was criticized as being "tinged with commercialism." This seems to have been left over from the struggle with the American Publishers' Association over library discounts. At that time many

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[1]"Library Training," Library Journal, XXVIII (August, 1903), 976.

librarians felt that Library Journal was too close to the publishers to really press the librarians' viewpoint. John Cotton Dana had been the most outspoken opponent of the publishers' plans and was a leader in planning the new periodical.[1] Dana had also been instrumental in the establishment of Public Libraries in 1896. Talk of the new periodical upset R. R. Bowker, publisher of Library Journal. He resented the feeling that his publication had not totally supported librarians against the publishers. He believed the history of Library Journal showed its support of the library movement even before ALA was established. Bowker indicated in a letter that he felt the leaders of the Association did not really appreciate all the sacrifices he had made in behalf of ALA.[2] The threatened competition did not develop until 1907, when the ALA Bulletin was started. Although the Bulletin was given the "Proceedings" of the Association to publish, it was not given the designation of "official organ." In a move which was designed to placate Bowker, Library Journal was continued in that capacity until Bowker resigned on May 13, 1907. However, the Executive Board then urged the

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[1]"The Field for a Library Periodical," Library Journal, IXXX (April, 1904), 168.

[2]Edward M. Fleming, R. R. Bowker: Militant Liberal (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1952), p. 355.

Council to reconsider its action.[1] The result was that Library Journal continued as the official organ until the ALA Bulletin was so designated in 1908. The change was not particularly advantageous to the membership, although the Bulletin was a free publication. It was a rather pitiful publication in its early years, hardly deserving of the official designation. Poorly written, unattractive, dull, and without adequate financial support, it offered nothing that Library Journal did not already provide. But its existence did hurt Library Journal in terms of loss of subscribers. This was unfortunate in view of Library Journal's long and dedicated relationship with ALA.

The 1907 conference was notable in the amount of electioneering which took place. It had been the tradition since direct election of officers began to have a nominating committee prepare a slate of candidates. This official slate was then elected by the membership. However, there was considerable opposition in 1907 to the list of candidates. A group of "radicals" headed by John Cotton Dana then proposed a second slate of candidates. The ensuing campaign was the most hectic of the Association's history. The scandalous activities disturbed many members and brought a reprimanding editorial in Library Journal.[2]

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, May 23, 1907.

[2]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XXXII (June, 1907), 266.

Arthur Bostwick, the rebels' presidential nominee, was the only successful candidate, and he found that he could do very little once he was in office as President. By his own account, he was a "rebel President with a conservative cabinet." The disruptive campaign necessitated a term of office concerned largely with healing political wounds. He could do little to satisfy the desires of his radical compatriots. Bostwick wrote that Dana was particularly insistent the new President should make greater use of the powers of his position. This Bostwick refused to do. The result was the gradual destruction of the friendship between the two men.[1]

Constitutional Revision, 1908-1909

Aside from the resignation of H. C. Hovey as the Executive Secretary in January, the year 1908 saw very little Association activity. The brief experiment with a paid executive officer ended because the organization was too small and had insufficient finances. Despite the heroic efforts of Hovey, the fund to pay his salary was soon expended and there seemed to be no possible way to continue his position. The experiment had simply been premature.[2]

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[1]Arthur E. Bostwick, A Life with Men and Books (New York: Wilson, 1939), p. 195.

[2]"Secretary's Report," ALA Bulletin, II (September, 1908), 122.

Important constitutional reform, however, resulted from the 1908 and 1909 conferences. The primary thrust of the revision was in the strengthening of the Executive Board.[1] The constitution of 1899 had failed to indicate clearly the division of power between the Executive Board and the Council. Although the Council was originally established as a deliberative body, it had never acted as such. The Executive Board, intended as a decision-making organ, had had some of its powers usurped by the Council. To complicate the problem, the Association had established the American Library Institute in 1905. The Institute was intended to become the deliberative body which the Council had never been. Limited to one hundred members, the Institute was conceived as an organization of leaders and former officers with ALA. However, the Institute was never successful even as a deliberating body. It had inactive leaders, infrequent meetings, and poor attendance. Its similarity to the Council confused members. As Library Journal pointed out, it was the fifth wheel in the Association.[2]

Under the Constitution adopted in 1909, there could

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[1]"Library Work of 1908," Library Journal, XXXIV (January, 1909), 1.

[2]"American Library Institute," Library Journal, XXXIII (December, 1908), 483.

be no confusion as to authority. It stated: "The business affairs of the Association [are] to be entrusted to the Executive Board" unless otherwise specified. The Board consisted of the President, two Vice-Presidents, and six other members elected by the membership. The Council was restricted to discussing library questions which involved policies of the Association. No such questions could be voted upon without previous consideration by the Council. Its membership was to include the following: (1) the Executive Board ex-officio; (2) all ex-Presidents of the Association; and (3) fifty additional members, one-half chosen by the Council and one-half chosen by the membership. The autocratic nature of the Council, as well as the self-perpetuating feature of membership, were both immediately apparent to some members. The power of debate was in the Council and the power of action was in the Executive Board.[1] Little was left to the membership except the power to offer votes of appreciation. One member called it "the most autocratic constitution I have ever heard of outside of Russia.[2] Nevertheless, the new constitution was approved in 1909.

The Bretton Woods conference in 1909 was the scene

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[1]"Revision of the A.L.A. Constitution," Library Journal, XXXIII (July, 1908), 255.

[2]"Bretton Woods Conference," ALA Bulletin, III (October, 1909), 224.

of the establishment of the Special Libraries Association. During the fourth session of the conference, John Cotton Dana took the floor to talk about the growing trend of special libraries and the need for an organization which would be more concerned about them. He asked interested librarians to meet after the session to discuss the matter further.[1] This was done, and the Special Libraries Association became a reality on July 2, 1909.[2] Few of the twenty-six librarians at the first meeting were actually in special libraries. Seventeen were public librarians and two were not directly connected with libraries.[3] The purpose of the new organization was to promote effective cooperation among librarians doing special library work. A problem at this time, and for some time to come, was in defining the term special library. When first announced, Dana limited the term to include municipal and legislative reference, commercial, technical, and public welfare libraries. In time this definition was broadened and a unifying theme for special libraries was discovered, but during the formative years there was a noticeable lack of

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[1] Ibid.

[2] The Special Libraries Association will hereafter be referred to as the SLA.

[3] Anthony T. Kruzas, Business and Industrial Libraries in the United States, 1820-1940, (New York: Special Libraries Association, 1965), 8.

cohesiveness in the SLA.[1] Dissatisfaction with ALA was perhaps the one common bond, as recalled by an early leader:

> The ties uniting special librarians at the outset were largely negative. They were dissatisfied with the American Library Association, but it must be admitted that they had little that was constructive to offer instead.[2]

It is interesting to note that in spite of the dissatisfaction with ALA, there was a strong desire to maintain a close relationship with the parent organization by becoming affiliated with ALA.

International Library Conference, 1910

The International Conference of 1910 at Brussels overshadowed the conference of ALA. There were four official delegates from the Association in a group of thirty-seven librarians from the United States. Two congresses were actually held in that city during August. The first was a meeting for those interested in bibliography and documentation, and was held August 25-27. The second Brussels conference, August 29-31, was for librarians and archivists.[3] Several of the activities of

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[1] Ibid.

[2] D. N. Handy, "John A. Lapp, Editor," Special Libraries, VIII (September, 1917), 109.

[3] "International Conference of 1910," Library Journal, XXXV (January, 1910), 35.

the congresses are still worthy of note today. Following the lead of American libraries, the delegates went on record as favoring the least possible barrier between the reader and the book in libraries. While this recommendation might seem insignificant in the United States, the idea was a radical one in many other countries. The battle for public access to shelves had been won in American libraries, but advance notice was still necessary in many foreign libraries in order to obtain a book. A second accomplishment was the acceptance on general principles of the Dewey Decimal System as the basis for an international classification system. It had been feared by some that there would be an attempt to make the acceptance of the Decimal System universal, without significant change.[1] The result was perhaps a compromise, since it was recognized that modification might be necessary, and that well-established libraries might want to continue to use their own system. In the area of international cataloging rules there was also general agreement. The Anglo-American rules were presented in French translation as a starting point for discussion. It was voted to adopt an international code, based largely on the Anglo-American code, but covering a minimum of points on which there could be

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[1]Ibid.

general agreement.[1]

Ottawa Conference, 1912

The ALA met in Canada for the second time when it chose Ottawa as its 1912 conference site. Although it was hoped this would be an international gathering, there were very few delegates from abroad. However, the large number of Canadian librarians present indicated once again the fact that ALA was not limited to the United States. The conference was considered to be a pleasant event, but it produced little of significance. The theme was the importance of the librarian's personality. The result of this theme was a collection of vague and trite papers. However, in one area an important step was taken. After a number of years of fruitless pleading, the Committee on Library Training was granted $200 for the inspection of library schools. Although a very small amount, nevertheless it was an important move towards control over library education.[2] It is interesting to note that the Committee was not able to spend its allocation, and the same amount was carried over to the next budget.

Several social aspects of the Ottawa conference are

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[1]"International Congresses," Library Journal, XXXV (October, 1910), 426.

[2]"Report of the Committee on Library Training," in Papers and Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the A.L.A. (Chicago: ALA, 1912), p. 113.

also worth noting. Library school dinners had been increasing in number as schools grew in importance and in the number of alumni. One conference goer noted the following:

> It is evident that the library schools are gathering traditions with age; and their alumni associations are growing in pardonable self-consciousness. A new feature was the exchange of rival 'yells' . . . One heard more or less at Ottawa of 'the girls of our class,' 'dear old Pratt,' 'the way we do it at Albany,' 'the tradition of Wisconsin' (five years old!) and the like.[1]

Not all of the conference was friendly and pleasant, however. At one of the garden parties held during the week, the music was furnished by a Canadian regiment which was apparently unaware that there still remained some animosity from the American Civil War. One of the songs played was "Marching Through Georgia," which had an unpleasant effect on those who had been "marched through." Tempers flared for a time but soon calmer dispositions prevailed. A second incident concerned the close relationship of the two nations. A delegate from the United States suggested in talking with a United Empire Loyalist that the countries should unite. Previously the President of the Association, Theresa Elemendorf, had also made several comments which seemed to suggest the same thing. This was too much for

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[1] "Social Side of the Conference," Papers and Proceedings, op. cit., 205.

the Loyalist, who proceeded to give the librarian an unfavorable lecture on the Revolutionary forefathers.[1]

The appropriation which the Committee on Library Training had pleaded for so long was not expended in 1912, as previously noted. The Executive Board then voted to continue the same sum in 1913. During that year the Professional Training Section met during the annual conference and heard the principal paper presented by Mary W. Plummer, Director of the Library School of the New York Public Library. Miss Plummer defended the schools from the criticism of being followers rather than being leaders. Although she stressed the need for experimentation, she said:

> It is not for the schools to practice or to teach library innovation--their business is to watch innovations and their results and report to their students.

Miss Plummer stated further that schools should not try to make every student a cataloger. Instead, efforts should be concentrated on those few people who would make good catalogers. Although the time was not yet ripe for change, she thought that within ten years cataloging would be offered as an elective in library schools.[2]

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[1]Bostwick, op. cit., 212.

[2]Papers and Proceedings of the Kaaterskill Conference, 1913 (Chicago: ALA, 1913), pp. 343-44..

Leipzig Exhibition

The increase in tension in Europe in 1914 had eliminated the possibility of there being any international librarians conference.[1] However, the first International Exposition of the Book Industry and Graphic Arts was held in Leipzig, Germany, in May, and ALA participated. In an exhibit that was completed just fifteen minutes before the official opening of the Exposition, library progress in the United States was graphically presented. There were separate sections devoted to the Library of Congress and to an exhibit of library work with children. Within minutes after the opening, the ALA exhibit was visited by the King of Saxony, Frederick Augustus, under whose patronage the exposition was held. The King stopped and asked questions of Frederick P. Hill, chairman of the exhibit committee. Hill was so nervous, as he later recounted, that he forgot to include "Your Majesty" in his responses, but it was obvious to him that the exhibit had been singled out for special recognition. Later that evening an official came to Hill to say that he hoped Hill appreciated the honor of having been presented to the King. He said the King intended to honor America in doing so, and wished Hill to

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[1] "Postponement of the Oxford Congress," Library Journal, XXXIX (October, 1914), 738.

tell his countrymen of the respect that had been paid.[1] The special treatment accorded Hill and the exhibit was apparently due to the growing hostility in Europe. Saxony, a part of Germany, was anxious to show the deference being paid to them. The German government apparently hoped that the United States either remain neutral or support Germany in the approaching war.

World War I

Two months after the opening of the Leipzig Exposition, World War I broke out. A large number of librarians were in Europe and particularly in Germany, since the Exposition was still in progress. As with Americans, the conflict was bewildering and frightening to librarians. At this point, war could not damage the respect and friendship for both German and French librarians. In September, it was still possible for Library Journal to state in an editorial:

> Our sympathy is with each and all of the contestants, our only hope an early return of peace.[2]

The effect of the war on libraries even before active American involvement was immediate and disastrous. Municipalities reduced their budgets and services. Public

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[1] F. P. Hill, "Opening of the A.L.A. Exhibit at Leipzig," Library Journal, XXXIX (August, 1914), 593.

[2] [Editorial], Library Journal, XXXIX (September, 1914), 657.

libraries everywhere were faced with less income. The Los Angeles Public Library closed one of its branches for lack of funds.[1] Other large libraries faced similar situations. Activity within ALA likewise almost came to a halt. After a large increase in membership in 1914 because of the record attendance at the Washington conference, membership grew very slowly during the following four years of war. Even the important fortieth anniversary year of the Association failed to produce much activity beyond a large conference attendance.

As part of the celebration of the Association's anniversary, it was planned to invite the charter members of the Association to attend. Among these was Melvil Dewey, who had retired from the library profession to his Lake Placid, New York, home. Even at this time Dewey was capable of arousing strong emotions among librarians. One of those was Mary Plummer, President of the Association. In a letter marked "confidential" she wrote about inviting Dewey:

> There is no demand on the part of librarians for M.D.'s presence at meetings, except in the case of Mr. Hill and one or two others, who have their personal reasons. Quite aside from the Scandal of some years ago, it seems strange to me that those who know the man's character as well as we do can wish him to figure again as a representative

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[1] "Reduction in Library Budgets," Library Journal, IXL (November, 1914), 801.

> of the profession and exercise an influence over the younger and newer members that in the long run would be unfortunate, since they too would finally come to know his essential falsity. I shall never, as long as I am a member of the profession, consent to meet him.[1]

Miss Plummer was spared the need to meet Dewey since he did not attend the 1916 Conference.[2] The membership sent a telegram to Dewey expressing its gratitude to "that one of its founders whose indominatable courage, energy and persistence assured the early and permanent success of the Association . . ."[3] Richard R. Bowker was presented a loving cup at the conference "commemorating forty years of service to American libraries."[4]

On April 6, 1917, the United States entered the war against Germany. The atmosphere which had allowed a deep sympathy for both sides had changed. There were several important factors which had helped to change American attitudes towards Germany, but two were of outstanding importance: the success of Allied propaganda, and the success of German submarine warfare. The Allied nations were very adroit at placing the Allied

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[1]Letter, Plummer to J. I. Wyer, August 3, 1915, in ALA Archives.

[2]President Plummer did not attend the conference because of illness, and died on September 21, 1916.

[3][Editorial], Library Journal, XLI (August, 1916), 569.

[4]Ibid.

interpretation of the war before the American people. Germany was shown as a ruthless aggressor whose aim was to conquer the world. Stories of alleged German atrocities were widely circulated, and helped to influence public opinion. The ruthless submarine campaign of the Germans seemed to prove the rumors about German barbarism. The sinking of the Lusitania and the resumption of unrestricted submarine warfare on January 31, 1917, increased fears of an Atlantic Ocean controlled by Germany. In addition, there was the increasing economic stake America had on the side of the Allied nations, as well as fear of German influence in Mexico.[1] Soon after America's entry in the war, the Executive Board of ALA met to determine the role of libraries and librarians in the war. A preliminary committee was appointed by the Board in April, 1917. Its duty was to determine from suggestions already made what would be most practical and helpful to the government. Among the members of the committee were Herbert Putnam, R. R. Bowker, and James I Wyer. In June, it suggested the following major activities for the profession: (1) the compilation of lists of books desirable as gifts for servicemen; (2) recruitment of more librarians; (3) a combined fund and book appeal for servicemen; (4) the

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[1]Louis B. Wright, et al., The Democratic Experience (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman, 1968), 332.

appointment of a War Service Committee. After listing these activities, the committee cautioned the Association about the need for coordination of all efforts. It recognized that it might be possible for ALA to accomplish everything independently. To do so would add immeasurably to the prestige and reputation of the organization.[1] However, it seemed clear that there were other groups with which ALA should endeavor to cooperate. Among these were the American Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association,[2] and the Commission on Training Camp Activities, an auxiliary of the War Department.

There had been some feeling on the part of members that a conference in 1917 would be inappropriate. However, there were decisions that needed to be made by the entire membership and therefore a national meeting was necessary. As previously decided, Louisville was the site. In spite of the emergency the conference was not unlike previous meetings. The war occupied only a small part of the official program, although it undoubtedly was the primary topic of conversation. The President of the Association, Walter L. Brown, did not once mention the war

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[1] "Our Libraries and the War," Library Journal, XLII (August, 1917), 607.

[2] The Young Men's Christian Association will hereafter be referred to as the YMCA.

or its effects in his inaugural address.[1] It seemed as if at this point librarians had not really grasped the situation. One speaker, in fact, felt the need to urge the membership not to continue "business as usual." This was the Dean of the University of Chicago Divinity School, Shailer Mathews, who urged the assembled librarians to take an active role in the struggle with Germany.[2] This role was accepted when ALA agreed to assume responsibility for furnishing library service to the American armed forces. This was a tremendous responsibility for ALA to take. It was to have a significant impact on the future of the expansion of the Association, since it was ALA's first international effort.

The program to furnish library service to the armed forces was under the direction of Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress. As it was finally worked out, the program became a remarkable undertaking. There had been thirty-two cantonments established in this country for the training of soldiers. Each one of these cantonments was to have a central library building. The buildings were of a uniform plan developed by Edward L. Tilton, an architect who had had considerable experience

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[1]Walter L. Brown, "The Changing Public," Library Journal, XLII (August, 1917), 586-91.

[2]Shailer Mathews, "Democracy and World Politics," ALA Bulletin, XI (July, 1917), 96.

in planning libraries. Each library was constructed of wood, measuring 120 by 40 feet, and cost $10,000.[1] In addition, the YMCA buildings in each cantonment were to be used as branch libraries. To stock the libraries and to provide them with librarians, it was agreed to have a fund-raising campaign, with the goal of $1,000,000 for 1,000,000 books for 1,000,000 men. The Library War Fund week was held September 24-29, 1917, for this purpose.[2] Although it took longer than one week, the Fund was successful in raising far more than the original goal: $1,570,386. This amount included a Carnegie Corporation grant of $320,000 for the construction of the buildings in each cantonment, a gift announced after the success of the Fund was assured. The cost of the campaign was slightly more than $44,000.[3]

Although it had been hoped that in many cases the libraries could be manned by volunteers, the problems of personnel soon became quite important. Many of the volunteers were on leave from local libraries, and the leaves were usually of a short duration. Salaries were

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[1]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLI (November, 1917), 875.

[2]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLII (October, 1917), 771.

[3]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLIII (March, 1918), 168.

then paid from the Fund, and amounted to $1,800 per year for each librarian. Prominent librarians were included in the list of people serving as camp librarians both here and abroad. Among these were Burton E. Stevenson, Carl B. Roden, Forrest P. Spaulding, and Carl H. Milam. The Library of Congress served as the headquarters for the service, providing space without charge.

In March, 1918, a national campaign was held to collect books for servicemen. This brought in 3,500,000 volumes which were sent to camps here and abroad. Not all of the books were usable, but it was reported that a high percentage of the material was acceptable. The ALA bought thousands of books with the funds collected earlier to supplement the gift books. Since there were in 1918 over 100,000 soldiers in the United States studying French, ALA bought thousands of manuals, texts, and dictionaries for beginning French students. Publishers performed an extremely valuable service by offering large discounts on books purchased by the Association. Discounts of fifty per cent were common, and some university presses offered their books free. Getting the books to the servicemen was a problem, both in this country and abroad. In order to get the books to European camps the government granted ALA space for fifty tons of books per month on the transports. In addition, General John J. Pershing, Commander of the American Expeditionary Force, allowed the Association to

have franking privileges on all mail parcels in France. By June, 1918, it was reported that ALA through its War Service Committee, could claim the following among its achievements: purchased 300,000 books, sent 1,349,000 gift books to camps and stations, and distributed 5,000,000 magazines. A total of thirty-six camp library buildings had been erected. Library service was available in 464 camps, stations, and vessels.[1] Truly this was already a remarkable achievement for an organization which had never even been able to raise $10,000 previous to 1917.

Mathew Dudgeon reported at the 1918 conference on what the servicemen were reading. Dudgeon was the Director of Camp Libraries, on leave from the Wisconsin Library Commission. He said that the serviceman's first interest was to win the war. Thus he was willing to read anything "that will help him lick the Kaiser."[2] This accounted for the tremendous interest in materials on war, weapons, and military strategy. There was also a great demand for books on technical subjects. Dudgeon said that the recreational aspect of reading was overestimated by the public. He believed that there was usually a balance in reading between fiction and nonfiction.[3]

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[1]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLIII (June, 1918), 417.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Mathew Dudgeon, "What Men Read in Camps," Library Journal, XLIII (August, 1918), 593.

As might be expected in wartime, some people saw the possibility of dangerous propaganda in some of the books. Camp libraries were ordered not to circulate Deductions from the World War by Freitag-Loringhoven. Soon after this order, it was also determined that A German Deserter's War Experiences was also unsuitable. All copies of this work were ordered to be returned to the War Service Committee's headquarters.[1] Additional lists of books were compiled later on for removal from camp libraries. At home the danger of propaganda literature was also discussed. Many librarians felt that pro-German literature should be withdrawn from public libraries. As a result, the Council voted on July 4, 1918, to appoint a committee to consider and act with power on the preparation of a list warning of books whose misuse should be guarded against.[2] However, this committee never made an official report and apparently did not produce the suggested list of banned books. Presumably the end of the war removed the need to carry out the Council's directives.

Pleased with the success of the first million dollar campaign, ALA decided to conduct a second national campaign. This was to be in November, 1918, and had as a

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[1]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLIII (June, 1918), 643.

[2]"Minutes of Council," Papers and Proceedings of 1918 Conference, (Chicago, ALA, 1918), p. 295.

goal $3,500,000. The funds would be used to supply every man in the armed forces with reading material he wanted.[1] Six other national organizations, such as the Jewish Welfare Board and the Salvation Army, also decided to conduct fund-raising campaigns at the same time. During the month of October there was also to be a Liberty Loan campaign. It soon became apparent to all organizations that it would be impossible to conduct the individual campaigns without a serious problem of duplication and conflict. At the suggestion of the Secretary of War, Newton D. Baker, the heads of the individual war service units met and agreed, albeit somewhat reluctantly, to combine their money-raising efforts. The result was a campaign to raise $133,500,000 through public subscription. Although rather unhappy with having its campaign combined with six larger drives, ALA was determined it would be successful. With the smallest organization, Association leaders were anxious to prove that it had the most capable membership.[2] That determination helped to explain the selfish attitude the organization took towards the Special Libraries Association in the war effort. The SLA had also

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[1]Frank Stockbridge, "The Library War Service Fund Campaign," Library Journal, XLIII (September, 1918), 643.

[2]Ibid., 644.

formed a War Service Committee to direct its activities.[1] The Committee attempted to coordinate efforts with those of ALA. These attempts were rebuffed by ALA committee members who believed that camp library needs for technical materials could best be met by ordinary public library methods. In their view, there simply was no need for SLA to become involved in what was felt to be an essentially public library service. As a result of this attitude, the SLA War Service Committee was discontinued at the organization's 1918 annual conference. Although admiration for the ALA's war work was expressed at that time, there was an underlying feeling of unhappiness. Dr. C. C. Williamson, President of SLA, spoke at the conference on this problem and on the desirability of holding the SLA's annual meeting at a time and place other than that of the ALA conference.[2]

Although at the time of the first campaign most librarians believed that the fund-raising was a radical new step for the Association, as they looked back they realized that they had actually been quite conservative. The need for books and camp libraries had not yet been definitely established. It was largely a matter of conjecture as to

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[1]"Special Libraries Association Plans for War Service," Library Journal, XLII (October, 1917), 773.

[2]C. C. Williamson, "Presidential Address," Special Libraries, IX (September, 1919), 101.

whether the armed forces would really use the facilities. Now that it had been proven that the men needed such facilities, it became easier to think in larger terms. The goal of $3,500,000 represented an enlarged and revised concept of library service to the army and navy. The money was to be used as follows: to purchase books for old and new camps; to replace books worn out by use; to furnish many trained librarians for service in connection with the selection, distribution and use of books; to provide library buildings in France and in the United States; and to intensify the service then offered to the armed forces. The joint campaign, which had seemed at first to be a disadvantage, proved to be helpful. The goal of $3,500,000 for ALA was easily raised in the campaign that produced $205,000,000.[1] The armistice of November 11, 1918, however, reduced the urgency of the situation in the minds of many people. Money so freely promised during the November campaign became increasingly more difficult to collect as people grew more concerned with their own needs. It was reported that many people and a few cities announced they would not pay their subscriptions to the United War Work Fund. The result was a restriction on spending of ALA funds well before there was a significant reduction of

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[1]"American Library Association War Service Committee," Library Journal, XLIV (January, 1919), 21.

demands for its service to the military.[1] As soon as the prospect of demobilization and discharge became apparent to the men their thoughts immediately turned from military to civilian life. With little to do, the men became restless. It was soon apparent that it would not be possible for ALA to cease immediately the war service activities. There were still thousands of men stationed in Europe to be cared for. The ALA Library in Paris had just been opened on August 29, 1918, and continued to service large numbers of men. Although the War Department announced that the troops would be brought home at once, it was soon apparent that the logistical problem of transporting them would prevent this from taking place. Five months after the armistice was signed the majority of the men were still in Europe. For the bulk of the men, disappointed over the turn of events, tedious waiting became the primary occupation. The single negative desire was "to be out of it." The situation was well described in a letter from Florence A. Huxley of the American Red Cross at Le Mans:

> We could use a million books here in France right now if we could only get them, and I'm sure if the people at home only realized the seriousness of the situation here as we realize it, we should have no trouble at all in getting the books. We don't want our boys to become lawless and destroy

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLIV (April, 1919), 202.

> the good reputation they have made for themselves, but in a land where they do not speak the language and consequently do not understand the people, they are developing a recklessness and a lack of consideration of the rights of others, that frightens one . . . [1]

Morale became such a problem that the military authorities were thoroughly alarmed. Part of the solution agreed to was the establishment of direct library service to every important post of the Allied Expeditionary Forces. The effect was an increase in ALA efforts although the war was officially over. Hospitals were overflowing with the war's casualties. At the request of the United States Surgeon General, ALA began to provide library service to these and to the new hospitals which were hurriedly built.[2] With the vast movements of men from France to America via the transports, a new phase of library service began. On the way over to France reading material had been supplied the men by placing boxes of books on the decks of the transports. The boxes were opened and the books circulated to the men during the voyage. At the end of the voyage the books were returned to the boxes and were then delivered to ALA in France. However, when the men began to return to America, books were too scarce in France to supply the

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[1]"Library War Service," Library Journal, XLIV (April, 1919), 240.

[2]Charles H. Compton, "What Then?," ALA Bulletin, XIII (March, 1919), 7.

transports. The result was the establishment of "permanent" library stations on each transport, supplied by the overseas dispatch offices. Books and magazines were supplied at first at a ratio of four to one. On most transports, however, this was inadequate because of the heavy reading demands of the men. Where possible the ratio was one book and one magazine per man. At the end of the voyage there were never any magazines and only a few "classics" left in the transport library.[1]

An interesting aspect of the post-war activities of ALA was the appointment of an "ALA Representative in Siberia" on December 3, 1918. American troops were stationed in Russia and it was felt that effects of the bleak surroundings would be relieved somewhat by the addition of a small library. As a result, Harry Clemons was chosen to go to Vladivostok, Siberia, to develop library services for the American forces. Working with a small collection of about 6,000 volumes for eighteen units of soldiers, Clemons was amazed by the popularity of the old, worn-out books. Shelves freshly filled with books were immediately emptied. Most of the reading done was of fiction, but Clemons did report that twenty-six per cent was of non-fiction. Although Clemons did not attempt to assess the

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[1]"Progress Overseas," Library Journal, XLIV (March, 1919), 166.

results of the program after his five month tour of duty, others were not so hesitant. Several company commanders reported that whenever new books arrived in the library there was a reduction in the number of requests for leave of absence. They also noted letters back home were distinctly more cheerful for a while.[1] When Clemons left the post on May 18, his place was taken by an army chaplain and the library was thereafter maintained by the War Department.

Instead of declining, then, with the end of the war the service work of ALA increased. The peak of activity was not reached until April, 1919. During the first part of May there was a leveling off of activities and expenditures, but it was not until the end of May that there was a noticeable decrease in ALA participation. It was generally accepted that the government should now take over the job for the Association, but everyone concerned felt strongly the need for an orderly transition. This meant that in some situations there was a mixed administration. For example, at Pensacola, Florida, the Navy bought the library's collection for $1.00 because it could not accept it as a gift. But the Navy had no funds to employ the civilian librarian who was left in charge. Therefore, ALA paid the salary of the librarian, but the

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[1]Harry Clemons, "Statement of ALA Representatives in Siberia," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 222.

library was owned and operated by the Navy.[1]

Summary

Although the war service efforts were not completely terminated by the summer of 1919, librarians could look back on their work with a great sense of accomplishment. During the period of time an almost phenominal amount of work had been accomplished through the organizational efforts of ALA. Almost $6,000,000 had been pledged as a result of strenuous campaigns. Over 4,000,000 books had been donated for the use of servicemen, and over 700 librarians served in the war service work. The effect of ALA on the war effort was indeed significant. But the war service work also had a profound effect on the Association. For over forty years the organization had been a small professional organization with little activity other than an annual meeting. By the act of accepting a role in the war work, its character changed completely. Almost overnight the organization became a public service organization. While it is true that this service was of an emergency nature, at least part of the change was to become permanent. It is difficult to assess any change in public attitude which might have taken place towards the

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[1]Carl H. Milam, "Statement of the Acting General Director, ALA War Service," Papers and Proceedings of the Ashbury Park Conference (Chicago, ALA, 1919), p. 264.

library profession as the result of the war. However, for the first time, hundreds of thousands of young men had contact with libraries, and for most this was probably a pleasant contact. It would seem logical to assume that this would have a positive effect on attitudes towards libraries and librarians. Whether or not this would be translated into greater public support, as so many librarians believed might happen, would remain to be seen. Undoubtedly the greatest effect the work had was on the members' faith in the Association as an active organization. Although the membership had always seemed to have a missionary spirit about their organization, here was the first proof that ALA was capable of being welfare-oriented, rather than being strictly a professional organization.[1]

The two financial campaigns had been heady experiences for ALA. There was a sizeable element in the organization which wanted to insure that ALA continued its more active role in American life. The time seemed appropriate for this expansionist activity, since the public had so willingly contributed towards the war services program. Furthermore, millions of men who had benefited from the library service were at home, and could presumably be counted on for support. Thus, in 1919 the

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[1]Herbert Putnam, "Statement of the General Director, ALA War Service," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 261.

Association embarked on what became known as the Enlarged Program, which will be described in the following chapter.

Problems were raised during this period which would continue to face ALA throughout its history. As it grew in size, the Association experimented with its own internal structure, unsure of where to delegate authority and power. The single term of the President eliminated that officer from achieving a significant measure of effective leadership. The rapid development of library schools, essentially unregulated by the profession, became a serious problem. The establishment of the Special Libraries Association marked the beginning of competition for loyalty within librarianship. No longer could the structure of the profession be thought of as a pyramid, with ALA at the top. The success in the selection of the Librarian of Congress in 1899 was a major accomplishment, yet it set a standard which would be difficult to match in later years. Finally, the atypical demands and opportunities brought to ALA by World War I created an atmosphere of success which was misleading. This atmosphere led to a program of action which the nation and the profession were not ready to accept.

CHAPTER V

DEFEAT OF THE ENLARGED PROGRAM

Background

The movement for what was called an Enlarged Program of activities officially began on January 11, 1919. On that date, at a meeting of the Executive Board, President William Warner Bishop appointed a "Committee of Five" to survey the whole field of library service. Bishop had in mind a survey similar to the famous Reports on Secondary Education and Primary Education made by the Committee of Eleven and Committee of Fifteen of the National Education Association. The survey by this Committee of Five would point out to what extent American libraries were meeting or failing to meet their opportunities. It would also establish a plan of action to meet the needs seen in the survey. Part of the result would be a group of standards for libraries. These standards would deal with equipment, buildings, services, salaries, and other areas where guidelines needed to be established.[1] The Committee members were as follows: Arthur E. Bostwick of the St.

[1]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, January 11, 1919.

Louis Public Library; Linda G. Eastman of the Cleveland Public Library; Carl H. Milam of the Library War Service; Azariah S. Root of the Oberlin College Library; and Charles C. Williamson of the New York Public Library. The Committee was instructed to make a preliminary report at the Ashbury Park conference in June, 1919.[1]

At the Ashbury Park conference, the first general meeting of ALA after the war, there was reminiscing as well as looking into the future. Many of the problems discussed were the same ones as before the war. But as President Bishop said in his address, "We are none of us quite the same as we were in 1916 or 1917." Even the trivial or routine work could no longer be done in the same way because of the war experience. "We have dreamed dreams and seen visions and we are turning to the future," he wrote.[2] Librarians could not go back to 1917 and continue where they had left off. The momentum must be continued. Standing at the crossroads, the Association had to decide to press on "to greater and nobler service," according to Bishop.[3] Another speaker pointed out that although the

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[1]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XLIV (April, 1919), 258.

[2]William Warner Bishop, "The American Library Association at the Crossroads," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 100.

[3]Ibid.

days of easy public contributions were over, it was still imperative for librarians to build a constructive program for future action. No longer could activities of the membership be limited to the "best reading for the largest number at the least cost," as the motto stated. Instead, it should be the greatest possible public service through books and materials, whatever the cost."[1]

Initial Planning of Enlarged Program

The Committee of Five which President Bishop had appointed in January issued its preliminary report at the Ashbury Park conference. The report described the plan of action and the organizational structure, working on the assumption that the survey itself would have to be done by a volunteer staff. The Committee estimated expenses for travel, clerical assistance, and publication of the final report would be about $80,000.[2] Four principal areas of library work were ascertained and then assigned to a committee member for overall investigation. Azariah R. Root was to cover the acquisition and processing of books. Linda Eastman was to be concerned with the use and distribution of books. Carl H. Milam was assigned the area

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[1]Chalmers Hadley, "The Library War Service and Some Things It Has Taught Us," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 109.

[2]"Report of the Committee of Five on Library Service," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 326.

of library public relations. Charles C. Williamson was asked to cover library staff and its training. The primary method of investigation was determined to be the questionnaire, with other methods supplementing the information thereby gained.[1]

Williamson presented a paper at this conference on library training that is worthy of note, although he made it clear that he was not speaking for the committee. The paper discussed the state of library training in an unusually frank manner. It was also critical of the library profession and ALA.

> We cherish the delusion that library work is a profession. At best it is only semi-professional. What real profession is recruited largely from untrained persons?[2]

It was clearly the duty of ALA to provide the leadership necessary for librarians. But Williamson said that ALA must become more than a debating society or social club in order to do this. He thought there were two main functions which ALA should perform in library training. It should organize all training activities under a Training Board, with a permanent staff headed by an expert in library education. Williamson said there was a multiplicity of training agencies but no system and no recognized

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Charles C. Williamson, "Some Present Day Aspects of Library Training," ALA Bulletin, XIII (July, 1919), 120.

standards. The Association of American Library Schools had made some progress in raising standards. However, Williamson said it was "ineffectual to produce any real cooperation."[1] What was needed was a Training Board, similar in function to the Publishing Board. This Board would establish a method of grading library positions, establish minimum qualifications for such positions, issue certificates to graduates, and accredit all library training agencies. Details would be worked out by the Board, with the approval of the Association.

In the Council meeting which considered the Enlarged Program there was general agreement over the need to press forward. The one exception to the accord was John Cotton Dana. He hesitated, Dana said, to speak his mind because he was so often misunderstood. However, after that introduction, he showed little hesitation in speaking out. The library was likened to the appendix of the human body: an organ that had largely outlived its usefullness. Changes were necessary if it were to be retained by society. Instead of spending $80,000 for a survey of library conditions, Dana suggested there should be a study of the library phenomenon in a print-using society. He also suggested that a study of Association headquarters should be made. The organization had had an endowment of

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[1] Ibid., 121.

$100,000 for seventeen years by which publishing had been supported. Over $5,000 each year was needed to subsidize this program. Yet, according to Dana, it would be extremely difficult to prove "we had extended knowledge of ourselves to an extent worth mentioning." In his view, the main problem was the quality of librarians:

> The thing that stands in the way of efficient work by the American Library Association is primarily the lack of brains on the part of its members: there is no use blinking that fact.[1]

Part of the problem was also the antiquated constitution, which was burdened with tradition. Dana proposed that a one page document replace the constitution, and that authority to conduct the business of the Association be placed in the hands of three to five people.[2] Whatever others may have thought about Dana's remarks, there was no public response during the Council meeting.

On June 27, 1919, the Executive Board approved a resolution accepting the responsibility to "encourage and promote the development of library service" for all Americans."[3] A Committee on an Enlarged Program for American Library Service was appointed. It was to study

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[1]"Council," Papers and Proceedings of the Ashbury Conference," ALA, Chicago, 1919), pp. 368-370.

[2]Ibid.

[3]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, June 27, 1919.

various suggestions and prepare an expanded program for the Association. Members were Caroline F. Webster, Walter L. Brown, George B. Utley, John Cotton Dana, Carl H. Milam, and Frank P. Hill. On September 9, the Executive Board named Milam as Director of the Expanded Program. During that meeting the Board also approved the calling of two special meetings of the Association. These meetings were for the purpose of considering constitutional revision and the Enlarged Program.[1]

Constitutional reform was considered to be an integral part of the Enlarged Program. Indeed, much of the revision was done by the Committee on the Enlarged Program. In November, 1919, the proposed constitution was made public. Its most salient feature was its "democratic" emphasis, a reaction to the Council-centered constitution then in effect.[2] The Council was stripped of most of its powers, to the benefit of the Executive Board. The Board was to become the governing agency of ALA. All questions of policy were to be referred to it first. All committees and board would be appointed by the Executive Board. All that remained for the Council to do was to discuss library questions and adopt resolutions regarding library practice

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, September 9, 1919.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XLIV (November, 1919), 687.

or policy. The effect, then, of this constitution was to substitute the Executive Board for the Council as the most powerful agency within ALA.[1] This centralization of authority was viewed with suspicion and hostility by a large segment of the membership.[2]

Although not seeming to be connected with the Enlarged Program, there was a related attempt to move the Headquarters which aroused resentment. To many people, especially in the midwest, moving the Headquarters from Chicago to New York appeared to be an essential feature of the proposed Enlarged Program. It seemed to these people that the leadership was trying "to put something over on its members," as President Chalmers Hadley stated.[3] He was undoubtedly correct in saying that the two proposals were unrelated and that no official plan was underway to move from Chicago. The accusation, however, was not entirely false. Certainly there had been proposals to move elsewhere. Hadley admitted the Committee on an Enlarged Program had discussed the issue in September. It was, in fact, at his urging that the issue was not included in the

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[1]"A.L.A. Constitution," ALA Bulletin, XV (May, 1921), 57.

[2]Chalmers Hadley, "The Proposed Enlarged Program of the A.L.A.," Library Journal, XLIV (December, 1919), 754.

[3]Ibid., 753.

Committee's report.[1] Library Journal in November had carried an editorial denying that any discussion of a move had taken place.[2] This contradiction undoubtedly added to the belief that a move was contemplated and was actually a part of the Enlarged Program, in spite of what the leaders said. Additional evidence seemed to be added in December, 1919. At that time the Committee announced that it had established "financial headquarters" for the Enlarged Program in New York. The wording seemed to be unfortunate and inaccurate. This additional staff consisted of a group of nine librarians who temporarily assisted Carl H. Milam in developing publicity for magazines. It was hoped that through these efforts enough interest would be generated in the country to insure the success of the campaign.[3]

Details of Program

As for the Enlarged Program itself, the Committee had developed an extensive project for involvement on the part of the Association. Part of this program included the continuation of work under the limited War Work Fund. It was also proposed that books and periodicals should be supplied by ALA to the 2,788 men located at the 273 Coast

[1] Ibid.

[2] [Editorial], Library Journal, XLIV (November, 1919), 687.

[3] "Publicity for the A.L.A. Enlarged Program," Library Journal, XLIV (December, 1919), 788.

Guard stations along the coasts of the country. The appropriation would be $15,000 for this service. An equal amount was suggested for supplying books to lighthouses and lightships until such time as the federal government was prepared to take over the responsibility.[1] A similar plan was proposed for the hospitals under the control of the Public Health Service and the War Risk Bureau. These hospitals were established in 1918 for the purpose of caring for veterans and certain other government employees. Although Congress had appropriated large sums of money for the hospitals, no provisions had been made for libraries. The United States Surgeon General assured representatives of the Enlarged Committee that if first class library service were demonstrated through this program, provision would be made to carry on the work. The result was an appropriation of $100,000 in the Enlarged Program budget.[2] The American Merchant Marine, consisting of 2,000 vessels, was to be given library service through an appropriation of $150,000. This would average out to less than 100 books per ship, but many of the ships had been supplied through the War Service Committee. In this case, it was more a question of providing adequate library service than a

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[1]"Preliminary Report of Committee on Enlarged Program for American Library Service," Library Journal, XLIV (October, 1919), 647.

[2]Ibid., 648.

simple problem of obtaining 100 books for each ship.[1]

In addition to continuing and expanding some of the services begun during the war, the Enlarged Program Committee sought the expansion of activities through the various state library commissions or state library associations. This was to be encouraged through an appropriation of $85,000 from ALA. The fund was to be used in aiding underdeveloped areas of the country where adequate library service was lacking or was not of sufficient quality. A hypothetical example was given of a large southern city without a public library. The aid of ALA would be primarily in the way of public education to influence favorable public action toward libraries throughout the nation.[2] A definite proposal was also made for the national certification of librarians. A National Library Examining Board was suggested. The Board would make up an examination and would establish three levels of librarians. Certificates would be granted to graduates of approved library schools without the necessity of taking the examination. A tentative budget of $10,000 was included for the preliminary work of this Board. The controversial library survey was also included in the suggested expansion of services. The survey would determine the general status of

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[1] Ibid., 649.

[2] Ibid., 651.

librarians, what each group or kind of group was doing, and what future developments could be expected for libraries. The influence of Dana's earlier criticism seemed to be indicated in the added suggestion that the survey also review the role of the library in the social and educational life of the country.[1]

There was a strong emphasis in the Enlarged Program on information and education. A budget of $75,000 was allocated for the promulgation of the "library idea," as it was called. This meant publicity, magazine articles, library exhibits, leaflets, and a general program of promoting better library income and higher library salaries.[2] Again, at least partly in response to Dana's criticism that there had been no significant result from ALA's Publishing Board, one change in that area was proposed. The report suggested that a general review of publishing be made, including the work of The Booklist. This review was to be done by someone with extensive publishing experience. Provision was also made for the future publication of bibliographic aids which might not be commercially feasible because of small demand. In particular, it was proposed that an International Bibliography of Humanistic Literature be established. This publication would attempt to cover the whole field of the

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[1] Ibid., 652. [2] Ibid.

humanities, and would be in the English language.[1]

Another large expenditure in the proposed budget was $25,000 to promote closer cooperation with affiliated and non-affiliated organizations. Although no money was suggested for improving the relations with the National Education Association (NEA), this idea was also emphasized. Improvement of relations, it was hoped, would lead to a greater appreciation by teachers for the value of library service as a necessary adjunct to classroom instruction. It might also lead to the endorsement of the Enlarged Program by this important organization. Such an endorsement could have considerable impact on the public appeal for funds.[2] As for the other organizations, such as the League of Library Commissions and the Special Libraries Association, the committee called for closer cooperation with ALA. However, there were no specific suggestions as to how the appropriated money would be expended.[3] Finally, the largest appropriation was $105,000 for the purpose of underwriting the financial campaign. This campaign, it was hoped, would raise $2,000,000. In addition, the Committee believed that the War Service Committee would release some of its unexpended funds for this purpose.[4]

The first special membership meeting called by the

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[1] Ibid., 653.

[2] Ibid., 654.

[3] Ibid., 656.

[4] Ibid, 659.

Executive Board to consider the Enlarged Program took place January 1-3, 1920. A frigid Chicago served as the site for this gathering of about 200 members. Discussion centered largely on the Program and constitutional revision. There was also a strong undercurrent of feeling about the threat of a move to New York. Of this latter problem, Library Journal commented that it was:

> A proposal of which New York had heard almost nothing and which existed chiefly in the fearsome imagining of its critics.[1]

In view of the statements often expressed on the subject, this editorial comment was not only inaccurate but ridiculous as well.

The first day of the special session was devoted to a discussion of constitutional revision. In general, the proposed changes were approved by the membership. This basically meant the shift of power from the Council to the Executive Board. While there was a general feeling that the Council still had an important function in the organizational structure, the effect of the revision was to limit the Council to the status of a discussion group.[2] A major unresolved problem centered around the role of the affiliated organizations. A federation seemed undesirable

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[1]"At Chicago," Library Journal, XLV (January 15, 1920), 55.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XLIV (November, 1919), 687.

to many people, yet it was not clear how the various groups could be integrated into a comprehensive organization. Unable to solve this problem satisfactorily, a committee was appointed to effect a compromise.

The Enlarged Program actually engendered little discussion or opposition. In what seemed to be a carefully orchestrated performance, the issue was presented by a select group of respected leaders, questions were quietly laid to rest, and the Enlarged Program was approved. There were only three difficulties encountered by the leadership. First was the fact that a publicity man had already been hired to promote the Enlarged Program and to develop a plan to raise the necessary funds. Since the program had yet to be approved by the membership, this premature action caused some resentment.[1] In answer to a question it was explained that the Executive Board had already appropriated $50,000 for the program. This had been borrowed from the United War Work Fund by the Board. R. R. Bowker apparently expressed the conviction of many that this act, unintentional as it may have been, prematurely committed the Association.[2] The second problem involved the method of raising the money needed, estimated to be $2,000,000. The

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[1]"At Chicago," Library Journal, XLV (January 15, 1920), 56.

[2]"The Enlarged Program Proceedings," ALA Bulletin XIV (January , 1920), 7.

Enlarged Program committee was very indefinite on financing. As was pointed out, the committee had first of all said that there would be no fund drive, and then it had described how the drive would be carried out.[1] Discussion brought out the fact that the Committee hoped to raise the $2,000,000 through corporations, individuals, foundations, and a quota system for each state. Exact methodology would be determined later following regional meetings throughout the country.

The third problem concerned the issue which Library Journal said did not exist. This was the threat of a move to New York or at least the establishment of a second office in that city for the activities of the Enlarged Program Committee. In a surprise move, Dr. Arthur Bostwick of the St. Louis Public Library offered a resolution which would solve the problem completely:

> Resolved, That it is the sentiment of this meeting that whatever enlarged activities are engaged in . . . should be operated from the headquarters in Chicago, so far as possible, and under the supervision of the executive officer at those headquarters.[2]

President Chalmers Hadley ruled that this was a question of policy and would therefore have to go before the Council. Bostwick appealed the decision and the membership overruled the President. Herbert Putnam criticized Bostwick for

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[1] "At Chicago," loc. cit.

[2] "The Enlarged Program Proceedings," op. cit., 8.

raising the question, and asked if Bostwick knew of any proposal to remove Headquarters from Chicago to New York. Bostwick replied that it was common knowledge the intent of the Executive Board was to operate the Enlarged Program from New York. He was not opposed to the move, but he said he was opposed to the duplication which would result from the move.[1] The effect of this resolution was to end the suspected move to New York. It also prevented the further use of the public relations firm to head the Enlarged Program, since the resolution specified that the campaign should be under the executive officer of the Association. However, the resolution notwithstanding, the work of the Enlarged Program Committee continued at its New York office for some time. The reason given was that its Director, Carl Milam, was also Director of the Library War Service, which was still located in New York.[2]

The second special membership meeting, scheduled for Atlantic City, April 29-May 1, was cancelled because of the necessity for scheduling an earlier annual conference than had been planned. Colorado Springs had been chosen as the site of the 1920 conference, but it had proved to be impossible to get accomodations there later than the first week in June. Rather than schedule two membership

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[1] Ibid., 8.

[2] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, March 20, 1920.

meetings within one month, the Executive Board cancelled the special meeting.[1] Development of the Enlarged Program, however, went on as planned. Regional directors were appointed to spearhead the fund drives throughout the country. Meetings were held with local library groups to solicit funds and the personal support of librarians. On March 3, 1920, it was reported that loans in the amount of $202,340 had been negotiated from the War Service Fund for the Enlarged Program.[2]

In spite of the fact that ALA had at its special meeting approved the Enlarged Program, considerable criticism began to develop at this time. The focal point of the problem was the expenditure of such a large sum of money over a short period of time. The Enlarged Program had been budgeted for three years. A commonly expressed complaint was that it would be better to raise an endowment fund of $1,000,000 to support the Association's activities. In this way a substantial amount of work could be undertaken and its management would be more efficient.[3] This criticism led to the publication in April, 1920, of a circular letter addressed to the members of ALA. The

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[1]"American Library Association Special Conference Not to be Called," ALA Bulletin, XIV (March, 1920), 95.

[2]Ibid.

[3][Editorial], Library Journal, XLV (March 15, 1920), 274.

letter pointed out that a substantial proportion of the membership was opposed to the Enlarged Program as it was then constituted. A still larger percentage believed that more definite limits must be placed on the Executive Board in carrying out the Enlarged Program activities. Therefore, the thirteen librarians who signed the letter suggested several guidelines to define the extent of the campaign. These items were included in the circular letter: (1) an end to free service by ALA to government departments as soon as current funds were exhausted; (2) placing service to these departments on a self-sustaining basis, the same as other organizations; (3) to limit the campaign to obtaining funds for professional goals suitable for the Association; and (4) to require that adequate information be given by officials to members of the Association. Among the librarians who signed the letter were such prominent leaders as Edwin H. Anderson of the New York Public Library, Arthur E. Bostwick of the St. Louis Public Library, and Everett R. Perry of the Los Angeles Public Library.[1] A postcard indicating agreement with the letter by the member, was included for the purpose of registering dissent with the Executive Board. The group later asserted they were not opposed to an enlarged program of activities. They simply wanted a

[1]"Circular Letter on the Enlarged Program," Library Journal, XLV (April 15, 1920), 363-64.

clearly defined program and the establishment of limitations as to the methods used. It is difficult to say how damaging the circular letter was, but it clearly did not help the Enlarged Program. Criticism had only been hinted at in print before this. With the letter there was a clear indication of dissension in the profession and among the most distinguished leaders. The extent of the problem became apparent later when over 1,000 postcards indicating agreement with the circular letter were received by the Executive Board.[1]

A compromise was worked out at an unofficial meeting held April 30-May 1 in Atlantic City. As had happened occasionally in the past, ALA found that problems could be resolved through discussions held wherever members gathered. This occasion was the annual Bi-State Meeting of the New Jersey and Pennsylvania Library Associations. Critics and advocates of the Enlarged Program were present, and the discussions cleared the air of some of the differences.[2] The main result was the decision to set aside half of the amount raised for the endowment fund. In addition, both sides agreed not to postpone or hinder the appeal for money. While this compromise served to patch over the split in the organization, the end result might

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XL (May 15, 1920), 453.

[2]Ibid.

also have been to hurt the fund drive. As Library Journal pointed out, people are more interested in giving money towards specific activities. An endowment fund seems less urgent and thus has less appeal in a fund campaign.[1] Nevertheless, the compromise at least ended the visible internal trouble in ALA. One month later the Association met in Colorado Springs for its annual conference. The Enlarged Program, restated to include the endowment feature, was approved unanimously. It was approved also by several sections of ALA and several affiliated organizations meeting at the same time in Colorado Springs. However, the apparent unanimity at the conference was deceiving. Some known dissidents refused to take part in discussions, although others made up for their hesitancy. The final vote was not taken until the last session, after a number of members had left.[2] Thus the stage was set for the embarrassment which was to follow.

June 30, 1920, was originally set as the end of the financial campaign. However, this was said to be inconvenient for some librarians and the appeal was extended. By September 1, Library Journal was blaming the "heat of discussion" and "the heat of the summer" for the

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[1] Ibid.

[2] [Editorial], Library Journal, XLV (June 15, 1920), 560.

slow progress.[1] One month later a Library Journal editorial recounted the mistakes which had been made, and decided that the campaign was a total loss.[2] On September 25 the Executive Board issued a financial report on the Enlarged Program, which it called "peculiarly perplexing."[3] In spite of a state by state account which was optimistic for the future, only $68,000 had been raised or promised. On October 11 the Executive Board decided to terminate the campaign for funds by November 30. When the receipts and expenditures were balanced it was reported that approximately $80,000 had been realized through the campaign which had had a goal of $2,000,000.[4] The failure of the drive was so complete and so humiliating that the subject was almost immediately dropped from the columns of both Library Journal and the ALA Bulletin.

Summary

The probable causes for the failure of the Enlarged

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLV (September 1, 1920), 701.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XLV (October, 1, 1920), 791.

[3]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XLV (October 1, 1920), 796.

[4]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XLV (December 1, 1920), 990.

Program are noted. Enthusiasm and the rise in organizational self-esteem, a result of the two very successful war campaigns, undoubtedly played a large part in the headlong rush to disaster. An organization which had done little to attract national attention during most of its existence became heady over the optimistic plans for the future. In this regard it must be stated that the leadership was probably too far ahead of its members. It not only planned the program too quickly, but it also made the mistake of committing the organization to action before such action had been approved. The hiring of a publicity man to direct a fund drive which had not been sanctioned particularly annoyed many members. This gave rise to the feeling that the leadership was trying to "put something over" on its members. This feeling was heightened by the unfortunate attempt to move the Headquarters to New York. Denials that any such relocation had been proposed, when in fact it had been, increased the credibility gap, particularly in the midwest. Important, too, was the failure to assess accurately the reaction to the war which was predominant in the country. The American people had given a great deal in the various drives which had been held during the war. They were tired of giving, a fact which had been demonstrated by the failure of other drives. Similarly, there was an unrealistic view of the attitudes of the foundation. The leadership had apparently assumed that philanthropic

foundations would be willing to support increased library service. This was, of course, incorrect. There were no large grants from any of the foundations.

Part of the blame also lies with the internal structure of the organization. It was a professional organization attempting to be a welfare organization, and its structure would have been ill-equipped to handle the program if it had been successful. As members often pointed out, ALA was undemocratic and unresponsive to change. Yet at the same time, the nature of its meetings was such that action could be, and sometimes was, stymied by the propensity to discuss endlessly minor details. The membership often refused to delegate responsibility, even knowing from experience the problems connected with open and long debate of every issue. Finally, there was the feeling among many members that the Association was trying to undertake work which was really the responsibility of the federal government. Providing library service to lighthouses, the Merchant Marines, and war-related activities during peacetime seemed to some members to be beyond the realm of a professional organization.

Thus, the "noble experiment" as a welfare organization was short-lived for ALA. In the process it had suffered a humiliation which would be remembered by members for many years. The experience also led to a reappraisal of the organizational structure. The dissension had pointed

out the sharp differences within the organization which needed to be dealt with if the Association were to remain a viable organization. Finally, the experience brought home the painful reminder that ALA desperately needed more members. There followed a series of projects designed to boost membership and the influence of the organization.

CHAPTER VI

INTERNAL CRITICISM

During the Enlarged Program campaign, in April, 1920, George B. Utley resigned as Executive Secretary of ALA. He had held the position since 1911, the longest any man had been Secretary since Melvil Dewey. While the war was in progress Utley had also served as the Secretary to the War Service Committee. In both positions he had earned a reputation for being unusually skilled as an administrator. He resigned his position at ALA Headquarters to become Librarian of the Newberry Library in Chicago.[1] To take his place, the Executive Board chose Carl H. Milam at its March 13, 1920, meeting. Milam graduated from the New York State Library School shortly after Dewey resigned as its director. His first professional employment was at Purdue University. In 1909, at the age of 25, Milam was appointed Secretary to the Indiana Public Library Commission. During his term of office he became well known throughout the country for his leadership capabilities. He was active in writing library legislation,

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLV (March 15, 1920), 271.

in the formation of the Indiana Library Trustees Association, and in the extension of library services to rural area.[1] In 1913 he was appointed Head Librarian of the Birmingham, Alabama Public Library. At this time the city was small and the library was mediocre. By actively promoting the library and its potential services, Milam was able to increase its budget considerably. He was also able to add six branch libraries to the system. When the war began Milam helped to marshal library service both at the local and the state levels for servicemen. He acted as state director of ALA's first book campaign, and then assisted Herbert Purnam as chairman of the Library War Service.[2] During this national work his administrative talents were recognized by library leaders and library periodicals. He seemed a natural choice when ALA needed a new Executive Secretary.

Proposals for Change

The defeat of the Enlarged Program caused an intensive study within the Association. Constitutional revision was not new to the membership. It had been under consideration for some time. The need for changes was evident to most members. Few seemed to desire continuance

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[1]Hawthorne Daniel, Public Libraries for Everyone (Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1961), p. 27.

[2]Ibid., p. 29.

of the organizational structure as it had been. The problem was what changes should be made. A stronger organization was needed, but there was no consensus on the method of achieving that goal.[1] In addition to the old problem of whether the Executive Board or the Council should provide the leadership, there were other proposals considered. A suggestion for a two-year presidential term received wide support at this time. The effect of this change would be to strengthen what had become a largely ceremonial position. A term of two years, it was felt, would enable the president to gain a better understanding of the organization. It would also allow him to develop a program and carry it through.[2] Perhaps with two years in which to act, the president could provide effective leadership to the organization. Other members suggested biennial conferences might be preferable to annual conferences. Under this plan there would be regional conferences during the off-year. Sections and affiliated organizations could also meet at this time. The ALA conferences could then be occupied chiefly with general meetings for the entire membership. The assumption was that the encouragement of local participation would lead to greater participation

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[1]Milton J. Ferguson, "Humanizing the A.L.A.--Detroit, 1922," Library Journal, XLVII (November 1, 1922), 912.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XLVII (August, 1922), 669.

on the national level. The need to develop a sense of unity within the profession had been shown clearly in the failure of the Enlarged Program. Biennial conferences seemed to some people to be a partial answer to this need.[1] Another suggestion was to organize a number of "locals" throughout the country. These would be chapters which would be affiliated with ALA. Dr. Arthur Bostwick of the St. Louis Public Library originally suggested this idea, and he established the first such group. His St. Louis local was open to all librarians in the area. The local's function was to act as a feeder to ALA, as well as to provide unity in the profession at the local level. The obvious problem was that the local attracted many librarians who were not members of ALA.[2] The incongruity of this prevented any extensive development of Bostwick's proposal.

Constitutional revision, as it was finally accepted, was inadequate. It was a compromise which satisfied few people. As Library Journal predicted soon after its enactment, further changes seemed to be immediately in need.[3] The major change made at this time was in the

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XL (December 15, 1922), 1074.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XLVII (May 15, 1921), 367.

[3] Editorial], Library Journal, XLVI (January 1, 1922), 15.

manner of nominating officers. Under the constitution which had been in effect, a nominating committee provided the membership with one name for each office. In such an arrangement it was obvious that the election itself was perfunctory. The new constitution called for three nominations for each important position. The membership would thus be guaranteed a choice for each office. In spite of the generally recognized need for a more democratic election process, the editors of Library Journal repeatedly attacked this new provision. In April, 1922, before the system had been tried for the first time, an editorial commented that it "does not seem to be working well." The arrangement was compared with civil service examinations for chief librarians, where it was found that eminent librarians refused to enter into any competition. The following month Library Journal again criticized the provision. The editorial pointed out that problems with the new arrangement had already been encountered by the nominating committee. The editorial ended on this sour note:

> It is hoped that this triple method of nomination, which is less in favor now that its defects are being shown, will not leave any misunderstandings behind it as the result of choice of one out of three.[1]

The Detroit conference of 1922 demonstrated the popularity

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLVI (May 15, 1922), 466.

of the new method of election. Of the 5,307 eligible members, 2,950 cast ballots. This total was far more than had been cast under the previous constitution. Library Journal admitted the new plan had been worth trying, since previous elections had been so perfunctory. But, according to the editors, the interest would not continue after the novelty had worn off. Members could not be expected to remain interested when there was no real difference of principle between the various candidates.[1]

In spite of the defeat of the Enlarged Program, and the cessation of war in Europe, some of the war work activities continued. One example was the service supplied by ALA to servicemen and families in occupied Germany. The ALA Library at Coblenz served the 15,000 soldiers in the area, plus their families. It was housed in a former German Officers' Club, and functioned more as a public library than as a camp library. Its branches were YMCA huts, hospitals, and deposit stations. The United States Army refused to allow the German people to make use of the library and its services. This led to the employment of many subterfuges by Germans who could read English and wished to be eligible. A commonly used reason was "My wife is English." One man used the more original story

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[1] Ibid.

that he was "an American by principle."[1]

At this time there was another event which grew out of the wartime activities. This was the launching of the Ala, a cargo ship, on December 18, 1920. The Emergency Fleet Corporation was engaged in rebuilding the merchant fleet, depleted and damaged during the war. The Corporation had invited the major organizations which had participated in war service work to each name a ship then being built. When it was ALA's turn, a contest was held to pick a name. The result of this contest was the choice of the unimaginative name Ala for the 9,000 ton cargo ship. It was christened by Shirley Putnam, the daughter of the Librarian of Congress.[2]

The business depression of 1921 caused economic problems for libraries in both 1921 and 1922. Appropriations to public libraries in general were directly affected by the depression. At best, city administrators simply kept the appropriations at the same level as in previous years. More often, however, librarians found their budgets drastically reduced. Many services were limited or completely curtailed.[3] In numerous cases, salaries of librarians were also reduced. These problems were

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[1]Ola Wyeth, "The A.L.A. Library in Coblenz," Library Journal, XLVI (April 15, 1921), 353.

[2]"The Launching of the Ala," Library Journal, XLVI (January 1, 1921), 25.

[3][Editorial], Library Journal, XLVII (January 1, 1922), 30.

reflected in the growth of ALA. In 1921, before the full effects of the depression were felt, the membership showed an increase of 806. One year later, the net increase was 377, for a total membership of 5,684.[1] In view of the financial problems plaguing libraries, it is interesting to note that it was at this time ALA chose to establish a basic standard of support for public libraries. At its Midwinter meeting in 1922, the Council accepted the minimum standard of $1.00 per capita. This was the least amount necessary for communities desiring to maintain a good modern public library with trained librarians. A per capita expenditure of $2.00 was suggested "for the highest grade of service."[2] It is understandable that the minimum standard did not meet with complete approval. A number of librarians, including Clement Andrews of the John Crerar Library in Chicago, believed $1.00 per capita would be an unnecessarily heavy burden on taxpayers in the larger cities. Small towns, others pointed out, would need a considerably larger basis of support than the minimum. Outside the profession reaction to the standard was generally negative. Some newspapers took the statement to mean ALA was proposing what they called a "head tax." Others simply declared that the time was hardly propitious

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[1] A.L.A. Handbook (Chicago, ALA, 1922), p. 10.

[2] "American Library Association," Library Journal, XLVII (January 1, 1922), 32.

for advocating heavier taxation.[1]

Newbery Award

Aside from the acceptance of the minimum standard of financial support, the greatest interest shown by the membership was in a new award in children's literature. The Newbery Medal had its genesis in a proposal by Frederick G. Melcher at the 1921 annual conference of ALA. He had been the chairman of the Children's Book Week Committee for two years. It occurred to him that the Association might give added impetus to the writing of children's books by rewarding creative ability. This would be in the form of a medal given to the author of the most distinguished book for children published during the preceding year. Melcher suggested that the medal be called the "John Newbery Medal" in honor of the eighteenth century bookseller.[2] Newbery was the first publisher to realize that children have reading interests of their own, distinct from adults, and he provided books to meet those interests. After ALA approved the idea of the medal, Melcher provided the funds for its design. The medal was the work of a young American, Rene Paul Chambellan. He was a modeling

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLVII (February 15, 1922), 169.

[2]"The John Newbery Medal," Library Journal, XLVII (May 1, 1922), 399.

instructor at the Allied Expeditionary Forces Art Center, and had previously completed sculpturing projects for a large number of public buildings.[1] The first recipient of the new award was Henrik Van Loon for his Story of Mankind.

Library Education

Undoubtedly one of the major problems facing the library profession at this time was the education of librarians. From Dewey's first program at Columbia there had been a tremendous growth in the number of institutions engaged in the training of librarians. What it first viewed with immense pride, the profession now saw was a serious problem. With no overall guidance from the Association, training schools had multiplied in number and variety. Public libraries, normal schools, colleges, and universities were engaged in library education. Only very limited control over the programs was exercised by the Association of American Library Schools, formed in 1915, and the ALA's Committee on Library Training. There was frequent criticism of the quality of instruction even in the accredited library schools. Practitioners often declared library education to be irrelevant. All schools shared the common problems of inadequate financing and the difficulty in finding qualified personnel to teach. Schools also complained about the quality of students who attended,

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[1] Ibid.

especially during their summer sessions. These students were often of a much lower quality than the regular students. This was brought out in Council debates in 1922 over proposed changes in library education. The Committee on Library Training had recommended that (1) regular library schools offer summer school courses for equivalent credit; (2) some library schools should offer correspondence courses in certain subjects; and (3) the library schools should adopt a uniform system of credits. Mr. W. E. Henry of the University of Washington Library School led the opposition to this report. Amid much laughter he described the quality of students which had attended his school's summer sessions:

> Some of them were ex-teachers and some were ex-almost everything else. Some of them had been worn out in the service of the Lord or somewhere else, in other lines, I don't know just where.[1]

As for the idea of teaching library science by correspondence, to many people the idea was totally ridiculous. There had been a few attempts at it, and the idea of extension was very popular. However, again the ascerbic wit of Mr. Henry rallied the opposition. He caustically commented "I should just as soon take to teaching swimming by the same process."[2] On April 23, 1923, the chairman of

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of the Council, June 22, 1922.

[2]Ibid.

the Committee on Library Training reported to the ALA Council on the shortcomings of library education. Malcolm G. Wyer pointed out that although the Association had always been keenly interested in library training, it had never been able to formulate any definite policy. According to Wyer, the Committee could no longer meet the growing problems connected with library education. He asked ALA to "move forward to take a more direct influence over all library training agencies." He also suggested the desirability of making a very careful study of the whole field.[1] The following day the Council voted to establish a temporary Library Training Board to replace the Committee on Library Training. The Board was ordered to survey the entire field of library education, to formulate tentative standards for all types of library training agencies, and to establish a program for the accreditation of such agencies. The Board began its activities on May 24, 1923.[2] The following year it was replaced by the Board of Education for Librarianship.

It was with the background of criticism, dissent, and concern that the Carnegie Corporation commissioned

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[1]ALA, "Report of the Committee on Library Training," April 23, 1923, p. 1. (Typewritten)

[2]The original members of the Temporary Board were Linda Eastman, Andrew Keogh, Harrison W. Craver, Malcolm Wyer, Sarah Bogle, and Adam Strohm, Chairman.

Charles C. Williamson to prepare a detailed study of library education. Other professions had had similar investigations financed by the Corporation. Dr. Abraham Flexner had written a report on medical education which brought radical changes in the medical schools. Joseph Redlich's investigation of legal education led to significant changes in some law schools. These studies, plus the Corporation's long interest in libraries, made it natural for the Corporation to subsidize an investigation of library education. Williamson's report was published in 1923, but it was based on his findings during 1921-1922.

The Williamson report was factual and very critical. Too critical, in the view of some people. Frank K. Walter of the University of Minnesota said the reaction of library school faculty could be expressed in the following verse:

> Perhaps it was right to dissemble your love
> But why did you kick me downstairs?

Walter thought of the report as primarily a review of "matters of open record or common knowledge."[1] Reactions among library educators were generally favorable, in spite of Mr. Walter's verse. Most saw a few shortcomings, however. For example, Walter thought the study had been too concerned with large libraries and large communities. He

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[1]Frank K. Walter, "A Dynamic Report," Library Journal, XLVIII (September, 1923), 709.

also viewed its recommendations as too impractical to put into effect. Alice Tyler, Director of the Western Reserve Library School, criticized Williamson for his suggestion that her school, and others, increase enrollments. As she pointed out, the governing factor in determining enrollment was the budget. Most schools were simply too poor to become larger. Objections of other library school directors were also mostly to specific points rather than to general statements. The most laudatory comment came from Anne Wallace Howland, Director of the Drexel Institute Library School. She saw Williamson's report as being second only to the establishment of the first library school, as far as the history of library education was concerned.[1]

Frank K. Walter's assessment of the report as essentially a review of what everyone knew to be true is basically correct. Although Williamson's work did stir up considerable debate, this was not because there were any startling items uncovered. The discussion centered on the recommendations, not the findings. As Sarah Vann has written, the report was "factual but lacking in originality." Most of the ideas which formed the basis of the report, according to Vann, had been widely accepted since

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[1]Anne W. Howland, "Drexel Institute," Library Journal, XLVIII (November 1, 1923), 903.

the "beginning of formal library education. The importance lies in the role the report played in the eventual enactment of most of its major recommendations."[1] The basic recommendations made by Williamson were as follows:

(1) Library schools ought to be connected with colleges or universities, not with public libraries;

(2) The first year of library education should be devoted to professional education, open to college graduates;

(3) The second year of library education should consist of specialized library science courses;

(4) Library schools should have strengths and specializations in the second year program;

(5) Correspondence study should be allowed and encouraged;

(6) Experience should be expected of students after the first year of the program, and before they begin the second year of specialization.[2]

The report was also significant because it stimulated a

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[1]Sarah K. Vann, Training for Librarianship Before 1923 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1961), p. 2.

[2]Charles C. Williamson, Training for Library Service (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1923), p. 30.

serious self-study within library education. Although the ideas were not new, it was the first time they were collected together to give a comprehensive picture to educators. This was demonstrated by the statement of Adam Strohm, chiarman of the Temporary Library Training Board. In a harsh report to the ALA Council, Strohm said:

> We needed such a challenge, such an implied request to take account of ourselves. It is timely. During recent years we have been dangerously infected by the toxins of sentimental tributes for services rendered during war days, leading even to self-laudation. . . . It is well that someone has called a halt.[1]

When plans for the 1924 annual conference were being formulated, it was announced that Dr. Williamson would speak before the Professional Training Section. According to the ALA Bulletin, the topic was to be: "What I would have said had my report been written today." Since his report had been based on the lean post-war years of 1921-22, the topic seemed to some library educators to be very appropriate. They had criticized the report in part because they felt the years covered were not representative. However, in May, 1924, the ALA Bulletin retracted the statement about the forthcoming speech. Dr. Williamson had never agreed to speak to the group, and he objected strongly to the implications of the proposed topic. He said:

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Council, January 2, 1924.

> I have not changed my mind in any essential respect. Some of the detailed facts and figures would necessarily be different, but the conclusions and recommendations still seem to me to hold.[1]

Two years later the Board of Education for Librarianship issued its first annual report. This document established the first minimum standards for programs of library education. In doing so, guidelines were provided by which the accreditation of library schools became possible. In a plan approved by the Council, the Board proposed to study the schools during the forthcoming year. It was planned that a list of schools meeting the minimum requirements would then be published by the Board in its second annual report.[2] The Board also announced that a school for the training of Negro librarians had been established. The school was at Hampton Institute in Virginia, and was under the direction of Florence Rising Curtis. The school had the support of the Board and the financial backing of the Carnegie Corporation.

The Board of Education for Librarianship had also pointed out in its first report that there was a serious deficiency in library education; there was no advanced graduate library school which could offer "instruction

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[1]"A.L.A. News," ALA Bulletin, XVIII (May, 1924), 95.

[2]"Board of Education for Librarianship," ALA Bulletin, IXX (November, 1925), A6.

adequate to important developments in library work."[1] The Board expressed the hope such schools would be developed as the profession expanded its needs. Later in 1925 the Board provided a more definite plan. It suggested that a National School of Library Science be established. This would be an advanced school, requiring a college degree for admission. Its main point of difference from existing library schools would be its provision for greater specialization by students. When word spread about the proposal, there was an immediate debate over the location of such a school. As with the location of ALA Headquarters, partisans expressed their preference for New York, Chicago, or Washington.[2] At this point, however, the Carnegie Corporation intervened by proposing a large grant to the Association, part of which would help to found a graduate library school. In 1926 it was announced that the University of Chicago had been selected to receive a grant of $1,385,000 for the new library school.[3] While the main thrust of the proposal was towards the master's degree, the University would also develop a doctoral program in library science, the first in the United States.

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[1]ALA, First Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship (Chicago: A.L.A., 1925), p. 5.

[2]"An Advanced School of Librarianship," Library Journal, L (February 15, 1925), 171-72.

[3]ALA, Proceedings of Council, March 7, 1926.

American Library in Paris

By 1924 one of the last remnants of ALA's war service involvement was the American Library in Paris. Founded in 1918 for the use of American soldiers stationed in Paris, it had been funded by the Association for two years. After the withdrawal of the soldiers, the library's clientele became those Americans living in the city. Control of the library remained for some time with ALA. A Board of Trustees, composed of fifteen members, directed the immediate operations. One-third of the trustees were appointed by the Executive Board of ALA. The remainder were elected by a controlling group called the American Library in Paris, Incorporated. This was a Delaware corporation composed largely of American citizens. The librarian was nominated by ALA, but had to be approved by the Board of Trustees.[1] There were repeated assertions that the relationship between ALA and the library was strictly a cooperative one, yet the Association found it impossible to break away entirely. Financial support was still needed in order for the library to survive. In addition to its annual grant of $2,000 in effect at this time, the Carnegie Corporation made a two-year grant of $25,000 in 1923 to the library. But it was more than just

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[1]William N. C. Carlton, :The American Library in Paris, Inc.," Library Journal, XLVI (October 15, 1921), 823.

a financial obligation which ALA felt. As the Association's 1923 President, George B. Utley said:

> For a long time to come our Association . . . must recognize peculiar obligations to this offspring, and do whatever lies within its power to help that institution to a position of strength and to an assured future.[1]

As a parent, the Association could and did complain about the behavior of its offspring. At the Executive Board meeting on July 5, 1924, dissatisfaction with the Library's operation reached its peak. The most vocal member was Sarah Bogle, the Assistant Secretary of ALA. She had spent the previous summer at the Paris Library and presumably spoke with authority and knowledge of the situation. According to her, the Library was not fulfilling its function. Part of the problem was, of course, a lack of funds which hampered operations. But Miss Bogle said the primary problem was the poor administration of funds available.[2] Carl Milam, Executive Secretary, added that he was afraid both the Carnegie Corporation and the Library's Board of Trustees would soon decide that a librarian simply could not administer the Library. Based on the experience of the previous four years, his conclusion would seem to be justified. According to Milam,

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[1]George B. Utley, "The Expanding Responsibilities of the American Library Association," Library Journal, XLVIII (May 15, 1923), 450.

[2]ALA, "Proceedings of Executive Board," July 5, 1924.

none of the men sent by ALA to administer the Library had been a success.[1] The Executive Board then decided to make a thorough investigation of the Library.

Although encountering problems and being constantly in financial straits, the American Library in Paris had made some progress. It had developed a representative collection, and seemed to have built a strong bond with Paris residents. It had also expanded its program to include the education of librarians. Since France had no training of librarians in American methods, it was decided to offer a modest beginning. The program got underway in the summer of 1923. Its director was Sarah Bogle, and its sponsor was the American Committee for Devastated France. The grant was given to ALA in order to fund the school for an initial period of two years. After that time, it was expected the school would be able to be self-supporting. The need for such a school was apparently great. Even before it began operations, it had received over 300 applications for admission.[2]

Saratoga Springs Conference, 1924

The 1924 conference, held at Saratoga Springs, New York, was noted by delegates as a particularly pleasant

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Annual Reports, 1923-24," ALA Bulletin, XVIII (July, 1924), 204.

and successful gathering. With its rural resort setting the meetings lacked the hustle and bustle usually associated with the annual conferences.[1] The twin discussion topics of Adult Eduation and Education for Librarianship attracted about 1,400 participants. At the end of the first general session there was an unscheduled sentimental event. At that time a loving cup was presented to Mr. and Mrs. Henry J. Carr. Mr. Carr had attended thirty-nine conferences and Mrs. Carr had attended thirty-five conferences. At various times Mr. Carr had served as President, Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer of ALA.[2]

During the conference there was a second and unscheduled, but less pleasant, event. This was an attempt on the part of some members to dissolve the Special Libraries Association (SLA) and to merge it as a business section of ALA. The question of a merger had always been attractive to some members of both organizations. The lack of growth and vitality of SLA had probably heightened interest in merging the two groups. The lack of unity in the profession, demonstrated by the failure of the Enlarged Program, may have added some incentive. The following plan

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, XLIX (July, 1924), 634.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, XL (August, 1924), 679.

was quietly developed by a small group of librarians.[1] The nominees for offices in SLA would, upon election, form a committee to negotiate a merger with ALA. This would be accomplished by combining the similar groups of the two organizations. The business librarians would become a new business section in ALA. Other parts of SLA would similarly become sections of ALA. To forestall any further activity within SLA, the newly elected officials were to copyright the name Special Libraries. The old organization's official organ would, therefore, no longer be available to be used by any dissident group. The SLA would cease to exist. Unfortunately, for the planners of this coup, the activities became public knowledge at Saratoga Springs, where SLA was also meeting. Reaction against the coup was immediate. New officials were elected in SLA who were pledged to continue the organization. Since the action rallied support to the smaller organization, the result of the merger attempt was to strengthen SLA. In its failure, the attempt also hurt relations between the two organizations, and ended any possibility of a future merger.[2]

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[1]This information is based on the "President's Address," made to SLA members on June 24, 1924. There is no mention of the incident in ALA literature.

[2]SLA, "President's Address," June 24, 1924. (Typewritten)

All-American Conference

During the spring of 1924 the Association became involved in a propaganda conference which brought unfavorable publicity to the organization. The participation was innocent and without knowledge of the real purpose of the meeting. It was initiated by the American Legion, which invited many organizations to "discuss a constructive Americanism and citizenship program."[1] The Executive Board authorized the President to appoint a delegate to attend the meetings in Washington. President-elect H. H. B. Meyer was chosen to attend what was hailed by its sponsors as the "All-American Conference." The meetings soon showed that the real purpose was to provide a demonstration against what was called "revolutionary and destructive radicalism."[2] The conferees passed resolutions censuring the British Ambassador, denouncing the Soviet Union, and protesting against any speeches made in Congress which might place the United States in an unfavorable light. The group also demanded:

> . . . unadulterated and undiluted American history in American schools, as opposed to the emasculated history which has been introduced so generally,

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, January 2, 1924.

[2] [Editorial], Library Journal, XLIX (June 1, 1924), 536.

> robbing Americanism of much of its elemental significance, and robbing democracy of its most precious heritage.[1]

Newspapers made note of the fact ALA was among the thirty groups which participated in this Conference. It was an embarrassing incident for an organization which had so carefully chartered a course of nonpartisanship throughout its history.[2]

Endowment

During the Midwinter meeting of the Association in 1925, President Charles Belden told the Executive Board he had received the most important and far-reaching proposition ever laid before the Association. Francis Keppel of the Carnegie Corporation had informed Carl Milam that he was working on a long range plan for the Corporation. There was available about $2,000,000 which they wanted to divide up in advance. For ALA it would mean about $500,000 each year for ten years. Keppel said:

> Make that sum capitalize all the things we are now doing and all the things that ought to be done, in so far as it will cover.[3]

Inherent in the proposal at this point was the belief that ALA must demonstrate its ability to raise money from other

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[1] New York Times, May 19, 1924, p. 16.

[2] Editorial , Library Journal, XLIX (June 1, 1924), 536.

[3] ALA. Proceedings of Executive Board, December 29, 1925.

sources in addition to the Carnegie Corporation. A figure of $1,000,000 was suggested as a "matching" amount for ALA. Board members then discussed the possibilities for raising such a large sum. William Warner Bishop commented ruefully: "One might strike a philanthropist unawares, but I think most of them are pretty well buried."[1] There was general agreement among the Executive Board members that it would be very difficult for the Association to raise the required amount of matching money.

When finally made public in 1926, the grant from the Carnegie Corporation was quite different from the original proposal. A grant of $1,385,000 was made to the University of Chicago for the establishment of the first advanced library school. The endowment fund of the Association was increased by $1,000,000. An equal amount was given to support the general activities of the Association. Library education was also supported by a grant of $1,000,000, to be used to subsidize schools and students.[2] However, the grants were to be made in the form of successive installments over a ten year period. They were to replace the annual miscellaneous grants given to support various activities of the Association. The net

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[1] Ibid.

[2] ALA, Proceedings of the Council, March 7, 1926.

result of this large gift, then, was a reduction in Carnegie Corporation support for general ALA activities. Previous to the grant, the total Carnegie support in 1926 was $190,000. Under the new grant, support in 1926-27 was $125,000, $60,000 in 1928-29, and diminishing amounts each year thereafter.[1] The new program of support did at least keep the appropriations on a definite continuing basis. Although there was less money than before, there was the advantage of knowing how much money would be forthcoming in subsequent years.

Fiftieth Anniversary Conference

The Carnegie Corporation gift came at a particularly appropriate time, since the Association was preparing to celebrate its fiftieth anniversary in 1926. A drive to reach a membership of 10,000 had already been started. Funds were being collected to support an elaborate celebration. The United States would also be celebrating its anniversary in 1926 in the city of Philadelphia. This celebration was not to be of the magnitude of the 1876 centennial exposition. It was, however, a good time for ALA to point out the progress made in its fifty years. In addition, there was some hope that this might be made an international library conference. As there had not been

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[1] [Editorial], Library Journal, LI (June 1, 1926), 529.

one since 1904, it was believed that library progress in the intervening years would be shown to be remarkable. The many foreign libraries, library schools, and library associations were invited to take part in the celebration. In a sentimental gesture, the Executive Board also moved to honor its past. The Board elected as honorary Vice-Presidents of the Association the surviving members of the 1876 and 1877 conferences. Members from the 1876 conference were R. R. Bowker, Florence M. Cushing, Melvil Dewey, Charles Evans, William E. Foster, and E. Fannie Whitney. Members from the 1877 conference were Walter Biscoe, Walter Harden, and Caroline M. Hewins.[1]

The fiftieth anniversary exhibit at the Philadelphia Sesquicentennial of the American Revolution was housed in the Education Hall. Earlier elaborate plans calling for an exhibit costing $25,000 were replaced with a more modest exhibit costing $8,500. The main feature was an eighty foot map showing the Cleveland Public Library's system, which was meant to show how a library serves its public. Another feature was a printing press such as was used by large public libraries for publicity work. The press poured a steady stream of book lists and brochures which were very popular with the public during the conference.

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[1] [Editorial], Library Journal, LI (October 15, 1926), 917.

There was also a small model library set up for demonstration purposes. The collection consisted of 2,000 adult books, 500 juvenile books, and 100 of the most important reference books.[1]

The emphasis at the anniversary conference was on the general sessions. The registration of 2,300 was the largest ever at an ALA conference. Of that total, 1,200 traveled to Philadelphia for the commemorative sessions; the main sessions were held at Atlantic City, New Jersey. The sessions in Atlantic City were on the theme of international cooperation, and most of the speeches were made by foreign librarians. With this emphasis it seemed particularly appropriate when the Association elected George H. Locke of the Toronto, Canada, Public Library as its new President. This was the first and only time a Canadian has ever been elected President of ALA. The anniversary sessions were held at Drexel Institute in Philadelphia. Richard R. Bowker and Melvil Dewey were the main speakers for the occasion. Bowker spoke on the development of ALA during its first fifty years. Dewey talked of the need to meet the challenge of what he saw as the enemies of reading. He also called for an educating process for the public so it would give complete acceptance

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[1]"The A.L.A. Fiftieth Anniversary Exhibit," Library Journal, LI (December 15, 1926), 1122-23.

to the work and value of libraries. The presence of both Dewey and Bowker, as well as Charles Evans, contributed greatly to the success of the conference.[1]

The anniversary meeting provided a time for evaluation of the progress made during ALA's half century of existence. President Charles Belden spoke of the accomplishments in his address to the conference.[2] Both Dewey and Bowker spoke of the Association's role in the development of librarianship. All three were more concerned about what the future held in store for the organization. Bowker spoke of the "problems of bigness" which confronted the library world. He wondered if the field of library work, as it seemed to be developing, would not in time outreach the possibilities of ALA. Belden placed great emphasis on the Association doing tests and experiments to improve library service throughout the country. With ALA proving better methods, directing the training of personnel, and delineating more carefully defined aims, Belden thought that the public library would be doing in fifty years what had hardly even been dreamed of in 1926. Dewey was particularly modern-sounding in his prophecy for future years. Noting the tendency of

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[1] Editorial , Library Journal, LI (October 15, 1926), 917.

[2] Charles F. Belden, "Looking Forward," Library Journal, LI (October 15, 1926), 860.

librarians to think of books as being sacred, he cautioned instead to regard them as tools to be used. According to Dewey, the future library might not have books at all. The Association, too, would have to be changing constantly if it were to remain a viable, relevant organization. The next fifty years would be far more important than the first fifty. Much work remained to be done, and Dewey was convinced that it was within the province of the Association to do it. Otherwise, less capable agencies would attempt to do the same work. It was a valedictory message in its call for action. Dewey's final words to the conference were: "What will you do with these stupendous fifty years ahead?"[1]

Summary

Although ALA went through a period of retrenchment following the defeat of the Enlarged Program, some of the expanded activities of World War I continued. Chief among these was the American Library in Paris, which held the special affections of librarians in the United States. Almost all other activities having their origin in World War I were gradually phased out or taken over by other organizations.

The selection of Carl H. Milam as Executive

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[1]Melvil Dewey, "Our Next Half-Century," Library Journal, LI (October 15, 1926), 889.

Secretary was a particularly fortunate choice for the Association. Fresh from his work with the Library War Service, Milam was young, ambitious, and international in his attitude. He assumed the leadership when such qualities were particularly necessary because of the disastrous defeat of the Enlarged Program. The large grants of money from the Carnegie Corporation also came at an opportune time. The grants placed the finances of the Association on a firm foundation, as well as insured the establishment of the first graduate library school. The Carnegie Corporation grant to underwrite the Williamson Report was also fortunate, although it was critical of what had been done in library education. The Report synthesized information about training for librarianship, and helped to lead to later changes in library education.

CHAPTER VII

DEPRESSION YEARS AND INTERNAL STRIFE

As ALA began its second fifty years, its members found business conditions were changing radically. After the abnormal "high" reached by business in 1926 there was a brief recession in 1926 which affected libraries sharply. Incomes were reduced as all areas of the economy, except the stock market, suffered a setback. In spite of this recession, however, the growth of ALA continued unabated. The goal of 10,000 members, which had been set for the anniversary year, was reached in 1927.[1]

Censorship

The ALA was drawn innocently into a verbal war the Mayor of Chicago was waging on Great Britain during 1927. It was a one-sided war, and for the most part a ridiculous war. It began with Mayor William H. Thompson's attempt to prove that the public schools were disseminating pro-British propaganda. A committee appointed by the Mayor reported the use of books which contained "sinister alterations" from the truth. To the committee this seemed

[1] "A.L.A. News," ALA Bulletin, XXI (June, 1927), 82.

to reflect fruition of the seeds planted by Rhodes scholarships, the Carnegie Foundation, and the English-Speaking Union.[1] Following the Mayor's attack on the school system, a member of Chicago's Public Library Board took up the attack. Urbin J. Herrmann threatened to withdraw all pro-British books from the library and burn them on the lake front. Only a court injunction prevented this from taking place. Herrmann contented himself with buying himself a copy of Arthur Schlesinger's New Viewpoints in American History and having a small private bonfire. Mayor Thompson then attacked a bibliography published by ALA and distributed by the Chicago Public Library. This was in the "Reading with a Purpose" series which the Association had provided to libraries to encourage reading. The specific list which the Mayor attacked was The Europe of Our Day, compiled by Herbert Adams Gibbons. According to Thompson the list contained books which were biased and unfair. He called the books insulting in their comments on America and American policies.[2] There was no response from ALA to this criticism. Carl Roden, Librarian of the Chicago Public Library, said he would not resist any attempt to remove the offending books. Fortunately it did not come to that point. The resulting unfavorable publicity convinced

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[1] New York Times, October 15, 1938, p. 38.

[2] New York Times, November 5, 1927, p. 1.

the Mayor further attack would be unwise. He then settled for a ban on the use of the lion in school archetecture. The country followed the farce with a mixture of amusement and outrage. Newspapers gleefully chronicled each new episode, but editorials tended to take a more serious view of the affair. Apparently Thompson's attack had little effect on Anglo-American relations, and British newspapers generally ignored Thompson. The only serious reaction came from a group of British children. They burned the Mayor in effigy.

Toronto Conference, 1927

The Association met in Canada for the third time in its history when it convened in Toronto in June, 1927. Attendance almost set a record, being second only to the anniversary conference of the previous year. With the conference in Canada it was appropriate that the formation of the Canadian Library Association was announced.[1] The new organization was not thought of as a rival to ALA. It was hoped most members of the Canadian group would remain affiliated with the older organization. This, of course, had always been true to some extent with other national library associations, such as the Special Libraries Association.

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[1]Note that the formation of a Canadian Library Association had also been announced at the 1900 annual conference of ALA.

President George A. Locke in his presidential address at the 1927 conference raised anew two proposals aimed at strengthening the inner structure of ALA. The first suggestion was to increase the President's term of office to two years. According to Locke, if this were not done the power of the President would steadily decrease. At the same time, the power of the Headquarters organization would increase proportionately. The continuity of policy could be taken care of by the permanent officials, while the more theoretical outlook could be provided by the elected officials. Locke pointed out that "unfettered Idealism" and strong leadership could not be expected of a President who holds office for only one year. Instead, the President might become a figurehead whose main function would be to approve the actions of the permanent staff. It is significant that Locke offered this advice at the end of his term rather than at the beginning. He had already had a year in which to learn the power structure of the organization. Yet in truth what Locke predicted might take place had already occurred. The traditional dislike of a second term for the President had developed in the early years of the Association. By default the actual direction of ALA went to the Executive Secretary and the developing Headquarters organization.[1] The bureaucracy which Locke

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[1]"ALA Secretaryship," Library Journal, XXXIV (September, 1909), 390.

warned about was already in existence and in effective control. This was only natural since the elected officials were too far removed from the day to day operations. It is entirely possible that even with a two year term, a President might have had difficulty in exerting any meaningful personal power at this point in the organization's history.[1] Locke's second proposal was an effort to encourage greater personal involvement. He renewed the idea of biennial conferences. Regional conferences were suggested for the intervening years. Locke predicted greater attendance and interest at the local meetings than had been true of most of the annual conferences. Concurrently there would be increased interest in the national conferences because they would be less frequent.[2] However, in spite of the editorial support of Library Journal neither of Locke's proposals received serious consideration.

Dana's Criticism

At the end of 1927 members of the Council received another of John Cotton Dana's famous letters of constructive criticism. Dana found much to condemn in the

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[1]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LV (March 15, 1930), 26.

[2]George Locke, "Presidential Address," Papers and Proceedings of the Toronto Conference, 1927 (Chicago, ALA, 1927), p. 269.

Association and he did not hesitate to make his views known to the leadership. His communications were apt to be received with a resigned air, acknowledged, referred to a committee, and then forgotten. Dana's letter of December 20, 1927, to members of the Council is a typical example of his criticism. It was an attack on the activities of certain ALA boards and committees. He charged that the Board of Education for Librarianship had, through its standards, introduced the "goose-step into a flourishing private enterprise." He saw not a "single spark of originality" in its minimum requirements. Library schools, according to Dana, had changed little under the Board's direction except possibly to become more timid toward new ideas. The Association's work in adult education received similar treatment. He resented the use of the new term Adult Education as implying a new work or new emphasis on the part of librarians. Librarians had been doing such work for many years. Yet the Adult Education Committee had spent $50,000 without any indication that the results and the efforts were at all meaningful. Dana was also critical of the books published as a result of a curriculum study done by the Association. The study had simply surveyed what the current practice was in libraries. Prominent librarians were then paid to write textbooks based on the results of the study. Dana sarcastically commented the books would have been precisely the same even if the

authors had never heard of the $30,000 worth of answers acquired by the curriculum study. Looking back, Dana said he had often made himself a burden like the Biblical grasshopper. After seeing the work of ALA in these areas, he expressed a wish that he had made himself even more burdensome.[1]

Within several days Dana then wrote to the Executive Board asking that his first letter be read at a Council meeting. There were objections to the Board doing what Dana asked, but as Frank K. Walter pointed out:

> If any attempt is made to suppress it, Mr. Dana has many avenues to publish it. . . . If we attempt to suppress it, it will be looked upon as persecution, and the fact of the matter is there is some truth to it.[2]

Mathew Dudgeon of the Milwaukee Public Library added the brief comment, "A lot of truth in it." Mr. Walter then said he believed the only way to deal with Dana was to use Dana's own weapon. That, according to Walter, was "pitiless publicity." In the past Dana had written to the Executive Board to express his dissatisfaction with what ALA was doing. He had, in fact, suggested the Association employ himself to make a study of its activities. Dana undoubtedly was not serious in his suggestion since he disliked

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[1]Letter, Dana to Council, December 20, 1927.

[2]ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, December 28, 1927.

studies very much. Furthermore, he surely realized the Executive Board would hardly employ a known critic. It would appear that the suggestion was made with puckish humor, for which Dana was also well known.

Some members of the Council recognized the accuracy in Dana's latest letter, or the spirit in which it was written. Henry Van Hoesen said one might have to look closely to find the constructive criticism, but it was there.[1] Others agreed with the basic ideas, although they objected to the bluntness with which Dana wrote. The suggestion was made that the boards and committees involved should answer the charges if they desired. Arthur Bostwick of the St. Louis Public Library was strongly opposed to this plan. He said this would place the different agencies in the position of accused persons, with Dana acting as the prosecutor:

> It would, of course, please Mr. Dana to death. He would get back at the different boards, and Mr. Dana can act as public prosecutor very much more effectively than anybody connected with the board or anybody connected with the ALA can act as defenders.[2]

It was decided not to suppress the letter from the public. The complete text was printed in both the ALA Bulletin and the Library Journal. Less forthrightly, the Council

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of the Council, December 30, 1927.

[2]Ibid.

avoided the issue by forming a special committee to investigate the charges.[1] Six months later this special committee made its report to the Council. It was primarily a defense of what the Association had done, rather than the unbiased, thorough investigation which Dana apparently had in mind. A significant change was recommended, however. Dana had noted the Association published the salaries of hundreds of librarians, yet it did not publish the salaries of its own staff. The committee suggested this information ought to be included in an early issue of the ALA Bulletin.[2] The recommendation was accepted, and the budget included the salaries of the officers of the Association, but not their names.

Dana wrote another critical letter to the Executive Board in December, 1928. This was a ten page critique of the Association's activities. He again asked to have the letter read aloud at the meeting. Executive Secretary Milam angrily commented:

> If we are going to still further to prolong that [the meeting] by reading a harangue from Dana in which there are certainly two or three remarks which would be considered as discourteous if made on the floor in person, it may be

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "On A.L.A. Activities," Library Journal, LIII (June 15, 1928), 557.

> doubtful wisdom, though I recognize exactly the danger of doing anything else.[1]

Milam later agreed to read the letter at the end of the session but the minutes do not indicate that this was done. The ALA Bulletin reported the receipt of another stimulating letter from Dana but declined to print it. The editor declared the letter was too long to print and it did not lend itself to being abstracted. However, to avoid criticism, mimeographed copies were available to those interested. This was to be the last of the Dana letters designed to disturb the serenity of ALA Headquarters. In early July, 1929, librarians learned that Dana was seriously ill and beyond hope of recovery. His death came on July 21. One of the best known librarians in the country, his death was widely mourned. The New York Times noted Dana's colleagues often thought of his comments as destructive. He certainly had a penchant for stirring things up, and he enjoyed being the center of controversy. The Times concluded:

> He was like a gadfly to stodgy conservatism. He was always calling for a reassessment of old traditions and standards in library work. . . . Mere red tape in administration was abhorrent to to him. . . . The library world will not soon look upon his like again.[2]

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[1] ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, December 27, 1928.

[2] New York Times, July 22, 1929, p. 18.

Business Libraries Section

At the Midwinter meeting of ALA, the Council took a step which formerly would have caused considerable trouble, but at this time only caused resentment. The action was the approval of the formation of a Business Libraries Section, an apparent encroachment on the Special Libraries Association. Interested members had previously attempted to establish such a section in 1925 and again in 1927, but had failed. In his 1925 presidential address, Frances Cady of SLA had reported on the negotiations with ALA over a Business Library Group. He had conveyed to ALA leaders the sentiment within SLA that there was no need for the new group to be formed. SLA already amply covered the field of special libraries, and was hampered only by the lack of funds from doing all that needed to be done. President Cady continued:

> I have felt that if the A.L.A. really wishes to aid in the development of special library activities, another way lies open to it. It can discourage defections from our Association and join with us in every helpful way to secure the functioning of our Association to its utmost capacity. I can see nothing to be gained by setting up within A.L.A. a small group drawn from an affiliated body, to do with the full backing of the A.L.A. what that body is already undertaking to do with such backing withheld.[1]

The matter was referred to a committee, which reported to

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[1]Frances E. Cady, "The President's Address," Special Libraries, XVII (November, 1926), 310.

the Council on December 29, 1927. The committee recommended that a Business Library Section be formed, although it recognized the Section's goals could be achieved through a better understanding between ALA and SLA. Furthermore, the committee admitted that SLA's affiliation with ALA would be nullified by the Section's formation.[1] After considerable discussion, the Council voted to lay the petition on the table. This action came after one member commented that approval of the Section would "bear the aspect of a direct slap by the ALA in the face of the SLA."[2] The organ of SLA, Special Libraries, reprinted the Council proceedings verbatim with the added statement: "We reserve comment until a later issue."[3] No comment was made, however, until the problem came up again. This was on December 29, 1928, when the Council voted to reconsider the question. This action was taken in spite of warnings from the Library Journal and members of the SLA.[4] President Frances Cady of SLA spoke of the danger of a breakdown in the affiliation with ALA if the new section were

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of the Council, December 29, 1927.

[2]R. H. Johnson in ALA, Proceedings of Council, December 29, 1927.

[3]"American Library Association," Special Libraries, IXX (February, 1928), 52.

[4] Editorial , Library Journal, LIII (January 15, 1928), 96.

allowed to be established. Cady further pointed out that a majority in both organizations had indicated in a mail vote their opposition to the proposed section.[1] In spite of the strong feeling shown at the meeting, the Council created a Business Libraries Section by a standing vote.

The new section then sparked additional interest at the 1929 conference by holding a secret, unannounced session. Attended only by the original signers of the petition to establish the section, officers were elected and by-laws were adopted. An editor of Special Libraries called the unusual session "unprecedented" and "unconstitutional."[2] There was considerable discussion over this matter, since ALA and SLA were meeting concurrently in Washington at the time. It was clearly a defeat for SLA, and somewhat of an embarrassment for ALA. However, in the presidential speech made to SLA, the emphasis was on conciliation. It was pointed out the SLA "attached great importance to those cordial relations with the greater sister Association. . . ."[3] The ALA unofficially also tried to smooth over the troubled areas. Two prominent members of the Association addressed SLA at its first

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Council, December 29, 1928.

[2][Editorial], Special Libraries, XX (May-June, 1929), 177.

[3]Speech made by Acting President Angus Fletcher, Special Libraries, XX (May-June, 1929), 160-161.

general session. R. R. Bowker expressed the hope that there would be no rift between the organizations. Frank P. Hill endorsed Bowker's remarks, and also told SLA it should not let ALA hinder its programs. Fortunately, the conciliatory attitude of SLA's leadership helped to prevent any open breach between the two groups. However, the Council's action in establishing a section in direct competition with SLA was unfortunate.[1] It helped foster the growing impression within SLA that its sister organization was more interested in gaining members than coexisting peacefully and without rivalry.

World Congress in Rome

Immediately following the 1929 ALA conference in Washington, a group of fifteen delegates sailed to Rome for the World Congress of Libraries and Bibliography. Among the representatives were Carl H. Milam, Herbert Putnam, Arthur Bostwick, and Andrew Keogh. The Congress, held June 13-19, attracted 1,200 people from eighteen countries. Although there had been a number of international library meetings before, this was considered to be the first official meeting of its kind. By means of sixteen sections, the Congress tried to consider all international aspects of library and bibliographical work.

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[1]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LVI (June 1, 1931), 484.

One of the most significant addresses was by Herbert Putnam; he called for establishment of international systems of libraries for the sharing of library resources. A welcome speech was given by Benito Mussolini, Premier of Italy, which Library Journal called admirable in scope.[1] A further highlight was the visit of Pope Pius XI, who "left his throne and his pontifical aloofness to mingle with his fellow librarians."[2] Before the close of the Congress, the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA) was formed. The general hope was that the new organization would be another bond in the interest of world peace.[3]

Problems in Library Education

The year 1929 also saw the surfacing of tension between two of the major organizations concerned with library education. The two groups were the Board of Education for Librarianship and the Association of American Library Schools.[4] The AALS had been formed in 1915 as an

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[1]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LIV (September 1, 1929), 714.

[2]Ibid. Prior to his election as Pope, he had served as Librarian of the Ambrosian Library and the Vatican Library.

[3]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LIV (December 15, 1929), 1028.

[4]Hereafter, the Association of American Library Schools will be referred to as AALS.

organization of professional people directly concerned with library education. It had met with immediate criticism because there was already a Professional Training Section and a Library School Round Table in existence to discuss the issues and problems of library education. However, these groups were open to all members of ALA, which meant the possibility of questions being decided by people who were not directly connected with the training of librarians. Therefore, AALS limited its membership to people having positions in library schools. Antagonism between AALS and the Board of Education was not new, but the criticism of the Board in 1929 was especially strong. At AALS's meeting in May, Phineas L. Windsor presented some of the objections the Association had to the Board. According to Windsor, these were the major problems between the two organizations:

(1) The lack of background in library education on the part of the Board's members prevented their understanding the problems of the library schools.

(2) Decisions were made by the Board of Education without any prior consultation with the library schools.

(3) Library schools were not given enough time to discuss major recommendations before the Board of Education referred then to the

Council for approval.

(4) The Board of Education advised the Council on the granting of funds for library education. This gave the Board an unfair advantage, since the schools felt they could not disagree and still obtain funds. According to the schools, the result was a standardization and regimentation which left no room for experimentation.

(5) In spite of the expenditure of large sums of money the Board of Education had accomplished little for the benefit of teaching. The preparation of a few textbooks had been the sole activity in this area.[1]

For its part, the Board recognized some of its weaknesses. The Fifth Annual Report of the Board declared a need to establish and maintain a close relationship with the library schools. The report also pointed out the need to revise the minimum standards used in evaluating the schools. As library education was improved, new goals had to be established in order to prevent stagnation in the profession.[2]

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[1]Association of American Library Schools, Minutes of Meeting, May, 1929.

[2]Fifth Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship (Chicago: American Library Association, 1929), p. 2.

Problems between the Board and AALS continued into 1930. The Activities Committee of ALA, established to review all aspects of the Association, commented on the strained relationship in a 1930 report:

> Anyone who has attended a meeting of the AALS cannot fail to be impressed by its evident antagonism towards the Board.[1]

At the end of the year the Activities Committee again referred to the problem. During the Midwinter meeting, Louis R. Wilson of the University of North Carolina spoke for the Activities Committee when he criticized both groups. He said there was "too great an air of secrecy" over library education. Nothing could be gained by this, according to Wilson, except continued misunderstanding.[2] Conditions deteriorated to the point where a special committee was appointed to improve relations between the two groups. At a meeting of this committee on June 24, 1930, there was a very frank discussion of the library school's attitudes towards the Board. Dr. Arthur Bostwick of the St. Louis Public Library was particularly outspoken in the meeting. He said the Board's connection with the Carnegie Corporation in the granting of subsidies to

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[1] ALA, "Report of the Activities Committee on the Board of Education for Librarianship," Chicago, 1930. (Typewritten)

[2] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, December 28, 1930.

library schools was unfortunate. Since the Board then held the purse strings it was impossible for the schools to oppose Board policies and activities. Bostwick said the Board was "held in awe by the schools which fear they will incur loss of subsidy" if they criticized any of the Board's actions.[1] Bostwick's comments were echoed by other leaders in library education.

The Activities Committee found in its survey that more criticism was directed towards library education than any other activity of ALA.[2] Since the Board of Education was in effective control of library education, it naturally bore the brunt of the blame. The Activities Committee decided there was no need to limit the powers of the Board, although the Committee agreed there was a basis for the complaints.[3] The Committee in its far-ranging report also commented on the relationship between ALA Headquarters staff and the membership. The comments were prefaced by complimentary remarks about the Executive Secretary and his staff. Yet the Committee reported a growing membership criticism of Headquarters. The report stated that the criticism was due to a lack of understanding of the

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[1] *Memorandum from Anita Hostetter in AALS files* in ALA archives, undated. (Typewritten)

[2] "A.L.A. Activities Committee Report," ALA Bulletin, XXIV (December, 1930), 621.

[3] Ibid., 628.

problems of librarians. "It verges at times upon intolerance and a self-sufficiency which would not seem to be warranted," according to the Committee. The report suggested that "a little more diplomacy" on the parts of both Headquarters and the membership would be desirable.[1] Perhaps it was especially appropriate that the Activities Committee commented so frankly and critically on the Headquarters. The Committee had its origin in the letter John Cotton Dana wrote to the Executive Board in December, 1927, which was discussed previously.[2] Headquarters had long been a special target of Dana, for he saw little to praise and much to criticize.

Library education in 1929 was facing an economic problem as well as internal strife. The profession had been used to an ever-increasing demand for the graduates of its schools. The rapid growth in public libraries had meant increases in the library staffs as well. The raising of educational standards had resulted in huge demands for school and academic librarians. But as with other professions such as teaching, the situation changed drastically early in 1929. The economic law of supply and demand caught up with librarians, and many graduates were without positions. Louis Shores, Librarian of Fisk

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[1] Ibid., 609.

[2] Ibid., 676.

University, saw the problem before it had grown full-bloom. He suggested a course of action similar to that taken by the trade guilds of the Middle Ages. This was to limit the number of people who could enter a profession. The number would be based on probable need. The limit protected the people already in the profession, but it also prevented the training for jobs which did not exist. Shores wrote that the profession was not justified in allowing young people to prepare for positions which they could probably never fill. He called on the library profession to establish the necessary machinery to maintain a balance before it was too late. Maximum enrollment in each accredited library school would be fixed by a committee of ALA. The result would be to raise the standards, as well as to level off the supply of librarians. The library profession, according to Shores, should "establish a precedent for the entire economic world."[1] However, the profession did not respond to Shores' suggestion. The Board of Education for Librarianship did discourage the establishment of some new library schools, but this policy was in effect before Shores' article was published.[2]

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[1]Louis Shores, "Limiting the Library School Output," Library Journal, LIV (January 15, 1929), 65.

[2]"Board of Education for Librarianship," a typewritten manuscript, 1930. The Board discouraged the founding of library schools at the University of Tulsa, Virginia College, and Ohio University.

Publishing

The Activities Committee found less to criticize with the publishing program of the Association. For the most part, publishing was so popular with the profession because the program helped to make commercially unfeasible publications available to libraries. At this time all publishing activities were under the direction of an Editorial Committee. This Committee was charged with the responsibility for providing the overall direction for the program. As the Activities Committee pointed out, publishing was somewhat haphazard. There was a lack of comprehensive planning for the activities. But with the exception of a few unsuccessful textbooks and general tracts, most of the books and materials were well received. The publishing of the Association's periodicals remained a problem, however. The Booklist was still not self-sustaining, although it had been published since 1905. A more important criticism related to its role as a book selection tool. Librarians felt that its main weakness was its time lag in reviewing new books.[1] In answer to this criticism, the staff of Booklist saw the weakness as inherent in this type of publication. They were forced to wait until publishers supplied them with the books.

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[1]"A.L.A. Activities Committee Report," ALA Bulletin, XXIV (December, 1930), 609.

Furthermore, the periodical depended on the Library of Congress to supply the cataloging information which was included with the review. This also meant a delay for most books. The Committee's view, however, was that these problems were not insurmountable. Changes were recommended which would reduce the length of delay.[1] The Editorial Committee had plans for other developments which were rather ambitious in view of the depressed economic conditions. The first involved a new periodical devoted to the reviewing of major reference works. This publication, the Subscription Books Bulletin, first appeared in January, 1930. Although it shared the tendency of The Booklist of reviewing books later than librarians would have preferred, the new periodical was well-received. The second venture was the successful culmination of almost five years of effort to found a journal of research and discussion. In 1926 the Librarian of Johns Hopkins University, M. Llewellyn Raney, had proposed an expansion of the ALA Bulletin.[2] He wanted to see it become a journal of discussion which would welcome the serious papers of scholars. The Editorial Committee investigated the practices of learned societies and found that news

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[1] Ibid., 633.

[2] "The Library Quarterly," ALA Bulletin, XXIV (October, 1930), 600.

publications were almost always completely divorced from scholarly journals. It thus seemed unwise to enlarge the scope of the ALA Bulletin to include the type of material which Raney had in mind. The Editorial Committee requested the appointment of another committee to determine the feasibility of publishing a separate scholarly periodical. This was done, and a Committee on the Journal of Discussion reported at least initial success. A survey had indicated enough interest in the profession to make the journal successful.[1] As plans developed, it appeared to be very desirable to committee members to have the journal connected with a prominent library school. The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago seemed to be the most logical choice and so University officials were approached. They indicated a tentative willingness to accept the responsibility but asked for assurance of financial support. This support was beyond the ability of ALA to provide. In March, 1930, Dr. Francis Keppel of the Carnegie Corporation was contacted for financial assistance. Keppel supported the plan, and a grant of $25,000 was provided by the Corporation.[2] In January, 1931, the journal of discussion, under the name Library

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Council, December 28, 1928.

[2] ALA, Papers and Proceedings of the 1930 ALA Conference (Chicago: ALA, 1930), p. 373.

Quarterly, made its first appearance. "Rather disappointing" was the sour comment of a Library Journal editorial; it added that the new periodical contained articles which "would be welcome in any of the existing periodicals." In summary, the Library Quarterly was "just another library periodical of the common, ordinary, or garden sort," according to the pioneer in the field.[1]

Financial Problems

The effects of the depression were very visible in 1931. Libraries throughout the country reported drastic cuts in service, personnel, and appropriations. For example, employees of Chicago Public Library were given a two week vacation without pay. In addition, the library halted the purchasing of books on the order of its library board.[2] Other public libraries, such as Toledo, Cincinnati, and Pasadena, tried to meet their reduced budgets by cutting library hours or eliminating clerical positions. The ALA also encountered the economic problems suffered by most libraries. Income dropped because of the failure of members to pay their dues. By March 1, over 2,200 members were in arrears. Yet, at the same time, discussions were held in regard to raising the dues to improve the quality

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[1] [Editorial], Library Journal, LVI (February 1, 1931), 124.

[2] Chicago Tribune, July 18, 1931, p. 1.

of the ALA Bulletin.[1] It appeared as if the leadership at Headquarters was very much out of touch with the membership. An earlier statement by a member seemed especially appropriate now: the organization had a "Tiffany attitude" when it really should have a "Macy attitude."[2] Asa Don Dickinson of the University of Pennsylvania wrote of ALA's "expensive pursuit of what appears to us as rather unsubstantial moonbeams." He suggested it might be appropriate to change the Association's motto to "Busy Being Bigger."[3] In January, 1931, the Executive Board announced that $20,000 had to be raised immediately in order to continue some of the most important activities. The areas affected by the deficit were library extension, education for librarianship, personnel service, and adult education.[4] Part of the problem could be traced to the nature of the Carnegie Corporation gift of 1926. At that time the Corporation stated it would decrease and eventually discontinue its grants to the Association. In 1931 the grant was only $15,000 and was to cease almost

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[1]"Notes from New Haven," ALA Bulletin, XXV (July, 1931), 369.

[2]"A.L.A. Activities Committee Report," ALA Bulletin, XXIV (December, 1930), 676.

[3]Asa Don Dickinson, letter to editor, Library Journal, LVI (June 15, 1931), 549.

[4]"The President Asks Your Support," ALA Bulletin, XXV (January, 1931), 3.

completely by October 1.[1] The Association had not been able to replace the Carnegie grants with similar gifts from other sources. The income from outside sources was decreasing while expenditures were steadily rising.

Ironically, while ALA was quite severely feeling the economic strain, it was at the same time nearing the completion of its endowment fund drive. When the Carnegie Corporation gave the Association $1,000,000 for the endowment fund in 1926, there had been an assurance of more money in the future. This additional money, however, was conditional on the Association matching the amount. It had been announced that if the Association could raise $1,000,000 on its own, an "educational foundation" would add an equal amount. Everyone knew this promise came from the Carnegie Corporation, but the Corporation did not want it stated publicly. In figuring the matching money, the Corporation allowed the Association to count new memberships at a capitalized value of twenty to one. This meant such funds were worth twenty times their dollar value in meeting the goal. Thus, in January, 1931, when the Executive Board stated $20,000 was needed immediately, the endowment fund was lacking $450,000. However, at the capitalized value allowed, the deficit was actually only

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[1]"A.L.A. Faces Serious Situation," Library Journal, LVI (February 1, 1931), 136.

$22,500.[1] So the money asked for by the Executive Board would serve the double purpose of meeting current needs as well as helping to reach the goal of the endowment fund. Success was achieved at the New Haven Conference of ALA in June, 1931. There it was announced the fund needed only $3,300 to complete the $1,000,000. The result was an over-subscription from the floor of the convention.[2] This over-subscription was a remarkable achievement for any organization during the depression, even considering the generous capitalization feature offered by the Carnegie Corporation. It is necessary to add that the Corporation did not respond quite as expected by the Association. When notified of the completion of the fund drive, the Corporation's answer was alarmingly nonchalant. It would, as a first step:

> . . . be glad to receive from the Association a statement of a program upon which the corporation may base its consideration of further grants for the general purposes of the association.[3]

This resulted in a hurried re-evaluation by the Association of all current and proposed activities.[4] Fortunately, the

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[1]"Communication from the Executive Board to the Members of the A.L.A.," June 25, 1931. (Mimeographed)

[2]"Endowment Fund Passes the Goal," ALA Bulletin, XXV (July, 1931), 366.

[3]"A.L.A. News," ALA Bulletin, XXV (December, 1931), 714.

[4]"Council to Discuss Program Requested by Carnegie Corporation," ALA Bulletin, XXV (December, 1931), 714.

statement satisfied the Carnegie Corporation. The second grant of $1,000,000 was announced to the membership in April, 1932.

New Haven Conference, 1931

The New Haven Conference was noteworthy for reasons other than reaching the endowment goal. The meetings attracted a total of 3,225 registrants, by far the largest gathering in ALA history. Considering the economic conditions throughout the country, such an attendance record was outstanding. The main attraction for librarians at the conference was the new Sterling Library at Yale University. This was considered to be a landmark in library architecture. An unusual feature of the conference was the use of Yale dormitories instead of hotels. The conference was also the first in which federal aid to libraries was proposed in concrete form. In a move which seemed to be poorly timed, the Council asked Congress to appropriate $100,000,000 for libraries over a ten year period. The money was to be distributed to the states in proportion to the rural population. A federal library commission would be established to supervise the state work. The fund's purpose would be to equalize and stimulate funding for rural public library service.[1] Given

[1]"Notes from New Haven," ALA Bulletin, XXV (July, 1931), 368.

the economic circumstances of the country, it seemed to many people to be a very inappropriate time to introduce the subject. Library Journal noted that such huge commitments to national expenditures could not be expected in view of the economic crisis.[1] More careful plans were drawn up during the month of September, but were abruptly postponed in December. At that time President Roosevelt made a plea to delay all such broad and expensive plans until much later.[2] Although this initial action met with an early defeat, it is interesting to note that later successful programs embodied these two major principles: a library agency and federal aid based on rural population.

Deaths of Library Pioneers

On December 26, 1931, the library profession was saddened to learn of the death of Melvil Dewey. It is true he had ceased to be active in the profession many years previously. The many legends associated with Dewey, however, kept the memories of his accomplishments fresh in the minds of librarians. One year previous to his death his fertile mind had proposed a new plan involving librarians and his Lake Placid Club. He announced his desire to

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, LVI (August, 1931), 642.

[2]"A.L.A. News," ALA Bulletin, XXV (December, 1931), 714.

build a retirement home for librarians in the Adirondacks of New York. The "library colony" would also serve as a vacation area for librarians. Although Library Journal spoke rather disparagingly, Dewey still had hopes for its eventual construction.[1] Some of the opposition to the plan probably lingered from the problems which developed over the Lake Placid Club. Since it was developed as a club and not a hotel, Dewey could apply his own stringent rules as to admission of guests. This gave rise to the belief that Dewey was anti-semetic, a belief which was probably accurate. It is certainly true that the Lake Placid Club, of which Dewey was the founder and leader, was anti-semetic in its restrictions.[2] This problem, in addition to the doubt as to whether librarians really should vacation together, resulted in the permanent postponement of the plans for a librarian's colony.

In the past Dewey had been well known for his ability to succeed in ventures in spite of considerable resistence. In July, 1931, an old friend had written Dewey to recall how things had once been in the Association:

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[1]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LV (November 1, 1930), 870.

[2]See the New York Times, January 21, 1905, p. 5, for a discussion of the Club's restrictions.

> I often think over with renewed courage how often you put over matters in the old days despite the opposition--when you held the cards, as you usually did.[1]

Dewey was, of course, tremendously important during the early days of ALA. He was a man of great ability and personal drive. He was also capable of using many techniques in achieving his goals. The methods used sometimes led to personal antagonism between Dewey and his colleagues. His ambition and gigantic ego often caused others to dislike him. Never one to hide his own accomplishments, Dewey was particularly possessive towards ALA and Library Journal. As the years passed by he became even less inclined to share with others credit for founding them. Thus he could write quite sincerely just two weeks before his death that he had in 1876 established ALA, the American Metric Bureau, the Spelling Reform Association, three periodicals, and the Library Bureau. As for ALA, according to Dewey, it was his own "burning faith and optimism [which] kept the tredmil turning."[2] Similarly, Library Journal owed its continued existence to Dewey:

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[1]Letter, Ernest C. Cushing to Dewey, July 15, 1931.

[2]Circular letter to "a fu personal frends" from Dewey, December 10, 1931.

> Our monthli Librari Journal to which was given 5 strenuus years, twys in anser to its SOS when the publisher anounst its suspension, was kept alive by great personal sacrifys, til it has gone on to 56 stout volumes.[1]

Such inaccurate and immodest claims might tend to reduce one's opinion of Dewey, but the fact remains that Dewey was extremely influential throughout his active association with ALA. Whether in committees or in official capacity, his hands were very much at the helm. If he did not accomplish as much as he thought in his later years, he at least accomplished more than any other man during the early history of the Association.[2] Even in retirement his influence was considerable. His presence at a meeting could almost guarantee a capacity crowd. His speaking ability was well known and he was justly famous for his ability to persuade others to his way of thinking. This is perhaps best illustrated in a statement made by a man who had been a member of the Board of Regents of New York at the time when Dewey was its secretary. St. Clair McKelway said Dewey could introduce a subject to the Board and have it adopted unanimously. One month later Dewey would ask to have the matter reconsidered. He would then present the opposite point of view, convince the Board it

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Melvil Dewey," Library Journal, LVI (February 1, 1932), 153.

was the only possible policy, and have the new view adopted unanimously. According to McKelway, this happened many times when Dewey was secretary of the Board of Regents.[1]

In November, 1933, Richard R. Bowker died at Salem, Massachusetts. He was a publisher rather than a librarian. Yet he had been one of the most stabilizing influences within ALA since its establishment.[2] He was proud of the part he played in the formation of the organization, although he was less inclined to talk and write about it than was Dewey. It was only when anyone suggested that Library Journal was a child of ALA that Bowker became incensed. The result invariably would be an editorial in Library Journal, setting the record straight on the correct genesis. He seemed less concerned with Dewey's version of who first thought of the idea of a national association of librarians. Perhaps it was because there was no way of proving who was the first to suggest it. Perhaps it was because it did not really matter to Bowker. His role in ALA was essentially behind the scenes, because he never allowed his name to be nominated for any of the offices. Yet through the Council and through committees,

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[1]Frank P. Hill, "Melvil Dewey," Library Journal, LVII (February 1, 1932), 153.

[2]Ernest C. Richardson, "Richard Rogers Bowker," ALA Bulletin, XXVIII (January, 1934), 33.

he was able to exert considerable influence in the Association and in the library world. Librarians benefited from his political work, too. He was actively concerned with postal reform, copyright, and tariff reform.[1] Thus the death of Bowker was a serious blow to librarianship, and to ALA in particular.

Depression Problems

The continuing depression of the country caused financial problems for the Association. In October, 1932, President Harry M. Lydenberg reported that over 3,000 members had failed to pay their dues.[2] In addition, many of the sustaining members who had pledged support in the endowment fund campaign failed to make their payments. This resulted in a $15,000 deficit, although there was some hope the financial picture might improve later in the year. The immediate result of the loss of income was a budget cut at Headquarters. A cut of ten per cent in the salaries of the staff for the last six months of 1932 was announced in July. This was in addition to a previous three per cent cut effected by closing the offices on Saturdays.[3] To make

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "A.L.A. Regional Conference," Library Journal, LVI (November 15, 1932), 949.

[3] "A.L.A. Salaries Cut," Library Journal, LVI (August, 1932), 660.

matters worse, the Association's major benefactor issued a report which clearly showed its future financial support to ALA was being questioned. The Carnegie Corporation's Annual Report for 1930-31 indicated the belief of the Corporation's officers that its subsidation of ALA may have been a mistake. It stated:

> Organizations, like men and trees, grow best if they develop according to natural laws. The present activities and development of the American Library Association may well have surpassed the limits of prudence, and may perhaps have overlooked important and even vital aspects of its necessary work. If so, the present achievement may possibly be paid for in retarded future growth.

This was the first instance of public criticism of the activities of the Association by the Corporation. It was indeed a serious threat to the funding of special programs, where ALA could often count on the Corporation to provide the financing. The report implied the need for a careful, mature program of development if any future aid were to be forthcoming.

The oversupply of librarians during the depression led to frequent suggestions and occasional demands for a limit on the output of the accredited library schools.[1] A statement in 1932 by the chairman of the Board of Education for Librarianship reminded the profession that it could not place all of the blame on the economic upheaval:

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[1]ALA, Minutes of the Council, December 30, 1931.

> Two contributing factors are the rapid expansion of training agencies, particularly summer courses, and increased enrollment in most library schools.

This statement urged library schools to reduce their enrollments by "a more rigid scrutiny of applicants."[1] Dr. William Williamson, Dean of the Library School at Columbia University, saw the eventual need for compulsory enrollment curbs if the economic problems continued. He proposed a "selective draft" of highly qualified students from which the library schools could choose, similar to the system used by the armed forces. A general examining board would determine the most qualified students but would not assign students to particular schools. Students would be free to select the school they wished to attend. Schools would be allowed to add more qualifications for entrance should this be desired. Although widely discussed, these recommendations were not considered by the Board of Education for Librarianship.[2]

The Director of the University of California School of Librarianship, Sydney B. Mitchell, also offered suggestions for limiting the output of library schools. He pointed out that there were a number of schools

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[1]James Ingersoll Wyer, "Oversupply Among Librarians," ALA Bulletin, XXVI (October, 1932), 753.

[2]Quoted in "Editorials," Library Journal, LVII (October 15, 1932), 856-57.

which probably should never have been born, "but being in existence, they share the human dislike of committing suicide." He suggested the Board of Education consider paying subsidies to schools willing to limit their enrollment. This probably would be necessary since the natural desire of the schools was to raise income by increasing enrollment. He also suggested that the Board of Education should discourage the existence of summer schools, since the quality of the people attending was not usually very good.[1] Other suggestions followed a series of conferences held during the spring of 1931. These were held at the request of the Carnegie Corporation. The meetings brought out the fact that the Board of Education had been discouraging the establishment of new library schools. The Board had refused to accredit the School of Library Science at the University of Buffalo. It had withheld approval of the school at Syracuse University until academic and administrative conditions were improved there. The Board had placed certain restrictions on the operations of the Chautauqua School of Librarianship. When there was a proposal for another library school in the city of New York, the Board argued that the area was already too well supplied with librarians. The participants, however,

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[1]Sydney B. Mitchell, "Ways and Means of Limiting Library School Output," ALA Bulletin, XXVI (July, 1932), 425.

generally saw the need for further curbs in order to achieve a balance between the supply and the demand for librarians.

In spite of the Board of Education's policy of discouragement to new library schools, an opposite course was pursued on the West Coast. The Los Angeles Public Library Training School had closed its doors when the 1932 class graduated. This action left only one library school in southern California, the unaccredited Riverside Library School. The employment picture at the time indicated that one school was probably sufficient to supply the demand for librarians for the immediate future. Led primarily by the alumni of the Los Angeles Public Library Training School, however, there was a determined effort to establish a new school in the area. This effort culminated in a pitched battle at a meeting of the Southern California Library Association on November 19, 1932. After what the Library Journal called a "battle royal," this Association voted in favor of establishing another library school.[1] Opposition was led by Charles F. Woods of the Riverside Library School on the basis of the oversupply of librarians. He reminded those present that the California Library Association had already gone on record as being opposed to another library school in southern California. But the majority view was

[1] Library Journal, LVI (December 15, 1932), 1044.

that once the depression was over there would be a strong need for another school. In response to this expression, and in opposition to Board of Education policy, the University of Southern California began offering library science courses during its summer sessions.[1]

The repudiation of the administration of Herbert Hoover in the landslide victory of Franklin Roosevelt in 1932 showed also in the change of public attitude. Within a month of Roosevelt's inaugural address Library Journal noted a new atmosphere of confidence in the country, replacing the fear and uneasiness so evident before. This new feeling was in response to the sense of vigor and confidence which seemed to permeate the new administration. It was also a result of the rapid enactment of recovery legislation aimed at stimulating business and putting men back to work. While the Hoover administration had not really had a laissez faire attitude towards the depression, to many people it seemed to have. This contributed to the feeling of hopelessness which was so prevalent throughout the nation in 1932. Yet the new spirit evident in April, 1933, was based largely on expected results and changes. It was still too early for libraries to be affected

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[1]*The Board of Education for Librarianship agreed*, however, that "when normal employment conditions return" there would be a need for an accredited library school in Los Angeles. See "Southern California Library School," Library Journal, LVIII (April 1, 1933), 318.

directly. For example, the placement problem of graduates was still acute. Almost 1,200 unemployed librarians were looking for positions during the spring. The 1933 graduating classes added 1,200 more prospective librarians to the oversupply.[1] At the same time there was still some budget cutting, reduction of services, and general retrenchment of libraries throughout the country. Income of ALA continued the downward plunge which had been evident since 1930. The budget of 1926 had almost reached $400,000; in 1933, the expenditures had been pared to $232,000.[2] Thus the improvement in morale alluded to by Library Journal was based more on the promise of the future than on actual changes in economic conditions.

The relief work for which the first part of Roosevelt's administration is famous began in 1933. It was not, however, until 1934 that the real thrust of the activity developed. As the so-called "alphabet agencies" started to function, federal assistance in its many forms trickled down to the local level. These agencies, such as the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, the Civil Works Administration, the Civil Works Service, and the Emergency Education Program channeled money into areas

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[1] "Employment Prospects for 1933," ALA Bulletin, XXVII (February, 1933), 103.

[2] "Finances of the Association," ALA Bulletin, XXVIII (December, 1934), 860.

especially hard hit by poverty and unemployment. Projects of many types were utilized in an effort to raise the level of employment.[1] In a number of states there were studies of library service and educational opportunities created for this purpose. Special collections, such as in art and music, were established in libraries with the assistance of artists and musicians. During the year hundreds of libraries were cleaned, painted, repaired, and in some cases enlarged. Unskilled workers were used to repair books to an extent never before possible. Unemployed journalists were used to prepare library publicity. Thousands of persons were given at least temporary positions in libraries. Several hundred unemployed librarians found professional work through the variety of positions available.[2] Nevertheless, the financial condition of libraries in general remained extremely poor. Book budgets were still being reduced, and in some communities the public library received no book budget at all. Salary cuts of fifty per cent were not unusual. In view of the wholesale dismissal of employees, the remaining librarians felt that even half of a salary was better than no salary at all. Budget cuts meant reduced hours of

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[1]Ida Faye Wright, "Would There Have Been?", ALA Bulletin, XXVIII (March, 1934), 135.

[2]Carl H. Milam, "Libraries and the Emergency," ALA Bulletin, XXVIII (June, 1934), 281.

service for most libraries. Some branches, stations, and school libraries were closed in an effort to reduce expenditures. These were all sharp indications that prosperity had not yet arrived for most libraries.

The long-awaited improvement in conditions for libraries began in 1935.[1] The relief and recovery projects mentioned previously helped to remove many librarians from the ranks of the unemployed. In March, 1935, an estimate by the ALA Subcommittee on Unemployment showed that between 1,300 and 1,700 librarians were looking for positions. In July, 1933, the figure had almost reached 2,500 unemployed, so the improvement was substantial.[2] In addition to this, the financial condition of libraries was beginning to improve enough so the salary situation was not as bleak as it had been. By 1935, seventy libraries reported that they had partially or fully restored salaries to their previous levels.[3] The improved economic conditions also affected ALA's financial situation. Income was still far below the level of pre-depression years, of course, but there were indications that the downward trend of income

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[1]"Business Review," New International Yearbook, 1935, p. 108.

[2]Rebecca Rankin, "Unemployment Among Librarians," ALA Bulletin, XXIX (March, 1935), 148.

[3]"Midwinter Brevities," ALA Bulletin, XXIX (January, 1935), 10.

had ceased. The Treasurer reported the 1935 income at $220,500, compared to $250,000 in 1931. His report optimistically predicted that some revenues would be increased during 1935, resulting in a balanced budget.[1]

It was perhaps fitting that at a time when the Association was facing financial problems, it was also enduring a crisis in internal allegiance. Reduced library budgets had forced librarians to review their priorities, to take stock of what was on hand, and to formulate new goals. This process also seemed to be applied to the profession and its major organization. Discontent within ALA was definitely on the increase. Negative expressions over the directions taken by the Association were frequent and harsh.[2] The question of federal aid to libraries was a particularly divisive one, and many members found the organization's open courting of this money especially galling.[3] It was not only a matter of concern over federal control, but also dislike of a professional organization becoming involved in politics. Polarization of the membership over this issue promoted discontent. This in turn encouraged a more independent attitude and the idea

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[1]R. E. Dooley, "Financial Statement," ALA Bulletin, XXXV (June, 1935), 305.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 24, 1935.

[3]"Editorial Forum," Library Journal, LX (August, 1935), 606.

of separation. At least one organization openly discussed withdrawing from ALA and charting a course of its own.[1] Other regional organizations joined in with expressions of independence which demonstrated the dissatisfaction within ALA. The warnings of Ralph Shaw helped to restore a sense of calm, if not a renewal of allegiance to the Association. Shaw cautioned that the profession would only be weakened further by what he called a "multiplicity of impotent, non-representative societies."[2] His solution to the problem was to suggest the following structural changes: (1) to decentralize the Association by building strong local and regional subdivisions; and (2) to provide for a professional classification of membership based on ability and achievement. Although seeming to be of considerable merit, Shaw's proposal failed to receive any substantial support in the profession.

The problem within the Association went beyond a concern over the structure. There was also a growing disenchantment with the organization itself. Perhaps this was in part the natural result of the general unhappiness and dissatisfaction of the times. But it would also appear that the self-examination which came after the failure of

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[1]Ralph R. Shaw, "The American Library Association--Today and Tomorrow," ALA Bulletin, XXIX (August, 1935), 483.

[2]Ibid.

the Enlarged Program had opened the doors to extensive criticism. The unhappiness of the membership then was primarily over the view that the leadership was going beyond the wishes of its constituency. This problem had surfaced again on the issue of federal aid. While the majority of the membership was probably behind the leadership's request, there was a sizable and vocal minority which protested strongly.[1] Another issue which caused dissension was the failure to restrict the output of the library schools. During a time when hundreds of qualified librarians could not obtain jobs, every graduation ceremony added to the oversupply. The revelation that at least twenty per cent of the graduates had physical and personality difficulties which would make them difficult to place even in normal times contributed to the strong feeling the library schools could not be expected to exert the needed self-control.[2] The Board of Education for Librarianship, with some authority over library education, could probably have affected the output if it had chosen to do so. This it did not do. Instead, it continued its policy of discouraging the establishment of new schools. This policy did little to alleviate the immediate problem

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[1]"Resolution United Association," Library Journal, LX (August, 1935), 606.

[2]Rebecca Rankin, "Unemployment Among Librarians," ALA Bulletin, XXXV (March, 1935), 148.

of the oversupply of librarians. It did nothing towards satisfying the demands of unemployed librarians. Finally, one must take into consideration the long-felt estrangement between the Headquarter bureaucracy and a sizable proportion of the membership. This was not so much a matter of hostility as a simple feeling that the two had very little in common. The Activities Committee had noted in 1930 an almost total lack of rapport between Headquarters and members. The Committee criticized the Headquarters staff for failing to try to understand the problems of librarians.[1] Five years later the situation seemed to be even worse. Ralph Shaw had noted the disturbing lack of allegiance to the professional organization.[2] Others wrote to the editors of library periodicals to voice their complaints. Yet there seemed to be no response to this insistent call for a change.

Proposal for Federal Aid

The widely criticized proposal for federal aid to libraries was not actually formulated until 1935, during the Midwinter conference in Chicago. The idea had previously been discussed on many occasions, and approved by several groups at different times. The Committee on

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[1]"A.L.A. Activities Committee Report," ALA Bulletin, XXIV (December, 1930), 609.

[2]Shaw, op. cit., 483.

Library Extension was the first ALA group to advocate such aid.[1] It passed a resolution in 1929 calling for federal assistance to libraries. The Council approved the principle of federal aid on the following occasions: December, 1930; June, 1931; June, 1934; and December, 1934. Opposition on these occasions had been minimal or non-existent.[2] As finally approved by the Council there were two important features which involved the federal government. First, it was proposed that a national library agency would be established. This was a basic part of the National Plan for Libraries which had been approved in 1934. The National Plan called for the following improvements in library service:

(1) Federation and coordination of public libraries into systems encompassing a fairly large geographical area.

(2) Provision for total state library service by each state government.

(3) State allocations to local units in order to provide at least a minimum level of library service to everyone.

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[1]Clarence B. Lester, "The Need for Federal Aid," Library Journal, LX (February 1, 1935), 106.

[2]Charles H. Compton, "Answers to Questions on Federal Participation in Library Development," Library Journal, LIX (May 1, 1935), 366.

(4) Coordination of library activity through the establishment of a federal library agency.

(5) Certification of librarians by the individual states.

(6) Provision for federal aid to equalize library facilities throughout the country.[1]

The national library agency was to be in the Office of Education. There had been some sentiment for its location in the Library of Congress, but this was not supported by the Library.[2]

The second feature of federal participation proposed was federal aid to libraries. The resolution passed by the Council was worded so as to limit the amount of governmental interference. Programs for library development would be submitted by each state to the library agency. These programs would carefully outline the need for money and the plans for allocating the funds once received. One-half of the federal aid would be distributed according to need, as set forth in these programs. The remaining one-half of the fund would be distributed to the states on the basis of population. Council members voted

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[1]"A National Plan for Libraries," ALA Bulletin, XXIX (February, 1935), 91.

[2]Carl H. Milam, "Secretary's Report," ALA Bulletin, IXXX (June, 1935), 299.

to ask for federal support in the amount of $50,000,000 to $100,000,000.[1] These figures were arrived at by using the recommended $1.00 per capita minimum expenditure, and took into consideration local and state support. It was recognized by the Council members that such federal support would not be immediately forthcoming. Rather, the figures were to be used as a basis for discussion in Congress. A lower level would eventually be accepted as a compromise. At the same time the Council authorized the officers of the Association to request additional amounts of money from the public works fund.[2] This money was to be used for the acquisition of building sites for public libraries and for the improvement of present library buildings. In general, the proposal was far-reaching, well-developed, and carefully constructed. It was in part a response to the unpleasant problem of federal controls attached to federal money. The resolution carefully confined any participation by the federal government to reviewing and selecting from plans prepared by state library agencies. It presupposed that the government would accept such a passive role in dispensing its funds.

The immediate result of this proposal was failure,

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[1]"Will Seek $50,000,000-$100,000,000 Federal Support," ALA Bulletin, XXXV (January, 1935), 40.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 24, 1935.

although at least a long term goal was achieved. Since 1929 ALA conferences had been the scene of discussions centering around the need for a federal library agency. While many librarians objected to federal aid, there was almost no objection to the agency. It was largely through the efforts of Forrest B. Spaulding that Congress rather reluctantly approved the bill creating the agency.[1] The Commissioner of Education had included an item of $40,000 in the 1936-37 budget request for the library agency. He appeared before a House subcommittee in support of the item. However, in spite of favorable reaction in the subcommittee, the item was dropped by the Director of the Budget. Efforts by the subcommittee to restore the allocation were unsuccessful in the House and so the campaign moved over to the Senate. Acting as ALA's Washington representative, Spaulding almost single-handedly rescued the library agency from oblivion. Spaulding met with both senators and representatives repeatedly in order to secure a reconsideration of the agency item. He was eventually successful in his efforts. As passed by Congress, the budget provided for a first year appropriation of $25,000. This was a reduction of seventy per cent from the original request. Nevertheless, it was sufficient for

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[1]Spaulding was the Head Librarian of the Des Moines (Iowa) Public Library.

the agency, renamed the Library Division, to begin serving libraries.[1]

Discrimination Against Negroes

The selection of Richmond, Virginia as the 1936 conference site posed a new problem for ALA. The problem was a state law, general in the South, which forbade the mixing of white people with Negroes in meetings. The issue came to light in May, 1936, when Negro members of the Association received a letter from the local arrangements committee of Richmond. The letter expressed the hope that large numbers of Negro librarians would attend, but with a knowledge of the conditions they could expect to find in the city. These conditions included the following: Negroes could use the same hotel entrances as white delegates, but they could not obtain rooms or meals at these hotels; meetings which were held in conjunction with breakfasts, luncheons, or dinners were not open to Negroes; seating for Negroes at meetings would at all times be reserved in the right hand section.[2] The angry response of librarians to these conditions was limited to a few letters to the Library Journal. The ALA Bulletin took no

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[1]Carleton B. Joeckel, "The New Federal Library Agency," ALA Bulletin, XXX (July, 1936), 529.

[2][Editorial], Library Journal, LXI (May 15, 1936), 387.

note of the controversy until after the conference was over. The strongest criticism came from LeRoy Charles Merritt, student at the University of Chicago, who demanded to know why there had been no advance explanation of the situation to the membership. Why had only Negro librarians received the letter, Merritt asked? He believed an apology was due the entire membership from the officers of the Association. Merritt concluded:

> Let that explanation come forth in the contrite tone of an apology, and let it avoid the further error of seeking a justification of a situation that merits none.[1]

There was to be no apology and no explanation from the officers. The only periodical outside the profession to comment on the situation was the New Republic. An editorial published just before the Richmond conference said the meetings gave promise of being a "pleasant conference, except for those librarians who happen to be Negroes." The writer noted that the excuse for the discrimination was in the laws of Virginia, over which ALA had no control. A question concluded the editorial: Why should any civilized association, with Negro members, undertake to hold a convention in Virginia or any other state that makes such distinctions?"[2] In spite of the law, five months later the

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[1]Letter, Merritt to Editor, Library Journal, LXI (June 15, 1936), 467.

[2][Editorial], New Republic, LXXXVII (May 20, 1936), 30.

traditionally conservative American Legion met in Virginia under different circumstances; the group found it possible to invite Negro members to eat in the same banquet room as the white members.[1]

Action was taken at the Richmond conference to reduce the possibility of a repetition of this unfortunate discrimination. The Executive Board appointed a committee to formulate policy in this area. The Committee reported to the Council on December 28, 1936 with a group of recommendations. These recommendations, which were approved by the Council, were:

(1) That ALA's freedom of action should not be affected by an insistence upon equal treatment of all members;

(2) That no section of the country should be eliminated from consideration for the annual conference because of anticipated racial discrimination;

(3) That in all rooms and halls under the control of the Association for conference use, all members should be admitted in full equality.[2]

As can readily be seen, this position avoided the

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[1] New York Times, October 19, 1936, p. 1.

[2] ALA, Report of the Committee on Racial Discrimination, 1936. (Typewritten)

larger issue of racial discrimination in the South.[1] The report was simply concerned with equality in public rooms used by the conference. No concern was shown for what might happen elsewhere. Discrimination might well be experienced by members when obtaining rooms and meals.[2] Thus, while the report indicated some progress towards a guarantee of equal treatment, much remained to be done. This was by no means an adequate victory for civil rights in ALA, in the view of some of its members.

The issue was allowed to remain somewhat dormant for almost four years. Then, in 1940, a group of southern librarians petitioned the Council to reconsider the 1936 action which had eliminated southern cities from consideration as conference sites.[3] President Ralph Munn appointed a committee of two to make a special study of the problem and report back to the Council: Ernestine Rose of the New York Public Library and John Hall Jacobs of the New Orleans Public Library.[4] Later on, in a rather unusual move for a presiding officer, Munn appointed himself to serve on the committee also. Prior to its report in May, 1940, many

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[1]Edith N. Snow to Editor, Library Journal, LXI (June 15, 1936), 467.

[2]Henry H. Regnet to Editor, Library Journal, LXI (June 15, 1936), 467.

[3]ALA, Proceedings of Council, December 28, 1940.

[4]"A.L.A. News," ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (March, 1940), 208.

people indicated their unhappiness that the issue had even been allowed to be reconsidered. The discrimination seen at Richmond in 1936 was still fresh in the minds of some northern librarians. Furthermore, this question was raised at a time when the anti-semitic persecutions abroad were causing much protest in the United States. It seemed inappropriate that the Association could possible revert to what one librarian called the "older order of things."[1] In all fairness to the Southern librarians who requested the reconsideration, it must be pointed out they were not asking the Association to ignore the possibility of racial incidents. Instead, these members wanted the South to be given serious consideration in the selection of conference sites. They believed that ALA leaders had not previously pressed strenuously enough for equality of treatment. President Munn shared this opinion, as he stated to the Council at the Cincinnati Conference in 1940:

> From my own service on the Executive Board, I know that determined and forceful approaches have not been made; we have taken the word of local librarians, and hotel managers without pressing the issue.[2]

Southern areas were certainly not the only localities where Negro librarians would encounter segregation, of course.

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[1]Letter, Mary M. Taggert to Editor, ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (March, 1940), 195.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Council, May 31, 1940.

The ALA Bulletin, in announcing plans for the 1940 conference gave this advice:

> Colored delegates will find excellent accomodations at the Manse Hotel, 1004 Chapel Street, about four miles from headquarters and auditorium with several car lines passing close to both without transfers.[1]

Midwinter meetings held in Chicago presented the same situation. Neither the Palmer House nor the Drake Hotel, where the Association often met, accepted Negroes on the same basis as Caucasians. Yet there was no public criticism of this discrimination. This left Southern librarians to wonder why the Association allowed two standards to remain in effect.

The Special Committee on Racial Discrimination submitted its report to the Council at the Cincinnati Conference. It recommended no change from the 1936 policy statement. The report did suggest, however, that ALA make it known it desired to meet in all areas of the country. Then in considering any city, officials should exert every effort to obtain compliance with requirements. If any city found it impossible to guarantee compliance, the Association should meet elsewhere.[2] This report was accepted in its entirety by the Council in May, 1940, thus

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[1] "Where to Stay in Cincinnati," ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (March, 1940), 195.

[2] ALA, "Report of the Committee on Racial Discrimination," May 31, 1940). (Typewritten)

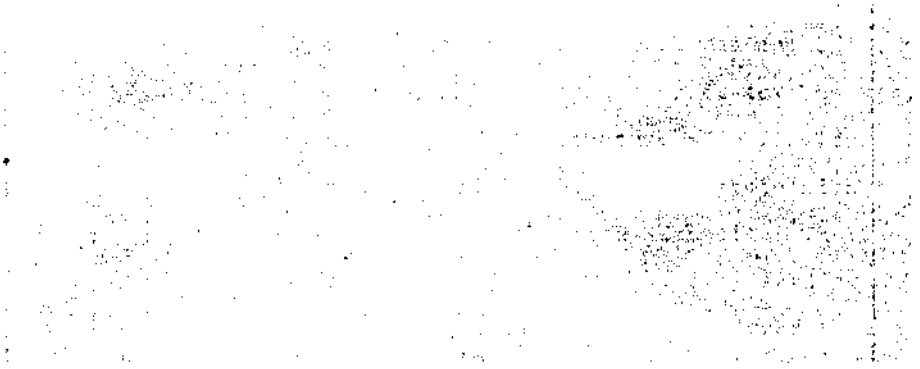
presumably ending the problem.

Summary

The one dominating factor during this time was the depression and the nation's effort to recover from its ills. The economic conditions slowed down ALA activity because of loss of members and the subsequent loss of income. Even the successful completion of the Endowment Fund failed to help the Association significantly in its financial struggles. Fortunately, the relief work of various types helped, in that fewer librarians were unemployed.

This segment of ALA's history was one of intense internal criticism. John Cotton Dana was only the most vocal and successful of the critics, but he seemed to represent many members in the demands for changes. Dana's constant criticism led to the establishment of the Activities Committee, a group charged with the responsibility of reviewing the Association's procedures and practices. The Committee proved to be valuable in pointing out weaknesses, leading to eventual modifications. One of the most difficult problems which the Committee had to deal with was library education. The Board of Education for Librarianship and the Association of American Library Schools found it difficult to work effectively with each other, and as a result the Activities Committee was forced

to investigate. No permanent solution to the problem was formulated, but the open discussion seemed to help in the relationship. A great amount of criticism was also generated when ALA formed a Business Librarians Section. This move came after repeated warnings by SLA officers and even members of ALA that the new Section was in direct competition with SLA. An open break between the two national organizations was averted only by the calming influence of SLA officers. Finally, for the first time in its history the Association became faced with the problem of racial discrimination. It had escaped the problem before only by refusing to admit that it existed. The solution to the problem was only partial, since it did not really confront the basic issue of rights of members.



CHAPTER VIII

RECOVERY AND PREPARATION FOR WAR

Unemployment among librarians had declined to about 600 in 1937, compared with the 1,600 who were seeking positions in 1933.[1] Salaries also demonstrated a considerable improvement over the low period of the depression. Library budgets in many cities regained much of the ground lost during the previous eight years. Library service was still inadequate as judged by the suggested minimum standards. The average per capita expenditure in the United States in 1937 was forty cents for library service. A total of 45,000,000 people remained without any library service at all. Most of these people lived in rural areas, especially the South. One-third of the counties in the country were without any public libraries. In spite of these bleak figures, progress was being achieved, During 1937, four more states allocated funds for the development of libraries. County libraries increased in number and in size as a result of state aid and federal relief projects.[2] Through a combination of

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[1] Editorial , ALA Bulletin, XXXI (January, 1937), 39.

[2] "Library Progress," New International Yearbook, 1937, 410.

circumstances the nation as a whole was moving along rapidly towards recovery. The year 1936 had been a "boom year" and the first three-quarters of 1937 had shown similar characteristics. Immediately after Labor Day, however, there was a drastic setback in the business recovery. In place of the usual autumn upturn in business there was a sharp decline. This reversal brought the economy almost down to the level of 1934. Fortunately, this recession was relatively short, and by mid-1938 business had resumed its upward surge. Libraries were not seriously affected by this recession because of its short duration.

Proposed Changes

Perhaps as a result of a lessening concern over the economic conditions, librarians were becoming more concerned with the structure and activities of ALA. One librarian spoke of the period as the "Age of Reorganization," for the subject always seemed to be under discussion. Between 1937 and 1940, the primary thrust of membership activity was towards a structural reorganization of the Association. Meetings and periodical articles brought out the intense feeling that the Association was not performing adequately. There were many questions over priorities, directions, and results of ALA efforts. What

had been accomplished during its years of existence?[1] To what extent had ALA been instrumental in the library progress achieved? Why wasn't more concern shown by the leadership in the social issues facing Americans? Were librarians benefiting from the multiplicity of library organizations allowed and seemingly encouraged by the Association?[2] These and many other serious problems were enough to encourage speculation as to whether the organization would survive. In the event that it did survive, there were a great many suggestions for changes. Some of the ideas had been presented many times before. Discussion was principally concerned with the following major proposals:

(1) A federation of library associations with one united organization, instead of separate national organizations. This federation would include a complete integration of state, regional, local, and national associations into the central organization.

(2) A unified pyramidal organization with divisions representing public libraries, university libraries, special libraries,

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[1]Charles H. Brown, "What Shall We Do With the A.L.A.?", ALA Bulletin, XXXII (January, 1938), 31.

[2]"A Federation of Library Associations," Library Journal, LXIII (August, 1938), 568.

and school libraries. Divisions would also be formed to represent the various types of library work, such as acquisitions, cataloging, reference, and circulation. Regional organizations would be established for each section of the country.

(3) Classification of the membership according to level of education or position. Many members had long felt uncomfortable over the fact that anyone could join ALA simply by paying the dues. It seemed appropriate to them that there should be some minimum requirements for acceptance as members. At the very least, there might be several levels of membership.[1]

(4) The question of replacing the annual meetings with biennial meetings was raised again. This had been suggested many times during the history of the Association. The idea never really gained extensive approval, although it had obvious merits which deserved serious consideration.[2]

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[1]"The Reorganization of the A.L.A.," ALA Bulletin, XXXII (October 1, 1938), 674.

[2]Clarence E. Sherman, "Should A.L.A. Conferences Be Held Biennially?", ALA Bulletin, XXXIII (April, 1939), 237.

Of the proposals suggested, the need for unification of library organizations seemed to be the most evident. The multitude of associations had been allowed to develop without any visible pattern or plan. At this time, the following national library organizations were active:

Name	Founded	Members	Affiliated with ALA
National Association of State Librarians	1889	52	yes
Medical Library Association	1898	438	no
Biographical Society of America	1904	441	no
League of Library Commissions	1904	437	yes
American Library Institute	1905	100	no
American Association of Law Librarians	1906	345	yes
Special Libraries Association	1909	1,897	yes
Association of American Library Schools	1915	27	yes
American Merchant Marine Library Association	1921	1,362	no
Association of Research Libraries	1931	44	yes
Music Library Association	1931	85	no
Catholic Library Association	1932	463	no[1]

In addition, there was a multitude of local, state, regional, and interest-oriented organizations to which

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[1]Oscar C. Orman, "A Federation of American Library Associations," ALA Bulletin, XXXIII (January, 1939), 21.

librarians belonged. Even in a profession of 40,000 people, such fragmentation appeared to be excessive. Yet it was exceedingly difficult to provide any coordination which would satisfy all of the members of the various organizations. Furthermore, probably the greatest factor in the growth of the separate national organizations was dissatisfaction with ALA. If the Association could have responded adequately to the specialized needs of all librarians, there would have been no need for the existence of a number of the organizations.[1] Now that they were established, however, it would be difficult to make changes. Librarians who had carefully nurtured the younger associations would be unlikely to agree to a complete consolidation within the oldest and largest organization--ALA. The proposal for federation was made as an alternative to consolidation. A federation could coordinate the activities of existing library associations and provide central leadership. At the same time, it would not require the dissolution of any group; this factor made federation much more attractive than consolidation.[2] In spite of the advantages of having some overall leadership provided through federation, however, not enough support was generated even within ALA to make this proposal feasible. The end result of three years of discussion of

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

the subject was no real change at all.

Efforts Towards Peace

As the war in Europe increased in intensity, it became clear that it would only be a matter of time before the United States also became completely involved in the conflict. Industry was gearing up for the expected demands on its facilities. Production had already shifted in some respects from a consumer orientation to a military orientation. Military conscription was clearly in the near future, although by the summer of 1940 it had not yet been passed by Congress. The Executive Board of the Association urged all types of libraries to help wherever possible with military training. To some people this seemed to be premature, but it was certainly in keeping with the militaristic spirit which was engulfing the country.[1] This spirit, and the steady drift towards war, alarmed a sizable minority in the country. The dissident faction was represented in the library profession by a group called the Progressive Librarians Council. The Council aroused the ire of the Executive Board by sending a "peace telegram" to Roosevelt during the 1940 conference. The message began with the following statement:

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[1]Letter, Beatrice Rosell to Executive Board, ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (September 1, 1940), 477-78.

> Alarmed by the rapid drift of this country toward involvement in the European war, we librarians, assembled at the sixty-second annual conference of the American Library Association in Cincinnati, May 26 to June 1, respectfully urge you to keep this country at peace.[1]

The Board was angry over the possibility people might interpret this statement as emanating from ALA, and condemned the telegram as misleading. This in spite of the fact that the telegram had been signed "Progressive Librarians Council." The Board then sent a telegram to President Roosevelt. It was a rather curious message which said the Progressive Librarians Council represented the opinion of a very small group, and had no authority to speak for librarians on this or any other subject. The telegram further stated that if the members of ALA were polled on the question, they would overwhelmingly reject the ideas reflected in the original peace telegram.[2] This was a rather astonishing claim to make, since the membership had never been polled on the subject, and had never given any collective indication where it stood.[3] The telegram was released for publication by the White House, although no such treatment had been given to the earlier

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[1]"Repudiation by ALA," Library Journal, LXV (July, 1940), 599.

[2]"Communication to President Roosevelt," ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (June, 1940), 415-16.

[3]Letter, Francis W. Allen to Carl H. Milam, ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (September, 1940), 479.

telegram. Similarly, the text of the Executive Board's telegram was reprinted in the ALA Bulletin. The text of the telegram from the Progressive Librarians Council was ignored.[1]

In a matter related to the "peace telegram," the Junior Members Round Table developed a minor controversy between its officers and its membership. The Round Table, at its membership meeting during the Cincinnati conference, endorsed the peace message to Roosevelt. This official action was ordered deleted from the minutes of the meeting by the Executive Board of the Round Table. The reason given was that the resolution "was out of order inasmuch as it did not pertain to the affairs" of the Round Table. The chairman said the Executive Board was simply fulfilling its obligation to act when the entire group was not in session. Objecting members could raise the issue at the next meeting. This was an arbitrary action on the part of the Round Table's leadership, and there seemed to be no adequate reason for it.[2]

ALA and Intellectual Freedom

The approaching war also increased fears over

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[1]Except for the first sentence of the telegram, included in "Communication to President Roosevelt," loc. cit.

[2]Letter, Irene Fetty to Editor, ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (September, 1940), 479.

internal security. This fear was evidenced in the growing demands for strict control over the dissemination of propaganda and "subversive" publications. The question of whether or not libraries should restrict the use of this type of material was debated at the Cincinnati conference in 1940. Speaking for restriction was Gilbert Bettman, former attorney general of Ohio. The American people did not want their democracy undermined, according to Bettman, by the "purposely poisoned arrows" of totalitarian propaganda. Thus it was imperative for public libraries to restrict the circulation of propaganda. Taking the opposite view was Arthur Garfield Hays, counsel for the American Civil Liberties Union. Hays called restriction of any kind undemocratic and contrary to the American theory of government. He said our governmental system could not and should not be preserved by silencing the advocates of change.[1]

A special committee on censorship had previously been established because of the continuing pressure on libraries in regard to material thought to be subversive. This committee, composed of Sterling North, Alfred C. Nielsen, and Forrest Spaulding, reported at the Cincinnati conference. The report reminded the Council it had

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[1]ALA, Papers and Proceedings of the Cincinnati Conference (Chicago, ALA, 1940), p. 5.

adopted the Library's Bill of Rights in 1939. If this Bill of Rights was to mean anything, then further action must be taken by the Association to protect librarians. Any librarian or library board confronted by demands for censorship of materials should be strongly supported. The committee was careful to differentiate between censorship and book selection. The latter, it was felt, was a matter of strictly local concern.[1] As a first step, the committee recommended the appointment of a new Committee on Intellectual Freedom. This group would have the power to act for ALA in safeguarding the rights of library users. The Council accepted the report and the Intellectual Freedom Committee was appointed in late 1940.[2]

At the time of its adoption, the Library Bill of Rights was received with no objection. The Committee on Intellectual Freedom was also accepted with no problem. The attitudes of some librarians, however, began to change as the two began to function. In 1944, pressure was exerted on the Committee to strengthen the role of ALA in censorship disputes. The immediate cause of the pressure

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, May 27, 1940.

[2]The Committee's first members were: Forrest P. Spaulding, Des Moines Public Library; Jens Nyholm, University of California, Berkeley; and Hiller C. Wellman, Springfield, Massachusetts Public Library.

was the public outcry over John Carlson's Under Cover.[1] This tremendously popular book caused citizens in many areas of the country to try to prevent public libraries from buying it. In addition, there were efforts made to prevent its distribution within the armed forces. The result of this controversy was a recommendation from the Committee to the ALA Council to add the following sentence to the Bill of Rights:

> Further, books believed to be factually correct should not be banned or removed from the library simply because they are disapproved by some people.[2]

Although approved by a majority in the Council who responded to the mail vote taken, the necessary two-thirds response was not achieved. Thus the proposal lost. However, the Council later took another ballot and the measure passed.[3] There were other books as well which often strained the relationship of the library with the community. John Steinbeck's Grapes of Wrath, Lilian Smith's Strange Fruit, and Kathleen Winsor's Forever Amber were a few examples where serious censorship problems

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[1]Leon Carnovsky, "Can the Public Library Defend the Right to Freedom of Inquiry?" ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (July, 1944), 255.

[2]Ibid.

[3]ALA, Proceedings of Council, October 14, 1944.

were evoked.[1] The Intellectual Freedom Committee as a result became more active in gathering national data on book banning. The Committee began to compile reports on community incidents throughout the country.[2] The basic problem, of course, remained unsettled. What was the recourse when the Library's Bill of Rights were violated? What could be done to help the librarian under attack? The answer, unfortunately, was very little. The only force was moral force, and it could be effective only when librarians cooperated.[3] The glare of publicity could be valuable in exposing attempts at suppression. This was the reason for the Committee's search for evidence of censorship. Yet it was abundantly clear that the profession was not united in its Bill of Rights. Letters to ALA Bulletin, Library Journal, and ALA Headquarters indicated strong dissent over the trend literature was taking during this period. The preponderance of sex in Kathleen Winsor's Forever Amber provides an outstanding example. Its popularity, and the problem of to buy or not to buy, gave grist to many discussions, letters, and speeches. In a number of cases it is difficult to discern

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[1]Kimball Young, "Censorship in Wartime," ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (November, 1944), 441.

[2]"Intellectual Freedom Progress," ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (November, 1944), 449.

[3]Carnovsky, op. cit., 256.

the difference between censorship efforts by the public, and book selection by the librarian. The result was often the same, and in many cases the reasoning seemed to be similar.

The anti-intellectual activity of the pre-war period was more than matched by the censorship activities during the post-war years. Fear of communism, increased by the cold war which developed between the United States and Russia, at times almost reached hysteria. It was, as one author called it, a period of "The Great Fear":

> Between 1949 and 1954 the nation was gripped by a pervasive fear that Communism was about to subvert the Republic. Any program or any idea traceable to Communist ideology became suspect; mere accusation of having been a Communist was sometimes enough to condemn a man to loss of job or friends. A veritable witch hunt of suspected traitors and disloyal citizens was carried out by government and by private groups.[1]

Censorship activities against libraries seemed to be on the increase everywhere in the country.[2] The ALA in 1948 responded with two measures designed to strengthen the role of librarians in guarding intellectual freedom. The first was a revision of the Library's Bill of Rights by the Intellectual Freedom Committee. This was a stronger and more explicit statement of rights and responsibilities than

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[1]Louis B. Wright, et al., The Democratic Experience (Glencoe, Illinois: Scott, Foresman, 1968), p. 451.

[2]David K. Berninghausen, "Book-banning and Witch-hunts," ALA Bulletin, XLII (May, 1948), 204-07.

was true of the original Bill of Rights adopted in 1939. Book selection, according to the new statement, should not be done on the basis of race, nationality, political or religious views of the author. The earlier statement had said that these factors should not influence the selection process. The new policy also stated that censorship attempts by individuals or groups must be challenged by librarians as part of their responsibility to provide free access to information. The new statement, known as the Library Bill of Rights, was adopted by the ALA Council on June 18, 1948.[1]

On the same day the Council approved another statement in the area of intellectual freedom. David K. Berninghausen, chairman of the Intellectual Freedom Committee, presented a resolution protesting loyalty investigations in libraries. Although it was adopted, this resolution did not receive the support which the Library Bill of Rights had received.[2] The loyalty investigations were a post-war development which had grown out of the fear of Communism and Communist-affiliated organizations. Many Americans could not understand why any non-Communist would object to the investigations. As the resolution pointed out, it was only on the surface that the investigations

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 18, 1948.

[2]Berninghausen, Loc. cit.

were harmless and innocent. Underneath was a serious violation of intellectual freedom. The basic premise of the investigation was the desire to require an acceptable conformity in the thinking of public employees. In a strongly worded statement, ALA condemned the use of such loyalty investigations. The action did not reveal the division over the question within the Council. Some of the members were not opposed to loyalty investigations per se, but only to "improperly framed" orders.[1]

The problem of loyalty investigations and loyalty oaths surfaced again and again, for it was too complex a matter to be solved by a resolution. Furthermore, some librarians began to question the wisdom of the resolution. The "unqualified condemnation of the use of loyalty investigations," as the resolution stated, was too strong for some people. The following year the Council substituted the word "abuse" for "use," in what was interpreted as a clarification of the wording. The point was made that loyalty oaths were used in the past and would be used in the future, so it would be foolish for ALA to take an intransigent stand against their use.[2] Another member expressed the view that in its original strong stand, ALA

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 18, 1948.

[2]Verner W. Clapp, "Disloyalty by Imputation or By Due Process," Library Journal, LXXV (April 15, 1950), 678.

was placing itself alongside other subversive organizations.[1] Although there were members of the Association who believed otherwise, they were apparently in the minority at this time since the Council action was allowed to stand. A Library Journal editorial summed up its own view when it stated it was still unconvinced that loyalty oaths were necessary or desirable in a democracy. The only exception would be where there was a clear and present danger, a qualification which was not apparent at the time. The editorial pointed out that loyalty checks were concerned not only with acts, but also with private opinions. If the personal views were not orthodox, then the person would lose his job and perhaps any chance for future employment. The whole concept was contrary to American ideals.[2]

As long as the problem remained a theoretical one, librarians could still believe that the abuse of loyalty oaths represented their only real danger. However, when individuals began to lose jobs over refusal to sign an oath, the danger became more apparent. The first ALA member to lose her position over the loyalty oath issue was Elizabeth Haas of the Enoch Pratt Free Library. Miss

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[1]W. Holloway, "Bull By the Tail . . . ," Library Journal, LXXV (April 15, 1950), 679.

[2]"It is the Loyalty Oaths That are Subversive," Library Journal, LXXV (January 15, 1950), 82.

Haas had become a Quaker after serving in World War II as a member of the Women's Air Corp. Her refusal to sign the oath in March, 1950, was based on both religious and political grounds. She said that the oath itself contained nothing which she could not affirm without any reservation. But the law on which it was based, Miss Haas stated, was "a positive evil and a denial of principles."[1] It was the dismissal of this kind of employee that pointed out the potential tragedy of the loyalty oaths. Another case demonstrated to librarians the stake they had in the issue. The first loyalty oath case to reach the United States Supreme Court involved a Los Angeles librarian. Julia Steiner, an employee of the Los Angeles County, had been asked to reveal whether she had ever been a member of, or supporter of, any of the 144 organizations which the California Un-American Activities Committee had characterized as "subversive." Miss Steiner refused to answer and appealed through the lower courts to the United States Supreme Court. That court dismissed the case on the grounds that the lower courts had failed to establish that Miss Steiner actually faced dismissal if she did not sign the oath.[2] The two court cases revealed to many people

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[1] "Loyalty Oath Dismissal," ALA Bulletin, XLIV (May, 1950), 149.

[2] "It is the Loyalty Oaths That are Subversive," loc. cit.

the true danger of the loyalty oaths. Oaths were not necessarily effective in fighting subversive activity, since dishonest people might not be intimidated by them.[1] But they had the undesirable effect of causing the dismissal of loyal, strong-principled employees such as these two women, who refused to believe that a democracy needed to resort to such tactics. In retrospect, it would seem to this author that ALA retreated when the word "abuse" was substituted for "use" in its resolution against loyalty oaths. The first resolution, adopted at the Atlantic City conference, was strong, unequivocal stand. When altered, the resolution became weak and meaningless since the substituted word "abuse" could be defined as suited the individual. It is true that the resolution was only a paper resolution, and included no machinery which would support the stand taken. However, a strongly worded statement might have helped to marshal public sentiment against loyalty oaths.

The need for a new resolution on loyalty oaths was clear. The ambiguity of the amended statement had placed ALA in the embarrassing position of criticizing something which it could not define.[2] Return to the original

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[1] Ibid.

[2] David K. Berninghausen, "Loyalty by Choice or Coercion," ALA Bulletin, XL (January, 1950), 17.

resolution condemning the use of loyalty oaths was probably not possible. David K. Berninghausen, chairman of the ALA Committee on Intellectual Freedom, was the most effective leader in attempting to clarify the Association's position. He said it was naive to believe loyalty could be insured by an investigation, or a threat of investigation, into one's personal opinions. Unorthodox opinions must be allowed, however objectionable they may seem to others. He continued:

> In a democratic society the only true loyalty which can be considered desirable is that which is a result of unrestricted individual choice. Firm faith in the democratic way of life and freedom of inquiry cannot result from any sort of coercion.[1]

In response to the work of this committee and other individuals within the Association, the Council in 1950 approved a stronger statement on loyalty oaths. It condemned programs which investigated a librarian's personal background, unless his actions warranted such inquiry. It also condemned programs which allowed dismissal of employees without a fair hearing where all of the evidence was presented. The new statement approved the "affirmation of allegiance to our government."[2] As can be seen, this resolution was a compromise. It satisfied the need for a

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[1] Ibid.

[2] ALA, Minutes of Council, July 21, 1950.

new statement, and it was stronger than the previous stand of the Association. But it was certainly less than what Berninghausen and others had recommended. The resolution was explicit in what were considered abuses of loyalty oaths. At the same time, the resolution did not condemn loyalty oaths per se. In view of the political climate, however, it was perhaps the best that was possible to achieve at this time.

The following year another aspect of intellectual freedom came under attack. For some time librarians had been reporting attempts by various organizations to force library staffs to label materials. The labels were meant to alert the patron of the library to the "type" of material being read. Often the organizations were patriotic groups, such as the Sons of the American Revolution. They requested that labels be applied to publications advocating Communism or which were issued by a Communist agency. The Sons of the American Revolution further suggested that such materials should not be readily available to library patrons. Such activities were not, of course, limited to patriotic organizations. Religious organizations had exerted pressure in the same way to prevent access in libraries to material they found objectionable. The Committee on Intellectual Freedom was contacted in April, 1951, by a pressure group in New Jersey. The organization asked the Committee to adopt its

plan of labeling Communistic or subversive materials.[1] The result of this attempt was a strong statement by the Committee condemning the labeling of library materials. The statement was adopted unanimously by the ALA Council on July 13, 1951. It reaffirmed the Association's belief in democracy, but condemned any attempt "at closing any paths to knowledge." It called labeling a tool of the censor and a violation of the Bill of Rights. This was a forthright statement which would allow no interpretation by librarians or other individuals.[2]

Early in 1953 it became apparent that the principle of freedom of information was being severely tested in some United States libraries located in foreign cities. The problem came to light as a result of a commencement address by President Dwight D. Eisenhower. Speaking extemporaneously, the President urged Dartmouth College graduates not to join in with the bookburners. This seemed to be a reference to Communist-hunters like Senator Joseph McCarthy, who had been putting pressure on the State Department to remove books by Communist authors from Department libraries.[3] On June 16, the day following the

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[1]"Labeling--A Report of the Committee on Intellectual Freedom," ALA Bulletin, XLV (July-August, 1951), 241.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Council, July 13, 1951.

[3]New York Times, June 15, 1953, p. 1.

President's address, Secretary of State John Foster Dulles revealed that State Department libraries had already burned a number of books. Although he refused to give detailed information, Dulles said that eleven books had been destroyed by Information Service libraries.[1] In the days which followed, the confusion in the Eisenhower administration on this subject became very apparent. The President added to the problem by stating that he did favor the destruction of books advocating the overthrow of the United States government, if those books were in government libraries overseas. At the same time he angrily denied that his original remarks had been aimed at Senator McCarthy. McCarthy also said he had not been the target of Eisenhower's address: "He couldn't very well have been referring to me. I have burned no books."[2] It developed, however, that the action of the State Department libraries had closely paralleled criticism from the Senate Investigations Subcommittee. The Subcommittee was chaired by Senator McCarthy. Under pressure from McCarthy, the State Department had issued a number of directives ordering the removal of books by certain authors. A March 17 directive ordered the removal of all periodicals containing material detrimental to the United States. On May 13 a

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[1] New York Times, June 16, 1953, p. 1.

[2] New York Times, June 17, 1953, p. 1.

directive listed sixteen authors whose books were to be removed from information center libraries. No reason was given for the removal. All the authors listed, however, had appeared before McCarthy's subcommittee and had refused to state whether or not they were Communists.[1] A survey of government libraries by the New York Times indicated that the purge was far greater than just the authors cited in the May 13 directive. Approximately 200 titles by forty authors were involved, although not in all libraries. There seemed to be no real pattern followed by the Information Service libraries in the removal of the books.[2]

Alarmed by this attack on the freedom of information, Robert Downs, President of ALA, on June 15, 1953, wrote to Eisenhower to express his concern. Although lacking in specifics, Eisenhower's answer was reassuring. He wrote:

> We know that freedom cannot be served by the devices of the tyrant. As it is an ancient truth that freedom cannot be legislated into existence, so it is no less obvious that freedom cannot be censored into existence. And any who act as if freedom's defenses are to be found in suppression and suspicion and fear confess a doctrine that is alien to America.[3]

The New York Times reported that when this letter was read

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[1] New York Times, June 26, 1953, p. 16.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Letter, Eisenhower to Downs, June 24, 1953.

at ALA's annual conference, there was prolonged applause from the librarians. On the previous day the Council had adopted a strong statement on overseas libraries. It expressed dismay at the "fearful" response of the State Department to criticism. The statement commented that the Information Service libraries were useful only if their users could be reassured that libraries contained the truth. The statement agreed that books considered to be harmful to the United States did not belong in the libraries. Book selection, however, should not be based on an arbitrary and offensive scheme of security clearance. The statement concluded by saying that the overseas libraries belonged to the American people, not to a Congressional committee or to the State Department. Copies of the statement were sent to President Eisenhower, Secretary Dulles, and to Senator McCarthy. It was apparent the Association wanted no doubt expressed as to the target of the statement.

Summary

The recovery from the depression marked this brief period of ALA history. Due to various factors, including the outbreak of war in Europe, the nation was again making significant economic progress. For the library profession, this was reflected in growing employment and increasing membership in the Association. With librarians less

concerned over the economic situation, there developed an alarming dissension within ALA. Serious questions were raised over how the Association might become more responsive, more democratic, and more representative of the library profession. This led to a variety of proposals, all intended to accomplish these goals. Among the suggestions were federation, classification of membership, and biennial meetings. After protracted discussion, however, no action was taken on any of the suggestions.

The most difficult problem encountered by the profession during this era was intellectual freedom. At first the issue was almost academic, but in time it became a very practical problem faced by many librarians. In a number of ways challenges were made to freedom of information and the library's right to supply the information unencumbered. The ALA made two significant responses to these challenges: the Library Bill of Rights and the statement condemning the labeling of library materials. There was no force to back up these statements, however. Only the glare of publicity would prevent individuals, organizations, or governments from abusing the right of free access of information.

CHAPTER IX

WAR AND POST-WAR PLANNING

The United States in 1941 was preparing for a war which most people knew was inevitable. Selective service had been established in 1940 to increase the size of the Army to 625,000 men. Although technically at this time the United States had no enemy, it was in a limbo between peace and war. Since September, 1939, the country had been in a state of limited national emergency. On May 27, 1941, the President changed the status to unlimited national emergency. This meant that except for actual combat the country was on a war-time basis.[1] With the attack on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese on December 7, 1941, the last vestige of peace was destroyed.

Defense Activities

As each step took the country closer to all-out mobilization, libraries and the American Library Association became more involved in national defense activities.[2] In doing so, librarians had three distinct

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[1] "World War II," Collier's Encyclopedia, v. 23, 613.

[2] "Libraries and the National Defense Program," ALA Bulletin, XXXIV (September 1, 1940), 429-33, 485.

advantages over the librarians engaged in similar work during World War I. The first was the steady reinforcing of the knowledge that the nation was going to become directly involved in the war. Even with all the warning signals given prior to United States involvement in World War I, there was a distinct shock as far as library involvement in the defense efforts was concerned. This war was different. While the attack on Pearl Harbor was indeed a terrible surprise, librarians had not waited until the actual moment of war to become involved. The involvement had been going on for some time, and was steadily increasing.[1] The second advantage for librarians in 1941 was experience. Librarians could draw on the previous work of others who had served in defense activities. The third advantage was the recognition by the War Department of the value of libraries and library service. It was not necessary to again demonstrate the worth of libraries to servicemen because this had been amply shown in the previous war.

Pointing up the value placed on libraries was the extensive program of library development. This program was established and maintained by the War Department, instead of by ALA. In the Army, libraries were organized at most

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[1]"National Defense Activities," ALA Bulletin, XXXV (February, 1941), 57.

of the camps and were under the supervision of the Morale Division. By March, 1941, there were already seventy-five camp libraries, each with a trained librarian. This was soon expanded to 125 libraries. Over $400,000 was allocated by the Morale Division for the purchase of books in these libraries.[1] In the Navy the library organization was very similar to that of the 1920's after the war was over. Libraries were operated in stations, hospitals, and on naval vessels. Although there was room for improvement in the military library organization, it was far superior to the arrangement at the beginning of World War I.

While the War Department had taken over many of the library activities, there remained much work for ALA to do. For example, in November, 1941, its President, Charles H. Brown, noted requests for ALA's help and advice had increased sharply. He reported that in a trip to Washington, officials of four federal departments and agencies had asked for such assistance.[2] Miss Julia W. Merrill of the Headquarters staff was loaned to the Office of Education to make a survey of library needs of defense

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[1]"Progress Report on A.L.A. Emergency Activities," ALA Bulletin, XXXV (March, 1941), 140.

[2]Charles H. Brown, "Librarians Interested in National Defense," Library Journal, LXVI (December, 1941), 1026.

areas and emergency needs of public libraries. In cooperation with other organizations ALA began planning a drive for books for servicemen. This became the National Defense Book Campaign, under the direction of Althea Warren of the Los Angeles Public Library. The Association was joined in its efforts by the American Red Cross and the United Service Organization.[1] It was estimated that between five and ten million books would be needed. This estimate took into account such needs as: the day-rooms for each company or battalion in the army camps; the 400 reading rooms of the USO for servicemen on leave; the needs of the Marine Corps; and the greatly enlarged capacity of the hospitals of the armed forces. Even before the actual campaign got underway, however, local library organizations throughout the country began their individual drives. The Chicago Public Library collected 20,000 books for servicemen. In New Jersey thousands of books were sent to camp libraries through the efforts of the New Jersey Library Commission. Libraries everywhere, aware of the needs of the young men in the service, worked hard to get the books on the way before the national campaign could get fully organized. On January 12, 1942, the book drive began under the name Victory Book Campaign. This, of course, reflected the change in national attitude after

[1] "National Defense Book Campaign," Library Journal, LXVI (December 15, 1941), 1082.

the attack on Pearl Harbor. With the slogan, "We Want Books," librarians began the massive effort to obtain 10,000,000 books for servicemen.[1] Libraries across the country acted as collecting centers, but the headquarters were in the Empire State Building in New York City. Althea Warren continued as Director of the Campaign until April 1, 1942, when she then returned to the Los Angeles Public Library. John M. Connor of the Columbia University Medical Library was appointed to take her place.[2] The active publicity, resourceful leadership, and strenuous campaigning culminated in what President Roosevelt designated as Victory Book Day, April 17. At that point the American people had contributed over 9,000,000 books. Later contributions brought the total to approximately 12,000,000 volumes. Of this total, about 6,000,000 were considered useful enough to place in the various libraries. Most of the books received were fiction, as had been true of the book drives during World War I.[3] Although librarians were in charge of the Victory Book Campaign, many other organizations assisted. The soliciting and packing of books was done largely by such organizations as the Girl

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[1]"Victory Book Campaign," Library Journal, LXVII (January 15, 1942), 74.

[2]John M. Connor, "The Victory Book Campaign," ALA Bulletin, XXXVI (June, 1942), 377.

[3]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 26, 1942.

Scouts, Boy Scouts, and the Camp Fire Girls. Transportation of books was provided by such diverse groups as the American Trucking Association, bus companies, milk companies, the American Red Cross, and the American Women's Volunteer Services. Many authors also contributed books, columns to newspapers, and gave readings at meetings to encourage the giving of books.[1] Thus it was through a concerted effort which enabled John Connor to call the campaign a success.[2]

The following year the decision was made to have another Victory Book Campaign. This was based on the demands of servicemen and the realization that the war would not soon be over. Connor again agreed to direct the efforts of librarians. Certain lessons had been learned in the 1942 drive which were applied during this campaign. The experience had taught the leaders that much of the reading material supplied from the nation's attics was simply unacceptable for servicemen. Thus Connor issued the following memorandum to librarians taking part in the drive:

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[1]Althea H. Warren, "Victory Book Campaign," Library Journal, LXVII (April 1, 1942), 311.

[2]John M. Connor, "The Victory Book Campaign," ALA Bulletin, XXXVI (June, 1942), 378.

> We ask that the book sorting be ruthless. Let's not have our men complain that 'We're getting alot of sentimental novels by early Victorian ladies.'[1]

He then asked librarians to discard all books written for women and children. Juvenile books, received in large numbers, were also to be omitted. This resulted in fewer books being collected, but they were of a higher quality than in previous drives. People were also more fully aware of the type of reading desired, because there had been much publicity over the reading needs of servicemen. At the official close of the campaign a total of 7,000,000 books had been received; of this total, 4,500,000 were distributed to the service libraries.[2]

National and International Activities

The Association also administered funds provided by several foundations. While the Carnegie Corporation had severely limited its gifts to ALA, nevertheless small grants were still being made. Association President Charles Brown reported that when he presented a tentative budget of almost $40,000 to the Corporation, the immediate reaction was negative. Dr. Frederick Keppel, President of the Corporation, said, "This is about double what we gave

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[1]Memorandum, December 12, 1942, ALA Archives.

[2]Louis J. Bailey, "Victory Book Campaign, 1943," Library Journal, LXVIII (November 15, 1943), 945.

you last year." Brown explained the additional monies were to be used for defense activities. As usual, Keppel said that there was little chance of receiving favorable consideration for the full program.[1] However, the Corporation did provide some special grants for new projects. Colleges for Negroes were given a total of $100,000 for the development of their libraries. At Atlanta University a library school for Negroes was also established with the aid of a grant from Carnegie Corporation. Under the terms of a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the Association continued to administer the Books for Europe program. Because of the war, books for research were purchased and stored in the United States. After hostilities were over, the books would be sent to the libraries in Europe.[2]

In an effort to promote closer ties with Mexico ALA in 1941 established a library in Mexico City. This was the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin, patterned after a typical American public library.[3] Its collection was made up largely of books, periodicals, and other publications from

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, October 6, 1941.

[2]"Library Progress," New International Yearbook, 1941, p. 332.

[3]"Libraries and Good Neighborliness," Library Journal, LXVI (November 15, 1941), 977.

the United States. Its special emphasis was on services of international importance. The library was meant to act as an exchange center for research materials between Mexico and the United States. In addition, through classes and recordings, there would be a promotion of learning English and Spanish languages. Funding for the project came from the Rockefeller Foundation, although the idea for the library apparently came from the United States Department of State.[1] The name of the library was chosen after considerable discussion between the State Department and ALA officials. One of the first suggestions from ALA was that it should be called the Dwight Morrow Library, but this was objected to by a State Department representative because it "smelled a bit of oil."[2] Benjamin Franklin was finally selected because he was known by the Mexican people not to have any political entanglements which would be offensive to the people of Latin America. In addition, he had been active in establishing libraries in America and had also urged the study of Spanish to further good relations with Latin America.[3] The Library's first director was Dr. Harry M. Lydenberg, the retired Director

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, October 6, 1941.

[2]Ibid. Morrow had served as U.S. Ambassador to Mexico and had negotiated the settlement of Mexican confiscation of United States oil interests.

[3]Ibid.

of the New York Public Library.[1] This project was part of a growing emphasis on the country's southern neighbors. After the experience of pro-German sentiment in Latin America during World War I, every possible step was taken to cement closer ties with the area. Thus in 1941 and 1942, the United States foreign policy was largely concerned with Latin America. Some of the other ALA activities showed this emphasis also. An experiment in the education of librarians was launched in 1942 when courses were given at the National Library of Columbia. These were under the joint sponsorship of the Columbian Ministry of Education and ALA. Approximately 100 librarians from Columbia and neighboring countries were enrolled. This project was funded by the Rockefeller Foundation, with some supplementary help from the United States Department of State.[2] A Books for Latin America project was inaugurated in 1942. Its purpose was to supply books by United States authors to South American libraries. It was basically similar to the older Books for Europe program. Minor projects were also sponsored by ALA in cooperation with other agencies; United States libraries were

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[1] "American Library in Mexico," Library Journal, LXVI (October 15, 1941), 714.

[2] "Annual Report of the Board of Education for Librarianship," ALA Bulletin, XXXVI (October 15, 1942), 688-89.

established in Montevideo and Mangua, and librarians from Latin America were given fellowships to study in the United States. The need for more institutes on the history and government of Latin American countries was recognized. In this area an interdisciplinary approach in librarianship was suggested. It was hoped the increased scope would better prepare librarians for leadership roles in understanding international affairs.[1] While these activities were demonstrating ALA's growing interest in the international scene, two other projects suffered because of the war conditions. All United States citizens who were staffing the American Library in Paris were forced to evacuate the city in 1942 because of the German aggression. In spite of the difficulties, the Library remained open.[2] The second project was the Books for Europe program. This had been funded by the Rockefeller Foundation and had resulted in the purchase of thousands of books for European libraries. War conditions made it exceedingly difficult to continue the work of the program. It was therefore allowed to die when the funds were depleted in 1942.[3] Although there were setbacks as mentioned, ALA was

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[1]David H. Clift, "Report of the Executive Secretary," ALA Bulletin, XXXVI (October 15, 1942), 688.

[2]Ellsworth R. Young, "American Library in Paris," ALA Bulletin, 41-42.

[3]Clift, op. cit., 653.

engaged in a constantly expanding international program.

Council of National Library Associations

From time to time librarians had recognized the growing need to provide a more formalized system to encourage cooperation among the different national library associations. There was at this time a total of twenty-one national organizations, with an almost total lack of cooperation. Even the very loose affiliation with ALA meant very little in terms of coordination. This problem had been discussed in the report of ALA's Third Activities Committee, completed in 1939. According to the Committee, ALA was to blame for the proliferation of organizations:

> The Association has, unwittingly, acted in an autocratic and unprofessional manner toward group organization. The A.L.A. itself must be held primarily responsible for the formation of independent national library associations.[1]

The Committee report recommended that ALA should clearly express its willingness to appoint members to joint committees with other national associations which desired to do so. In response to this suggestion, several joint committees were appointed. In addition, a committee on relations with other national associations was appointed. This was only a false step, however, since the committee took no action at all. On June 19, 1941, the Special

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[1]"Report of the Third Activities Committee," ALA Bulletin, XXXIII (July, 1939), 389.

Libraries Association proposed that a Council of Library Associations be established to bring the organizations closer together.[1] The immediate reaction of ALA officials was to wonder about the motives of SLA in suggesting the organization. On this point, Milton Lord tried to reassure members of the Executive Board:

> We don't suspect from what we can find that there was any ulterior purposes of any great consequences, but more than anything else perhaps a burning desire to move ahead quickly and to show what can be done in an emergency situation.[2]

A resolution was then passed favoring cooperation and "coordination of library activities on a national scale." It called for a committee of three to meet with officers of SLA to explore the "interesting" proposal of a coordinating council. Keyes Metcalf, a member of the newly appointed committee, commented that he considered the use of the word "interesting" as sarcastic. President Charles Brown replied:

> Of course, in the strictest meaning of the word it is of interest. It is of great interest. But I am afraid of the interpretation that might be made. If it weren't funny, it would be the most interesting thing I have ever seen. It is almost entertaining. I think it is better to leave it out.[3]

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[1] "An Important Resolution," Special Libraries, XXXII (July-August, 1941), 201.

[2] ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, October 7, 1941.

[3] Ibid.

Two months later, on December 28, 1941, the Executive Board again discussed the SLA proposal. It was reported that SLA was interested in ways to form an organization which would not be dominated by ALA. Executive Secretary Milam stated that he suspected that:

> there are some motives in the S.L.A. which are deeper than a desire to become equal to the A.L.A. and to have a part in some of the enterprises which will recognize that equalness. There may be, in the back of their mind, that there should be for librarians something corresponding to the American Council of Learned Societies . . .[1]

President Brown expressed the opinion that ALA would have control in the new organization. He said, "It has enough allies in other associations, so that it has almost a determining voice."[2]

A Joint Committee on Relationships Between National Library Associations met with the Presidents of fifteen of the associations. The Committee then recommended that its own name be changed to the Council of National Library Associations. With Sidney R. Hill as chairman, the Council became a reality and met formally with ALA at the latter's annual conference in Milwaukee in 1942.[3] Unfortunately, hope for the Council was unduly

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of the Executive Board, December 28, 1941.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Hill was then President of the American Association of Law Libraries.

optimistic. Perhaps the organization's own goals were too broad: "to serve as a clearinghouse for information, a planning board, and a coordination board dealing with common problems."[1] Library Journal expressed the hope the time had arrived when there would no longer be "any room for mutual misunderstanding and petty differences" which had plagued the profession for so long. This editorial suggested that the first priority of the new Council should be to coordinate the war efforts of library organizations. Then as its long range goal, the Council would be in a position to "raise the level of public recognition of the profession."[2] President Brown of ALA expressed the hope that the Council would be able to weld together the diverse associations. But he felt that if it only served as an arena for discussion it would serve a very useful purpose.[3] The Council never really had an opportunity to try to achieve Brown's first idea, and it was only partially successful as an arena of discussion. The first signal of a problem came with a dispute over the inclusion of the word "coordination" in the Council's statement of purpose.

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[1]"Unity in the Profession," Library Journal, LXVII (February 15, 1942), 166.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Charles H. Brown, "Report of the President," Papers and Proceedings of the 1942 Annual Conference (Chicago, ALA, 1942), 648.

The word implied that the Council would have an authority which some of the associations did not wish to grant. The word was removed from the statement of purpose.[1] As a result of this dispute, the Council became an agency for cooperation rather than coordination. Two years later, Milton Lord was President of the Council when he reviewed its history for the newer members of the Executive Board:

> For those of you who may not be very familiar with the Council, it came into being a few years ago. I should say, advisedly, perhaps as an activity on the part of some other associations that were desirous of sharing in the eminent position of the American Library Association in some of the things it does and perhaps also on the part of some associations, and I think frankly on the part of some individuals interested in obtaining a place in the sun for themselves and their associations.[2]

Yet Lord now believed that the Council of National Library Associations had performed a useful function during its brief existence:

> One parting remark I might make about the Council is that whereas it was conceived in a certain amount of distrust or envy of the A.L.A., there is also a perfectly natural desire to take part in a cooperative activity. Let us not forget that, despite the other aspect of it, I think that it has evolved so far . . . into an activity in which there is a disappearance . . . of antagonism toward the A.L.A.[3]

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, December 28, 1941.

[2]ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, October 12, 1944.

[3]Ibid.

Deaths of Library Pioneers

The beginning of the war years saw the deaths of two men who had contributed enormously to the development of librarianship in America. The men were Frank P. Hill and Arthur E. Bostwick. Dr. Hill was one of the most important and influential librarians in the country. He had many of the characteristics of another pioneer, John Cotton Dana. Both were organizers and known for their business skills in directing libraries. Both were outspoken men who never hesitated to take an unpopular stand. A case in point illustrates this for Hill. In 1939 he was one of the very few librarians to take issue with ALA's protest of the appointment of MacLeish to the Library of Congress. Hill first gained recognition at the Newark Public Library. As its librarian Hill developed what is known as the Newark charging system for the circulation of books. He then went to the Brooklyn Public Library where he developed an extensive branch library system. Joining ALA in 1883, he had by his death in 1941 attended 50 conferences. In addition to valuable work on many committees, Hill served as ALA Secretary in 1895-96, and as its President in 1905-06. His greatest contribution to the Association, however, was with the fund drive during World War I. He not only reached the goal of $1,000,000, but exceeded it by almost half that amount. After doing

the necessary groundwork in the campaign, Hill saw the need to have the work centered in Washington close to the government. In a characteristic gesture he suggested that Herbert Putnam, as Librarian of Congress, should be the logical director of the campaign. The change was made, and as a result it was Putnam who received credit for the success of the program.[1]

Dr. Arthur E. Bostwick came to librarianship from an already established literary career. He had served as an editor of Forum Magazine, the Literary Digest, and Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography. Thus, when Bostwick turned to librarianship, his career there was rather exceptional; he never held a subordinate position in a library. His longest period of service was at the St. Louis Public Library, which he directed for almost thirty years. During that time Bostwick accepted an unusual appointment from ALA. For two months in 1925 he acted as a "library ambassador" to China. Chinese libraries were surveyed during his visit, and recommendations made for their improvement. He delivered addresses throughout China. Everywhere he traveled in the country he was showered with military and civilian attention. It

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[1]"Frank P. Hill," Library Journal, LXVI (September 15, 1941), 781.

was a remarkable reception for the American librarian.[1] After serving as President of the Association in 1907-08, he wrote The American Public Library, which details the early history of the public library movement.[2] Bostwick was the author of ten books and the editor of twelve other volumes. He was undoubtedly one of the most productive author-librarians of the modern period of librarianship.[3] When he died in 1942, the profession lost one of its most colorful and distinguished members.

Perhaps a more intimate loss for members of ALA was the death of Mrs. Henry J. Carr. She had been a member since 1882. Her husband served the Association successively as Treasurer, Recorder, Secretary, and President. Mrs. Carr's contribution was less important but more personal. From the forty-two conferences she had attended, Mrs. Carr had collected an extensive store of memorabilia and recollections. She loved to share both with conference-goers. Through the years she had acquired the designation as statistician and antiquarian of ALA.[4]

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[1]"The Seattle Conference," Library Journal, L (July, 1925), 595.

[2]Arthur E. Bostwick, The American Public Library (New York: Appleton, 1910).

[3]"Arthur Elmore Bostwick," Library Journal, LXVII (March 1, 1942), 216.

[4]"Mrs. Henry James Carr." ALA Bulletin, XXXV (January, 1941), 22.

Shortage of Librarians

The oversupply of trained librarians which had reached alarming proportions during the depression, ceased to be a problem as the country made a full economic recovery. The situation continued to improve as library schools reported even before the outbreak of the war that there was 100 per cent placement of their graduates. Because of this condition, there was no reserve of librarians to fill the unusual number of positions made available by the war. Hundreds of librarians left the profession to enter military service or defense work. Others took jobs in government libraries or in the newly established libraries of the Army and Navy.[1] While this depletion of the ranks was going on, a second factor was compounding the problem. Fewer people were entering the library schools. In 1942-43, there were only 1,200 students in the schools, compared with 1,800 students in 1940-41.[2] Not all of the decrease can be blamed on the demands of the military and defense activities, however. Perhaps an even more significant reason for the decline was the low salary level for librarians. The Personnel Division of ALA reported in October, 1943, that of the position

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[1] "The Librarian in Wartime," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (October 15, 1943), 358.

[2] Ibid.

requests received, over ninety-five per cent paid less than $2,000. The majority of the openings paid less than $1,700, and many were even under $1,500. These positions did not include any military, war industry, or military libraries. The report pointed out that a high school graduate without experience could command a salary of about $2,000 doing stenographic work. As a result of this situation, the Division reported a tremendous turnover of positions during the previous year. Higher paying positions were available elsewhere and librarians could not be expected to be so altruistic as to ignore the importance of compensation.[1]

The salary situation caused morale problems as well as recruitment problems in the library profession. Librarians in public libraries were often very poorly paid even after years of experience. Yet a young librarian recently out of library school could obtain a much larger salary by entering a defense-connected library. It was an unhappy situation which added considerably to the turnover problems in libraries. Another problem which had been troubling the profession for many years was pointed out by Dr. Charles C. Williamson in 1942. In his annual report for that year, he stressed the need for schools to

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[1] "Report of the Personnel Division," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (October 15, 1943), 365.

reconsider the degree system.[1] The prevailing system of granting a second baccalaureate degree for the first professional degree in library schools had long been under attack. After waiting for ALA and the Association of American Library Schools to do something about the problem, several schools took independent action. As Williamson noted, granting a master's degree for the first year of library school study was one alternative. A number of schools were considering it, but only one accredited school was willing to adopt it at this time. Such a program was in the view of many people, including Williamson, an undesirable lowering of the standards. The Board of Education for Librarianship was well aware of the problem, and indeed had been studying it for a number of years. The Board's annual report in 1943 indicated the committee concerned with the degree question had not been able to complete its study. The Board indicated a decision would probably not be forthcoming until after the end of the war.[2]

War and Post-War Institutes

Wartime restrictions on travel caused the

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[1]Williamson was Dean of the School of Library Service at Columbia University. His report is quoted in "Librarian Shortage," Library Journal, LXVIII (January 15, 1943), 126.

[2]"Annual Report," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (October 15, 1943), 361.

cancellation of both the Midwinter and the annual conference for 1943. The Executive Board of ALA proposed instead that a series of institutes should be held for the purpose of providing information about war and post-war problems. In suggesting the meetings the Board recognized that libraries and librarians could "make a substantial contribution to the enlightenment" of the people about vital issues. In doing so, librarians would encourage reading and thinking to help clarify questions. At the same time, librarians would have to avoid trying to impose conclusions of their own.[1] The Carnegie Corporation provided the funding for the institutes. The first in the series was the National Institute on War and Post-War Planning. This was held in Chicago, January 30-31, 1943, and was meant to serve as a demonstration of what could be done in later institutes held at the regional level. Due to war restrictions, attendance at this first meeting was restricted to about 200 librarians. A number of discussion sessions were held to consider the major problems and the role librarians should take. Speakers from other disciplines were invited to lead the discussions.[2] No effort was made to have a single pattern for the regional

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, October 15, 1942.

[2]Anita M. Hostetter, "Planning the A.L.A. Institutes," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (March, 1943), 72-3.

meetings which followed the National Institute. Many were single day meetings, and there was a tendency for the participants to be more concerned with practical applications than with general theoretical issues. In general, the reaction of librarians to these meetings was favorable. Most realized the importance of becoming better informed about national issues. Of course there were some dissenters who objected to this type of program. As Secretary Milam pointed out, these librarians wanted the Association to "stick to our knitting," and to be more concerned with library methods.[1]

There was an even greater concern within the membership over the extent of international activities of the Association. As Milam reported in his 1943 annual report, ALA had made an almost complete conversion to a wartime program. The conversation had included a great many international activities. Funding for these activities came from the Rockefeller Foundation and the federal government, rather than from internal monies.[2] President Althea Warren saw the Association's activities as a starfish, attempting to reach in five directions at the same time. These directions were: (1) to build a

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[1]Carl H. Milam, "Report of the Executive Secretary," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (October 15, 1943), 312.

[2]Carl H. Milam, "Report of the Executive Secretary," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (October 15, 1943) 310, 315.

relationship with our South American neighbors; (2) to help in rebuilding libraries in Europe by buying books for them; (3) to supply British troops stationed in North Africa with American publications; (4) to provide training programs for librarians so they would be ready to go into occupied countries at the close of the war; and (5) to continue the close cooperation with Mexico through the operation of the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin.[1] Miss Warren admitted these new directions were being challenged by some members. They asked: Why should the Association be so internationally concerned when two-thirds of the inhabitants of the United States had no library service? In her beautiful presidential address called "Salute to the Dawn," Miss Warren described the problems in terms of the war atmosphere. There were "icebergs and submarines" in ALA's organizational North Sea." However reluctantly, the membership had to face its international responsibilities, just as the nation had already been forced to do.[2] There could be no turning away from the responsibility, for either the country or ALA.

In addition to previously mentioned international activities, a new office was created within ALA which

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[1]Althea Warren, "Salute to the Dawn," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (September, 1943), 245.

[2]Ibid.

demonstrated the increased emphasis on international projects. This was the establishment of an International Relations Office during 1943 to act as a central office to handle all these activities.[1] Located in Washington, its first Director was Dr. Harry M. Lydenberg. Lydenberg had been Director of the New York Public Library. After his retirement he had administered the Biblioteca Benjamin Franklin. Funding for this new project came from the Rockefeller Foundation.[2] The grant of $25,000 covered the period from October 1, 1942, to December 31, 1944. Many of the activities carried out by this office were jointly sponsored by the State Department, the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and ALA. Additional funding very often came from philanthropic and educational foundations. A recounting of some of the foundation supported activities during 1943 will illustrate. Rockefeller Foundation funds were used to underwrite a microfilming project with the Canadian Library Council. This was a three year program for microfilming Canadian newspapers and other historical documents. The same foundation gave the Association $3,800 to pay for the cataloging of the Jalisco State Library in Guadalajara, Mexico. The Foundation provided

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[1]"International Relations Office," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (September, 1943), 271.

[2]"A.L.A. Grants Received During 1942," ALA Bulletin, XXXVII (February, 1943), 59.

$70,000 in 1943 for the purchase of scientific and scholarly periodicals to be distributed to European and Asian libraries after the war. The Julius Rosenwald Fund gave $800 for the publication of a reading list on racial problems in the United States. The Carnegie Corporation provided $5,000 for the purchase of scientific, technical, and reference books for Alaskan libraries.[1]

In the midst of the international efforts and the Victory Book Campaign, ALA was also planning for a peaceful post-war world. The previously mentioned institutes which were held throughout the country in 1943 dealt largely with post-war issues. Although these issues were usually international in nature, there were some domestic problems covered in the programs. Some of the domestic issues discussed were changes in community living, financial issues, agricultural problems, juvenile delinquency, and race relations.[2] The ALA Headquarters was also concerned with library development after the war. A study was undertaken to determine what library services would be needed to help ease the adjustment of demobilized servicemen and industrial workers to normal peacetime

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[1]"A.L.A. Grants Received During 1942," ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (February, 1943), 59-60.

[2]"Highlights from the A.L.A. Report," Library Journal, LXVIII (November 15, 1943), 955.

living.[1] Two librarians, Ralph Ulveling and Donald Corey, prepared a statement concerning the readjustment of librarians to demobilization. This report discussed the problems likely to be faced by librarians when they returned from military service or government positions: the probable dislocation of those who had filled their places during the war; and the possible problems of library administrators who would face new conditions affecting salaries, hours, and recruitment.[2]

A new set of standards for the nation's public libraries also showed the Association's forward-looking stance. Under the title Post-War Standards for Public Libraries a new set of professional guides and measurements was set forth. The standards called for a greater role for libraries in the years ahead. A "positive program of leadership" needed to be assumed by libraries:

> As a dynamic institution it offers to persons with certain intangible qualities opportunities for constructive service. The librarian should have a warmth of personality and should possess those qualities which mark him as a leader in the educational, cultural and civic life of the community.[3]

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[1]Carl Vitz, "Demobilization and the Library," ALA, 1943. (Mimeographed)

[2]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, October 9, 1943.

[3]ALA, Post-War Standards for Public Libraries, (Chicago: American Library Association, 1943), 75-76.

According to these standards, the future status of the profession would be determined by the success in maintaining and developing the services established under wartime conditions. Gains and improvement achieved because of the emergency should not be lost once the emergency is over. It was clearly up to the librarians to see that the forward momentum of libraries be continued.

Conference in Print, 1944

In 1944, as in 1943, wartime conditions prevented the Association from holding its annual conference. Instead, the papers and reports ordinarily delivered in person appeared in the ALA Bulletin. Retiring President Althea Warren reviewed the membership criticism in her address. In summary, the criticisms were as follows: Publications, especially the periodicals, offered little to the membership. The ALA Bulletin contained only a small amount of material valuable to the small library. At the same time, it did not have the "bookish" atmosphere which would make it attractive to large libraries. The ALA Handbook was small additional reward for the dues paid in. Many members felt there should be a choice of one of the divisional publications, such as College and Research Libraries. Similarly, the professional association did not seem to be sufficiently concerned with obtaining higher salaries and better working conditions for its members.

More attention needed to be given to classification and pay plans, members felt. Trustees had to be kept informed of rising salary schedules. Professional librarians could not be expected to continue to accept other compensations in lieu of higher salaries. Miss Warren also pointed out the members' concern over the tradition of having the leadership centered in a gerontocracy. Especially with the president it had seemed as if the choice had been confined to "the elderly and pretentious." Other associations, such as the National Education Association, practiced a rotation scheme to prevent this from happening.[1] But Miss Warren felt the blame for ALA's faults could not be placed entirely on the Association's structure or its leadership. She was critical of the members as well. With a total membership of over 15,000, fewer than 6,000 were active in either committees or even divisional membership. Therefore, more than one-half of the membership received nothing because they gave nothing to ALA.[2]

Incoming President Carl Vitz also wrote of the need to change, to plan for the future, and to profit from past mistakes. To President Vitz, the need for organization in terms of larger service units was primary. Local

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[1]Althea Warren, "Changes Ahead," ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (October 15, 1944), 414.

[2]Ibid., 415.

jealousies had to be overcome. Only through expanded service areas, with the resulting larger financial basis, could the public be adequately served. State-wide and national planning would be a necessity. He also called for a revision of library school curricula. In his view, library school training was too elementary. It was also too general. Greater expertise in administration, subject areas, and public relations was necessary. Vitz thought there was an acute need for a two-year program in library schools: the first year to be devoted to a core program, and the second year allowing for specialization.[1] Library educators were also criticized in this speech. Vitz said too many instructors were becoming strict academicians, too far removed from the actual library world. He suggested a program for teachers which would put them back into library situations every few years on an alternating basis. This would allow a sound practical basis in addition to the theoretical background most library school teachers would already have. This criticism was not new, of course, but it was perhaps the first time an ALA president had joined in the assault.

ALA Headquarters

In spite of the fact that ALA was not in very good

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[1]Carl Vitz, "The Time to Plan is Always Now," ALA Bulletin, XXXVIII (October 15, 1944), 411-12.

financial condition, an important purchase was announced in 1945. This was the acquisition of the Cyrus McCormick mansion in Chicago as the Association's first owned-Headquarters. The mansion was the central building of three residences on East Huron Street, and was purchased for $175,000.[1] The building's thirty-five rooms offered the much needed space for expanding activities and growing staff. Furthermore, the beauty and dignity of the old building seemed to be especially in keeping with the professional dignity of the Association. At a more practical level, there was sufficient land in the purchase should an entirely new building become necessary in the future of the Association.[2] It would be useful at this point to retrace the steps ALA had taken during its history in establishing a permanent headquarters.

The Headquarters of the Association in the beginning was simply the office of the Secretary, Melvil Dewey. Yet it is an oversimplification to say that ALA Headquarters was, for its first fifteen years, one of Melvil Dewey's desk drawers.[3] The official designation was made

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[1]Carl H. Milam, "News from the Executive Secretary," ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (May, 1945), 165.

[2]"A.L.A's New Home," ALA Bulletin, XXXI (June, 1945), 208.

[3]Fremont Rider, Melvil Dewey (Chicago: American Library Association, 1944), p. 70.

in April, 1879, when the Executive Board agreed to call his "Bibliothecal Museum" the "Office of the Association." The Museum was composed of two rooms at 32 Hawley Street in Boston. It was the Boston office of Library Journal and the center for Dewey's library supplies business. The Museum prospectus clearly shows the visionary spirit of Dewey: "There must be a library clearing-house for a score of different purposes--a librarian's Mecca, containing enough not to be found elsewhere, to repay something of a pilgrimage." The action of the Executive Board in accepting Dewey's offer was to sanction "an arrangement which had hitherto existed without vote."[1] The office moved around as different men accepted the job as Secretary. But it was the constant hope of many members that the day would come when the Association could afford its own offices. These members believed that the work of ALA could be expanded greatly, as expressed by George Isles in 1903:

> For years it had been plain that the work of this Association could be broadened and bettered if it had a headquarters at a leading center of library work. There might be gathered everything to inform the founder or the architect of a library, everything to aid a librarian in choosing books wisely, in making them attractive to his whole public.[2]

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[1]Green, op. cit., 78.

[2]George Isles, "A Headquarters for Our Association," Library Journal, XXVIII (July, 1903), 24.

Dewey was also rather visionary as what a headquarters should be and what services it should perform.

> We must have a great central clearinghouse not alone for duplicate books but also for ideas and methods. . . . The system of library institutes now in its early but vigorous infancy will develop, and methods, conductors, and inspiration will be found in the new headquarters for this form of library training. Definite teaching by correspondence as well as desultory advice will center here. . . .[1]

Dewey was careful to stress that the ALA Headquarters of the future should not undertake anything which could be done elsewhere, especially at the Library of Congress.[2] Arthur E. Bostwick, then of the New York Public Library, thought of the Headquarters as a form of social club, with a librarian's library and a museum. He also believed that it should be a publication house.[3] In view of the financial condition of ALA, all of the ideas were quite visionary. Isles, for example, had in mind a plan which would appear to be entirely beyond the means of the small Association:

> A million dollars would provide a suitable site, building and equipment, and would leave for

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[1]Melvil Dewey, "A National Headquarters for the Library Association," Library Journal, XXVIII (November, 1903), 757.

[2]Isles, op. cit., 758.

[3]Arthur E. Bostwick, "Organization and Administration," Library Journal, XXVIII (November, 1903), 761-62.

> endowment a sum which would greatly lift the efficiency of our libraries as a whole.[1]

Although the immediate result of this discussion was a failure because of lack of money, the Association was successful in 1906 in establishing its own Headquarters. The project was made possible by the combining of Association activities with those of its Publishing Board. Almost simultaneously with the move came the selection of E. C. Hovey to be in charge of the new offices. He was named "executive officer" of ALA in March, 1907. Hovey was not a librarian, but was very committed to library interests. He had previously been a trustee of the Brookline (Massachusetts) Public Library, but at the time of his appointment had no official connection with any library.[2] Under Hovey's direction, offices were obtained in Boston, still considered by many to be the center of the library world. The suite of offices was on Newbury Street, and contained four large rooms.[3] All work of the Association, including publishing, was expected to be done at this location. Hovey worked very hard at his new position and was very optimistic about the possibilities of obtaining

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[1]Isles, op. cit., 28.

[2]Virgil F. Massman, "From Out of a Desk Drawer . . . The Beginnings of ALA Headquarters," ALA Bulletin, LXIII (April, 1969), 478.

[3]Temporary offices had been established at 10½ Beacon Street, Boston, on April 22, 1905.

the needed funds to carry on the work there. Unfortunately, financial problems soon developed which indicated the Association had been premature in its expansion. Late in May, 1907, the Executive Board met to decide what to do.[1] October 1 was chosen as the date for closing the office unless financial support was received. On October 19, 1907, the Board met again to determine how it could terminate its lease prior to its expiration date.[2] Hovey was informed that the Association could no longer afford his services, and he resigned as of January 1, 1908. However, some executive direction was still provided in the person of Nina E. Browne, the Secretary of the Publishing Board.

The termination of the lease meant that the location of Headquarters was up for discussion. Discussion centered around New York, Washington, and Chicago as the most likely and appropriate cities for a national association.[3] However, the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh was the first organization to offer free space for ALA

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, May 27, 1907.

[2]"American Library Association," Library Journal, XXXII (November, 1907), 505-06.

[3][Editorial], Library Journal, XXXII (November, 1907), 478.

and this was tentatively accepted by the Executive Board.[1] However, because of what was termed the "weight of dissenting opinion," the decision was then postponed until the annual conference in 1908. At that time the Executive Board reversed its earlier decision and voted to move to Chicago.[2] An embarrassing situation developed when it was voted to accept the offer of free quarters in the new John Crerar Library of Chicago. Legal complications forced a delay in the construction of the building and ALA had to renew its lease in Boston. The A. C. McClurg Company of Chicago had also offered to allow the Association to establish its offices in the McClurg building free of charge, but this created a controversy. Many librarians felt that it would be inappropriate for the library organization to accept charity from a bookdealer. A resolution opposing the acceptance of the McClurg offer was passed at the Minnetonka conference in 1908. Public Libraries commented sarcastically:

> The fact that there are five floors devoted to offices and various other classes of business between the space allotted to the ALA and the book store did not seem to offer sufficient safety in the minds of some, to the morals of the unwary librarians who might wander into headquarters.[3]

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, October 19, 1907.

[2] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, June 27, 1908.

[3] [Editorial], Public Libraries XIII (October, 1908), 309.

The move to Chicago became a reality in 1909 when the Chicago Public Library offered a large room and free utilities for the use of ALA.[1] The Chicago Library Club offered to supply the office furnishings and to pay for the move from Boston. This was accepted by the Executive Board and the new Headquarters were opened on September 1, 1909.[2]

As the years passed, there were frequent discussions about the need for additional space and the desirability of moving to another city. The 1923 conference at Hot Springs, Arkansas, provided one such opportunity. At that time, the Council requested the Executive Board to prepare a list of cities suitable for the Headquarters.[3] Frank P. Hill noted that voting on a new location was probably a waste of time. As Hill said:

> The trouble with this Association is that it votes today in favor of one thing and tomorrow or next week or at the latest next year we take an exactly opposite stand on the same question.

On the day following the Council's request, the Executive Board presented the following list of cities as possible sites for the Headquarters: Boston, Chicago, New York,

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[1]"A.L.A. Headquarters and New Constitution," Library Journal, XXXIV (August, 1909), 333.

[2]"American Library Association Executive Office in Chicago," ALA Bulletin, III (November, 1909), 463.

[3]ALA, Proceedings of Council, April 23, 1923.

[4]Ibid.

Philadelphia, and St. Louis. It also recommended that no further action be taken on the question until sufficient funds had been accumulated to indicate that a building would be possible.[1] The suggestion was made that there should be no vote on the city because some people would not contribute to a building fund if they knew where the building would be.[2]

After fifteen years at the Chicago Public Library, occupying space provided free of charge by the Library, ALA moved to the John Crerar Library in Chicago in 1924. This move was made possible by a grant of $7,500 from the Carnegie Corporation.[3] The grant helped to defray the cost of moving, as well as subsidized the payment of rent. It was hoped that the successful completion of the Endowment Fund would enable the Association to be able to afford the rent at some future time. The new quarters in the John Crerar Library were on the ninth floor, and were never adequate. The Headquarters staff had grown to fifty by 1924, and several activities, such as publishing had to be continued at the Chicago Public Library.[4] The new quarters

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[1] ALA, Proceedings of Council, April 24, 1923.

[2] Ibid.

[3] [Editorial], Library Journal, XLIX (May 1, 1924), 428.

[4] Utley, op. cit., 15.

were an improvement over what had previously been available, but became less adequate and satisfactory as time went on. Although no new building was possible at this time, it was becoming evident that something had to be done about the office accomodations. By 1928, according to Library Journal, ALA had the "most extensive, expensive and effective" staff of any of the "learned societies."[1] The size of the staff and the extent of the activities inevitably led to space problems. Forrest B. Spaulding visited Headquarters at the John Crerar Library and wrote of the situation. He compared it to the black hole of Calcutta and the filled sardine can.[2] The problem had worsened because between 1917 and 1928 the ALA staff had increased eightfold. During that time the office space had only doubled. New quarters were desperately needed. The obvious answer to many people was to purchase a building or to construct a new building. However, the building fund amounted to only $600. in 1929. It was therefore necessary to secure a lease on larger office quarters rather than to build or buy a building. A selection committee from the staff narrowed the choice to three sites: the Chicago Evening Post building on Wacker

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[1][Editorial], Library Journal, LIII (April 1, 1928), 316.

[2]Forrest B. Spaulding, "Two Days at A.L.A. Headquarters," ALA Bulletin, XXIII (February, 1929), 35.

Drive; the DePaul University building on Lake Street; and the McGraw-Hill building on Michigan Avenue. The Evening Post building was eliminated because of the undesirable physical quarters. The DePaul building was eliminated because of staff objections to the nature of the school. Carl Milam called it a:

> Catholic school of mostly sundown character and rather low grade, if one may judge from the general impression he gets of the students who come there.[1]

The staff, according to Milam, was depressed by the low ceilings of the rooms and the presence of the students. Milam also disliked:

> the atmosphere that was created by the students who were using the lobbies for a campus, as well as the sidewalks.[2]

The result was an unanimous vote for the McGraw-Hill building, and the move was made to it on May 1, 1929. There the Association stayed until it was able to purchase the McCormick mansion in 1945.

The use of the old mansion was only a temporary solution to the problem, however. Within ten years officials of the Association realized that the building was costly and inefficient. It was seriously in need of repairs. Future maintenance costs and other considerations

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Executive Board, December 27, 1928.

[2]Ibid.

caused the Executive Board to appoint a subcommittee to look into the whole matter of location of Headquarters. The subcommittee report was submitted to the Executive Board at the 1957 Mid-winter conference. Based on the following reasons, the report indicated that the Association should move to Washington:

(1) The move would eliminate the need to maintain a second office close to Congress;

(2) Washington was more convenient to non-library associations, institutions, and other agencies with which the ALA maintained relations;

(3) Washington was more convenient to a majority of the membership.[1]

In making its recommendation, the subcommittee admitted that:

> No ground swell of membership opinion has yet supported this suggestion to move to Washington, yet the opinion of a few informed members had persistently supported it.[2]

By a majority vote the Executive Board accepted the report and directed that it be placed on the Council agenda during the 1957 annual conference. On June 24 in Kansas City, the Executive Board presented the following

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, November 11, 1955.

[2] Ibid.

recommendation to the Council:

> That the Executive Board be authorized to negotiate the sale of the present property and their rental, purchase, or construction of other quarters with a view towards moving on or before January 1, 1959.
>
> That the new quarters be located in downtown or near-downtown Washington, provided a suitable arrangement can be made at reasonable cost. If it cannot, that a new Chicago site be sought.[1]

After considerable debate the Council approved both of the resolutions, which ordinarily would have been the final decision. However, acting in accordance with the provisions of the constitution, a group of members filed a petition to set aside the action of the Council on the second resolution. The constitution provided for a mail ballot by the membership. The response to the question was an overwhelming rejection of the move to Washington.[2] Thus the membership in effect approved the acquisition of a new Headquarters building by 1959. At the same time, it was made clear by the membership that ALA should remain in Chicago.

Later in 1945 after the purchase of the property on Huron Street, ALA also announced the establishment of a Washington office. It will be remembered that throughout

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[1] ALA, Proceedings of Council, June 24, 1957.

[2] The vote in favor of Washington was 2,100, and for Chicago 5,749.

the history of the Association there had been some sentiment for relocating Headquarters in Washington. The value of being close to the seat of an increasingly active federal government was readily apparent.[1] The earlier establishment of an International Relations Office by the Association demonstrated the value of having a representative in Washington. However, its purpose was much more restricted than was intended for the new office. The new office, under the direction of Paul Howard, had three main functions:

(1) The initial concern was over an announced federal research program and the role librarians would play in it.[2] There had been various proposals for increased federal participation in research projects, with some evidence of official awareness of library needs. An important report of the Committee on Science and Public Welfare had increased this awareness. The report emphasized the importance of library and bibliographic services to research programs. It also suggested an appropriate governmental

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[1]"Is Your Question Here?" ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (February, 1945), 55.

[2]Paul Howard, "The Washington Scene," Library Journal, LXX (December 1, 1945), 1129.

agency should give consideration to problems of interlibrary cooperation, abstracting and translating services, and reference services. The report proposed the use of federal funds in solving these problems.[1]

(2) A closer relationship with the Office of Education in particular, and library-related agencies in general. Officials of the Association had often felt hampered in their contacts with government agency officials because of the geographic separation.[2]

(3) Although many librarians felt an almost instinctive repugnance over the word "lobby" because of past experience, the Washington office was clearly meant to perform in this capacity. Following the lead of other organizations, ALA was going to strengthen its influence by establishing an office close to Congress.[3]

To support its new Washington office, the Association embarked on a new campaign for money. This was the

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[1]Paul Howard, "A.L.A. Washington Office Established," Library Journal, LXX (October 15, 1945), 970.

[2]"A Matter That Concerns Us All," ALA Bulleton, XXXIX (January, 1945), 2.

[3]Muriel E. Perry, "The Library Development Fund," ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (November, 1945), 454.

Library Development Fund, which was planned to extend over a five year period. Both the fund and the Washington office were started at the suggestion of Althea Warren.[1] During a Council meeting in October, 1944, Miss Warren spoke of the many benefits which would be derived from having a full-time representative in Washington to promote library interests. She concluded her remarks by moving that such an office be established, and a campaign be held to raise money for the office. One year later the office had been established and the campaign for funds completed. Secretary Carl Milam reported at the close of the campaign that $87,645 had been collected; the original goal had been $105,000. Although that goal was not reached, the amount collected was remarkable in view of the war-time conditions.

Summary

World War II dominated this period of ALA history. It prevented the holding of conferences, which resulted in "conferences in print" or the published papers usually given in person. The war resulted in two major book campaigns and drives for funds to support library defense work. During this time the Association also increased its activities in international relations. Many projects, such

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, October 14, 1944.

as the Bibliotheca Benjamin Franklin and the Books for Latin America program, were administered by ALA.

Two domestic problems also confronted the Association. The unemployment situation of the previous period was resolved, and then turned into a serious shortage of librarians. Two major reasons accounted for this: the inadequate salaries in domestic libraries, and the demands of military and defense operations. The second problem facing ALA and the profession was the lack of coordination of effort. This had been evident for some time. A Council of National Library Associations was formed to overcome this problem. However, opposition developed and the powers of the new Council were severely limited.

In 1945 the Association finally obtained its own Headquarters building. After almost seventy years of making use of free or rented quarters, ALA purchased the old McCormick mansion in Chicago. Although the buildings purchased were old, the property was valuable. Thus it appeared that in terms of an investment, the organization had made a wise move.

CHAPTER X

POST-WAR PROGRESS AND REORGANIZATION

The cessation of hostilities in Europe and then in Asia meant a sudden change in priorities for librarians. Readjustments to a peacetime world became a matter of prime importance to the profession, as it was to the rest of the country. The abrupt release of millions of people from military and defense activities meant a massive displacement of civilian personnel which had to be softened as much as possible. Advanced education was one of the methods used, and it proved to have an immense appeal. One of the major factors was the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, better known as the "G.I. Bill of Rights." Even preliminary estimates indicated that two million young people in the service might take advantage of the educational provisions of the law.[1] The impact of demobilization was felt immediately by the library schools. For the first time since 1940, when the decline in enrollments began, there was an increase reported in the number of

[1] "Education," Americana Annual, 1946, p. 249.

students over the previous year. The thirty-two accredited schools showed a total enrollment of 1,032 students in the fall of 1945.[1] Most library schools indicated a willingness to be flexible in their requirements for the returning veterans. Among the adaptations were: refresher courses, admission of students at irregular times, and the general acceptance of college credit for experience and educational training obtained while in the armed forces. These concessions were common among institutions of higher learning after the war.[2]

Internal Problems

While the old problems continued, and new projects proliferated, a serious question faced ALA and its membership. What direction should the organization take in the post-war world? The question was often posed and often debated.[3] A similar problem had faced the organization after World War I, and insufficient planning had helped to lead to the embarrassing debacle of the Enlarged Program. The leaders of the Association were anxious that

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[1]Anita M. Hostetter, "Enrollments in Library Schools," ALA Bulletin, IXL (February, 1945), 100.

[2]Margery C. Quigley, "The Librarian in Wartime and After: Board of Education for Librarianship," ALA Bulletin, IXL (October 15, 1945), 381.

[3]Marian C. Manley, "A.L.A.'s Growth and Grass Roots," ALA Bulletin, IXL (January, 1945), 6-7.

the same mistake would not be made again. There were many demands on the resources of the Association, and there would be new ones to be faced in the future. Part of the problem was the fact that programs had been allowed to proliferate without adequate planning and control. Some projects were undertaken largely because funding was available through a foundation or from the federal government. The funding rarely compensated the Association completely for the time and effort consumed by these activities. Thus an additional burden was placed on the main financial structure of the Association, which was derived from the dues paid by members. This also meant less money would be available for worthwhile projects proposed by the membership.[1] Dissension was the ultimate result of this situation. There was also a serious question as to whether all of the activities were truly legitimate for a voluntary professional association. Were not some actually the function of society in general, working through governmental agencies? There was already evidence of duplication of effort between ALA and the government. For example, there was a public library specialist on the headquarters staff and a similar specialist in the Library Services Division of the United

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[1]Paul Howard, "Whither A.L.A.?," ALA Bulletin, XL (October 1, 1946), 304.

States Office of Education. There was like duplication of personnel in service to schools and to children. A logical extension of this duplication would be to provide specialists in college work, library extension, and young adult work in both ALA and the Office of Education. One function of a national library association should certainly be to ascertain what services are needed, and then to decide which agencies should provide them. Some services can best be provided by governmental units, and some services can be provided most effectively by a professional association.[1] The Association needed to define more specifically its own role in the profession and in society.

This lack of overall direction led to an impasse in several areas within ALA in 1945 and 1946. The most serious problem was with the Association of College and Research Libraries.[2] This was not a new problem area. The ACRL's predecessor, the College and Reference Section, had often accused ALA of neglecting scholarly and bibliographic work. Dissatisfaction was so strong in 1930 that there was considerable pressure to withdraw from ALA. The First Activities Committee, established to review the work of ALA, found there was justification for the unhappiness.

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[1] Ibid., 305.

[2] Hereafter referred to as the ACRL.

It recommended greater activity in scholarly fields as a partial solution to the problem.[1] Eight years later, the Third Activities Committee also criticized ALA for its treatment of the divisions, and especially the ACRL. The Committee's report stated that divisions were not encouraged to develop any strength. Instead, ALA had taken away responsibility and authority from the divisions. To improve the situation, the Third Activities Committee suggested that divisions:

> establish a more permanent form of government, receive as income a share of the dues of the Association, participate through elected representatives in its policy-making program, and direct within their own fields.[2]

The particular responsibility of ACRL, as defined in its constitution, was to direct a program of activities that would advance the standards of library service in college, university, research, and reference libraries. This program was to be designed to promote the continued professional growth of librarians practicing in those fields. To carry out its program, ACRL in 1945 had an income of $1,753. This was in spite of the fact that it had a total membership of 223 who had paid in $7,000 to ALA for dues. As the 1945-46 ACRL president declared, this was a

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[1] "A.L.A. Activities Committee Report,: ALA Bulletin, XXIV (December, 1930), 660.

[2] "Final Report of the Third Activities Committee," ALA Bulletin, XXXIII (December, 1939), 783.

"starvation" program in which all areas suffered. There were other serious problems preventing efficient service, but the financial arrangements were undoubtedly the major stumbling block.[1] The members of ACRL believed that it was time for a change. Expressions of sympathy and understanding, so frequently given in the past by ALA, would no longer be acceptable to the division. President Blanche McCrum of ACRL assured the ALA members there was no desire "to climb on the fallen bodies of its sister divisions." But she made it clear that ACRL had reached the moment of decision regarding its status as a division of ALA.[2] Now it was necessary for the parent organization to make the modifications necessary to preserve the relationship between the two groups.

The immediate result of the increasing hostility was the appointment of a Committee on the Relations of the ACRL to the ALA. The Committee made its report at the 1946 ALA conference in Buffalo. Seldom in the history of the Association had a committee report caused as much controversy. The chief response to the report was the accusation that ACRL was trying to split ALA.[3] However,

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[1]Blanche McCrum, "The A.C.R.L.: Milestone, 1946," ALA Bulletin, XL (April, 1946), 118.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Charles H. Brown, "The A.C.R.L. and the A.L.A.," Library Journal, LXXI (August, 1946), 1005.

the Committee had voted at its first meeting that ACRL should remain within the Association if reasonable changes could be made. The Committee was unanimous in its belief that the autonomy promised in the constitution and the by-laws of ALA must be delivered to the divisions. If autonomy were not forthcoming in the foreseeable future, then separation from ALA would probably be necessary.[1] In the hope that changes could be effected, the Committee made the following recommendations for the improvement of relations between the two organizations:

(1) The location of ACRL headquarters should be in a college or university near Chicago, rather than at ALA headquarters. This was an unusual recommendation, but it was perhaps logical. As the committee pointed out, institutions of learning were often willing to provide space, staff, and other services either free or at a reduced rate to such organizations because of the prestige involved. This had been the case with the periodical College and Research Libraries, the organ of ACRL. The editorial functions were performed at Columbia University, and at less expense than would have been the case at

[1] Ibid., 1006.

ALA Headquarters. Being housed at ALA Headquarters would mean that the ACRL would be charged a proportionate amount for overhead, including salaries of administrative officers, clerks, and other employees of ALA.

(2) The ACRL would collect its own dues from its members and turn over a proportionate amount to ALA. The fact that the division received in 1946 only one-fifth of its dues was particularly galling to the division. If this proposal was adopted, the opposite situation would exist. As opponents pointed out, ALA would be forced to go "hat in hand" to ACRL for money. That would be a demeaning position for a national organization, but it was exactly the position which the ALA had put its divisions.

(3) Control over the use of endowment funds should be by a more democratic organization. These funds were largely from the Carnegie Corporation, but some of the money had been obtained from memberships as a part of the endowment program. In the past there had been some distribution of funds to activities concerning college and reference librarians. According to ACRL, however, their organization

had not been represented on the governing board of the endowment fund, or even consulted regarding the distribution of funds. Decisions affecting large groups of members should be made by those affected, rather than in the paternalistic fashion resorted to in the past.

(4) The Committee suggested that ALA respond to its recommendations by the end of the year. If a reorganization along these general principles were not being carried out at that time, the committee promised to proceed as "rapidly as possible with proposals for the organization of a separate association."[1] This was widely interpreted within ALA as an ultimatum to act or face the consequences. However, in view of the long delays encountered in the past in getting a response from ALA, the statement seems to be reasonable. An example of a previous delay was in the request for a college library specialist. In 1932 the ALA Council approved the request of the College Library Advisory Board for the position. Fourteen years later, it was noted,

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[1] ALA, Report of Committee on the Relations of the ACRL to the ALA, 1946. (Typewritten)

the position had still not been funded.

Portunately, the ALA Cpuncil and the Executive Board on June 17, 1946, acceded to most of the demands of ACRL. The Council agreed to give encouragement and assistance to all divisions wishing to increase their autonomy within their own fields of interest. It was agreed that the proportion of dues going to the divisions would be reconsidered. An Executive Secretary for ACRL was approved, pending the availability of funds. Perhaps the most significant statement was the following:

> The Executive Board believes that the idea of the ALA as a federation of autonomous organization is worthy of exploration by all library organizations in the United States and Canada.[1]

The only recommendation of ACRL which was not covered in the Council's response was in regard to the location of the division's headquarters. In general, it seemed to be a calm, accomodating response to ACRL. This was underlined by Carl Milam's statement to the Council regarding ACRL's complaints:

> . . . I am sure you recognize that they stem from a genuine dissatisfaction with our present machinery and represent an earnest desire to make the Association and all its parts more effective instruments for the advancement of libraries and librarianship.[2]

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, June 17, 1946.

[2]Carl Milam, "Executive Secretary's Report to Council," ALA Bulletin, XL (July, 1946), 233.

Over a period of several years, significant changes were made in the relationship between the Association and its divisions. One important result of the new attitude was the appointment of an Executive Secretary for each of the divisions.[1] Another was the more equitable allocation of funds from the dues collected, which took even longer to achieve. During the 1952 Midwinter conference the Executive Board agreed to an experimental arrangement for one year. This was a division of monies from dues on a "sixty-forty" basis. Under this system, ALA would receive forty per cent of the dues income, and each division would receive sixty per cent of the money paid in by its members. Devised in 1950, this plan was first applied to ACRL in 1951.[2] For most of the divisions the plan meant a sharp increase in their budget. The third response of ALA to its divisions was an attempt at decentralization. This was apparent in the placing of more responsibility with the divisions. The appointment of divisional Executive Secretaries made the decentralization even more important. It was obvious that a clear demarcation between their responsibilities and those of ALA Executive Secretary was necessary if chaos were to be avoided. An initial step in

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[1]Loleta Fyan, "Report of the President to Council," ALA Bulletin, XLVI (March, 1952), 77.

[2]John M. Cory, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, XLV (July-August, 1951), 237.

this direction was the series of meetings which the Executive Board held with divisional officers in 1952.[1] During these meetings it was possible for misunderstandings to be cleared up, and for problems to be discussed openly. These responses, of course, did not satisfy all of the critics. The ALA had seemed to act in part to stem the growing demand for a form of federation: greater freedom to the divisions was a more desirable alternative to ALA leadership than federation. The Association also seemed to be evolving towards a more democratic organization. This was pointed out by Robert B. Downs, President in 1952, in his inaugural address:

> Through democratic processes of change over the years, the Association has continued to be fully responsive to the evolving needs of the profession. . . . At the same time, a high degree of autonomy has been achieved, to prevent the activities of any group from being unduly hampered or restricted by an all-powerful headquarters organization.[2]

Surely some people would have found reason to dispute Downs' view of Headquarters in relation to the divisions. Few people, however, would disagree with the observation that ALA was trying to become a more democratic organization.

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, January 30, 1952.

[2]Robert B. Downs, "One Library World," ALA Bulletin, XLVI (July-August, 1952), 215.

Librarian Shortage and the Schools' Responses

One of the most serious problems facing the profession in 1947 was the acute shortage of librarians. In part this shortage was a result of the war. The wartime economy had forced salaries upward in almost all fields. But librarians had not benefited enough from the general increases awarded. Most libraries, in fact, lost grounds in terms of keeping pace with rising costs. The natural result of restricted budgets was a level of compensation which was not competitive with other professions. A survey by the ALA Board of Personnel Administration revealed that hundreds of professional librarians had still not reached the recommended minimum salary of $2,100. Positions in libraries paying poor salaries often went without any applicants, since even inexperienced librarians had a number of jobs to consider.[1] The report of the Placement Office of ALA in 1947 gives an indication of the situation. There were 2,232 requests to fill positions, as compared with 1,653 positions listed during the previous year. For those positions there were only 401 librarians registered, and most of them already had positions. Enrollment in the library schools was up significantly over 1946,

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[1] "Annual Report of Board on Personnel Administration," ALA Bulletin, XLI (October 15, 1947), 383.

but the increase was not enough to meet the demand.[1] It had been estimated in 1944 that a total of 18,000 additional librarians would be required to meet the demand until 1951. Later, ALA increased the estimate to an additional 64,160 librarians needed between 1947 and 1960. The shortage in 1947 alone was believed to be in excess of 4,900 librarians.[2]

The response of the Board of Education for Librarianship and the library schools was directed into two areas. The first was in increased recruiting of young people into the profession. This activity was hampered by the lack of special funding for the project, and was basically intended to instill in professional librarians a sense of personal responsibility for recruiting. While promoting increased enrollments, library educators apparently rejected the idea of additional schools for training librarians. The Board of Education warned against taking precipitate action in meeting the shortage of librarians, and this included the establishment of new agencies for their preparation.[3] At this point, however, the accredited library schools estimated that they could

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[1]"Library Progress," New International Yearbook, 1947, p. 400.

[2]"Annual Report of Office of Placement and Personnel Records," ALA Bulletin, XLI (October 15, 1947), 387-88.

[3]"Annual Report of Board of Education for Librarianship," ALA Bulletin, XLI (October 15, 1947), 378-79.

add 700 students to the 1,800 enrolled in 1947. Obviously, if the projected shortage figures were correct, the schools would continue to be inadequate in erasing the deficit. The second area of activity was in proposals for undergraduate work in library science. This, too, seemed to be included in what the Board of Education termed "precipitate action," for its response was less than enthusiastic. There was a number of advantages to be gained by the introduction of some library science courses at the undergraduate level. Among these were: (1) to provide a basic education in the field, on which a graduate program could justifiably be built; (2) to serve as a recruiting device for young people in college who might not otherwise be aware of the existence of the profession; (3) to provide the necessary preparation for positions which do not really require five years of college work.[1] There were problems, of course, related to such a departure from the established type of program. For the library schools it would mean having to determine whether or not to accept students with such a baccalaureate degree. For the schools which did accept the degree there would have to be revision of the curriculum in order to provide a more advanced form of

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[1]Board of Education for Librarianship, "Undergraduate Courses in Library Science," ALA Bulletin, XLI (March, 1947), 70.

instruction.[1] For employing libraries there would have to be a change in classification of employees to accomodate persons with the new undergraduate degree.

The Board of Education for Librarianship suggested in a policy statement that it hoped there would be a great deal of thinking on the matter "and some experimentation."[1] This statement would seem to suggest that experimentation was not really advocated. However, the Board of Education did approve one program in 1947 which was a radical departure from the established pattern. The College of Librarianship of the University of Denver began in that year to offer a group of undergraduate courses to be taken by students in their senior year. The degree was to be the regular baccalaureate degree. The fifth year program would include graduate courses in both library science and in subject areas. This program would then lead to a master's degree in library science. The experience gained by the University of Denver in this experiment would be of value to other library schools considering a revision of their curricula.[3]

As the experimentation in curricula continued,

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Harriet E. Howe, "The New Program at the University of Denver," ALA Bulletin, XLI (November, 1947), 450-53.

however, the Board of Education for Librarianship realized that a serious problem was developing. During 1948 and early 1949 the Board gave its approval to the programs of a few library schools on an experimental basis. This did not constitute accreditation, however, according to the Board. Members of the Board stated that experimentation was desirable and was to be encouraged. It was not yet ready to evaluate completely the new programs, since the standards for accreditation then in effect were clearly inadequate. Thus, the Board, at its meetings on June 6-8, 1949, decided that provisional approach of any more new programs would be unwise. In effect the Board told library schools not to propose any new programs until new standards could be developed. This moratorium would be of an indefinite length because funds had not yet been obtained for a preliminary study.

As might be expected, the moratorium was not universally well-received. Schools which had already submitted new programs to the Board were in some respects in a favorable position. Although accreditation was not given, at least there was an "approval" to go ahead with the program. Schools which had not formally submitted a program were somewhat less fortunate. The Board promised only to review and comment on their proposals. Furthermore, the statement of the Board had the effect of discouraging further experimentation. This was accomplished

by its suggestion that library schools "Postpone the establishment of the new programs until minimum requirements" can be established. In one of the most scathing editorials ever printed in Library Journal, this decision was called "pontifical" and "officious." The control which the Board of Education had over library education was called "strangulatory" and amounted to a closed shop. The editorial commented that differences between library schools should be encouraged; there was a danger in requiring that the programs of Columbia, Illinois, and Berkeley "be like peas in a pod." In a final slap at the Board of Education the editorial suggested that the day for setting standards was over. Standards were needed in the early days of library education, but they had outlived their usefulness.[1] Jerrold Orne, Director of Libraries of Washington University, criticized the Board for its neglect of the so-called "unrecognized" library schools: schools which offered extensive undergraduate work in library science. The absence of the "stamp of the union," as he put it, did not accurately reflect what these programs were accomplishing. Yet both the schools and their students suffered because of the stand taken by the

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[1] "Library Schools' Opportunity," Library Journal, LXXI (November 1, 1949), 1642.

Board of Education, according to Orne.[1]

The moratorium on accrediting graduate programs continued far longer than it was originally believed necessary. Board of Education members thought the revision of the standards would take a relatively short period of time. Delays in funding and over agreement on guidelines were the major problems. Because it was thought that the process would not take long, when accreditation was suspended the thirty-six schools then accredited were allowed to remain on the accredited list until the new standards could be put into operation. Working with the Association of American Library Schools and the Library Education Division of ALA, the Board of Education for Librarianship produced the new standards for accreditation in 1951. Accepted by the Council in July, 1951, the standards were then delayed by another agency.[2] The National Commission on Accrediting placed a moratorium on all accrediting programs for 1951-52.[3] The purpose of the moratorium was to give that agency opportunity to make a survey of all accrediting organizations. At the same time,

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[1]Jerrold Orne, "Unrecognized Library School Offers Training Opportunities," Library Journal, LXXIV (November 1, 1949), 1626.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Council, July 13, 1951.

[3]Anita M. Hostetter, "Accrediting Programs of ALA Board of Education for Librarianship," ALA Bulletin, XLVI (February, 1952), 51.

the Commission suggested that accrediting agencies work with the regional accrediting associations in the development of institution-wide accreditation. This suggestion provoked a great amount of criticism from many quarters. The result was a revised statement which recognized that not all of the regional associations were ready to assume the problem for over-all accreditation of institutions.[1] During an experimental period the Board of Education for Librarianship agreed to work with the regional associations in developing the concept of institution-wide accreditation. In the meantime, the Board was to establish, maintain, and apply its own standards. With this compromise effected, the Board of Education resumed the accreditation of schools based on the standards adopted in 1951.

A second part of the revised accrediting procedures was to establish revised standards for undergraduate library science programs. These programs had long been a problem for the profession. In 1934 the Board of Education for Librarianship had presented to the Council its "Minimum Requirements for Teacher-Librarian Training Agencies." At that time, Keyes Metcalf, Chairman of the Board of Education, said:

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[1]"Program Letter No. 3," National Commission on Accrediting, January 29, 1953.

> The Board is a bit embarrassed in seeming in this way to approve of any standards below those of the regular schools, but it realizes that we must face the situation.[1]

As Metcalf pointed out, there were in 1934 thirty library schools giving a one year program in library science. But there were 150 schools which offered library science courses at the undergraduate level. The ALA could not ignore the undergraduate programs or refuse to set standards for them, according to Metcalf.[2] The difficulty remained in 1952, so it was still necessary to set guidelines for the institutions involved. In February, 1952, the Board of Education presented its new standards to the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. That organization began to apply them experimentally in 1952-53. These standards, however, were to be used simply as guidelines in the overall evaluation process. The Board of Education decided not to assume responsibility for accrediting the undergraduate programs.[3]

Planning for the Future

During 1947 ALA completed one study and began another study which were both important milestones in

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[1]ALA, Proceedings of Council, December 28, 1934.

[2]Ibid.

[3]"Library Progress," New International Yearbook, 1952, p. 310.

library planning. These studies helped to answer the frequent criticism that national library planning was almost non-existent.[1] Several years work had gone into the formulation of the National Plan for Public Library Service, which was released and adopted at the 1947 conference of ALA.[2] This plan was primarily the result of the efforts of the Postwar Planning Committee, whose chairman was Carleton B. Joeckel of the University of Chicago. The plan was the most visionary and most ambitious blueprint for action which the Association had ever produced. Its basic premise was that all Americans should receive library service, and that existent library arrangements were inadequate to provide that service. Under the provisions of the plan, the 7,500 public library agencies in existence in 1947 would be supplemented by 1,200 large unit libraries. The large unit libraries would have a "second-line" multi-state reference centers which would provide assistance when needed. Each state would have an effective state library agency. At the top of this pyramid would be a national bibliographic and library center, the Library of Congress. An essential feature of this pyramid would be its interlocking federated system.

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[1]John S. Richards, "The National Plan for Public Library Service," ALA Bulletin, XLI (September 1, 1947), 283.

[2]"The National Plan," ALA Bulletin, XLI (August, 1947), 249.

The program would not be inexpensive. The plan called for a per capita expenditure of $1.50 for minimum service and $3.00 for superior service. No unit would receive less than $37,500 annually. The annual cost for services would be $200,000,000; the cost for new and enlarged buildings would be $500,000,000; the cost of stocking new and sub-standard libraries would reach $175,000,000. The plan also called for new and improved types of service, more extensive use of audio visual materials, and improved library methods.[1] This was indeed revolutionary, and perhaps too visionary, a proposal for the time. Funding was not available, and the American people had not yet been educated to the point of viewing adequate library service as a necessity, rather than a luxury. As Carl Milam so succinctly put it in his annual report, the Association with its National Plan was "all dressed up and no place to go."[2]

The second study was the Public Library Inquiry, which was first proposed in 1946 and which got under way in April, 1947. This two year study was to investigate how well the existing public libraries were servicing American communities. Part of the plan was to help decide

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Carl Milam, "Executive Secretary's Report," ALA Bulletin, XLI (October 15, 1947), 337.

whether public libraries should be the future custodians of films, television, and non-commercial radio. Although proposed by ALA, the Inquiry was to be the responsibility of the Social Science Research Council. The intent in doing this was to insure a study on broad social terms rather than in narrow professional terms. Funding came from the Carnegie Corporation in a grant of $175,000 for the two-year program.[1]

Dr. Robert D. Leigh, former president of Bennington College, was appointed to conduct the Inquiry. In addition to his background in education, Dr. Leigh was experienced in analyzing major American institutions. He had completed studies of mass communications, secondary education, and higher education in New York. A special committee of the Social Science Research Council was chosen to supervise the study. Its members were Ralph A. Beals, Director of the New York Public Library; J. Frederic Dewhurst, economist of the Twentieth Century Fund; Donald Marquis, psychologist from the University of Michigan; Mary U. Rothrock, ALA President, Richard H. Shyrock, professor of American History at the University of Pennsylvania and acting director of the American Council of Learned Societies; Malcolm M. Willey, Vice-President of the

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[1] "Public Libraries Study Announced," Library Journal, LXXII (April 15, 1947), 583.

University of Minnesota; and Dr. Leigh as chairman. The committee decided to cover the following aspects of the library as an institution:

(1) The evolution, functions, and objectives of the public library.

(2) The internal operations and management of libraries, including personnel, costs, processes, and controls.

(3) Governmental and other overhead controls and services relating to the library.

(4) Present services to, and relationships of the library with, the community.

(5) Relation to the library function of new technical and commercial developments in the field of communication.[1]

To implement the study the research team selected forty-nine representative American communities ranging from metropolitan cities to rural towns. In each of the communities selected, the character of the library facilities and their relation to the needs of the population was to be studied. There was also a series of research projects undertaken. Some of the topics covered were: foreign and international library development, the state

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[1] Ibid.

of civic enlightenment, and the effects of communication.[1] In all it promised to be an extremely comprehensive survey of the effectiveness of the traditional public library in the United States.

Financial Problems

Warnings over the financial crisis facing ALA had become an almost annual event in the post-war period. Secretary Milam had alluded to this problem in 1947 when he said that the Association was all "dressed up" as far as planning was concerned, but unable to do much about it because of the bleak financial picture. As pointed out by Paul Rice, President of ALA in 1948, inflation was the primary cause of the trouble. To perform the same services as in 1940, the Association needed approximately sixty per cent more income. More services were being attempted, and the income had not kept pace with the expenditures.[2] Several steps were therefore taken early in 1948 to reduce the amount of deficit spending. The January issue of the ALA Bulletin contained advertising for the first time in its forty-two year history. In a further move to save money on the printing of the ALA Bulletin, the Handbook

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[1] "The Public Library Inquiry," ALA Bulletin, XLI (November, 1947), 433-34.

[2] Paul Rice, "A.L.A. Finances," ALA Bulletin, XLII (July-August, 1948), 294.

was removed from it and published as a separate work. At mid-year, the Placement Service at Headquarters was suspended as an economy move. This service had been expensive because it had attempted to be selective. It had required professional staff to match employers with prospective employees.[1] At a time of acute shortage of librarians, this selectivity was probably not an essential feature of a placement service. As a substitute for this program, a new plan was put into effect in September, 1948. This was a short-lived experiment known as the ALA Employment Register which failed because librarians felt it was a poor substitute for a placement service.[2] Negotiations also began for the sale of part of the property acquired in 1945. At first, only the property on the east side of the Headquarters building was involved, but later on the property on the other side was included also. The Community Development Trust purchased the first piece of property for $125,000; the property west of Headquarters was sold to the Catholic Diocese of Chicago for $100,000. This reduced ALA's net investment in the property to about $65,000.[3] The transaction also returned some of the

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[1]Harold Brigham, "Placement Service Suspended," ALA Bulletin, XLII (July-August, 1948), 294.

[2]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, September 28, 1949.

[3]"A.L.A. Sells Two Buildings," ALA Bulletin, XLIII (January, 1949), 50.

original purchase price to the Endowment Fund, which increased future income of the Association. The final major reaction to the financial situation was the consolidation of the two Washington offices. This move was made necessary by the depletion of the special funds which had financed the separate offices.[1] The 1948 grant from the Rockefeller Foundation for the International Relations Office had been designated as a terminal grant. The funds for the National Relations Office, provided by the Library Development Fund, would be exhausted by mid-1949. The consolidation of the two offices was a temporary move necessitated by the economic conditions. Unfortunately, as the Executive Secretary said in his 1948 annual report, the problem of financial support was not solved by the move or other economies. Clearly, other means of financial support beyond the regular budget were required if activity in these areas were to be continued.

Resignation of Carl Milam

Members of ALA were surprised to read in the March, 1948, ALA Bulletin of the resignation of the Executive Secretary. In what was merely a postscript to his monthly newsletter in the Bulletin, Carl Milam indicated that he had accepted the position of Director of the United Nations

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[1]John Cory, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, XLIII (January, 1949), 5.

Libraries. It was a surprise because Milam was due to retire from ALA in 1950. For Milam, the new position presented a challenge to try his hand at one last position "before turning myself out to pasture," as he put it.[1] For the Association, the loss was indeed serious. Milam had been the Secretary for twenty-eight years. To many people, Carl Milam and ALA were almost synonymous. In a sense, the two had matured together. Milam was fresh from work in the Library War Service at the end of World War I when he was appointed to the ALA position. As Library Journal pointed out, seldom if ever had a job fit more exactly the measurements of a man.[2] The position changed immensely as the organization developed, and Milam responded to meet the new challenges. Under his leadership the membership grew from 4,400 to 15,000. Income grew from $32,000 to almost $1,000,000. A permanent endowment fund of $2,000,000 was secured, and the Association had its own building.[3] The intangible benefits under Milam were even more important to the Association and to the profession. It was largely through his efforts that ALA took on its international emphasis. His defense work during World War I had

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[1]Carl H. Milam, "From the Corner Office," ALA Bulletin, XLII (March, 1948), 103.

[2]"Carl Milam," Library Journal, LXX (April 15, 1945), 348.

[3]Ralph Munn, "Carl Milam--The Administrator," ALA Bulletin, XLII (September 15, 1948), 3.

undoubtedly played a large role in seeing the need to broaden the work of ALA at the international level.[1] The missionary role which had so characterized the activities of the Association during its early days was applied to library-poor countries. At home, Milam was active in strengthening the role of the federal government in library activities.[2] There were many other contributions which could as well, at least in part, be ascribed to Milam.

As Milam's successor, the Executive Board on April 21, 1948, chose John MacKenzie Cory. At that time Cory was the Associate Librarian at the University of California, Berkeley. He was a graduate of the School of Librarianship at the University of California, and had also attended the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. In addition to numerous governmental positions held during the war, he had been the Director of Libraries at the University of Alabama. Although he could not have been considered to be one of the most active leaders in ALA at the time of his appointment, Cory had been on a number of boards and committees of the Association.[3] Since he was not available to take office until September 1, 1948,

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[1]Louis R. Wilson, "Carl H. Milam," Library Journal, LXX (April 15, 1945), 331.

[2]Ibid.

[3]"Carl Milam's Successor," ALA Bulletin, XLII (May, 1948), 241.

Harold F. Brigham became the Interim Executive Secretary. Brigham was at that time the Treasurer of ALA.

Less than one year after Carl Milam left his office, the Association found itself in an embarrassing and awkward position regarding the former Secretary. It began with a well-intentioned effort to honor Milam by nominating his as Vice-President (President-elect). For a number of years it had been the custom for the nominating committee to list only one nominee for each office. This practice had led to criticism, but nominating committees reported that prominent librarians refused to compete with one another for ALA offices. To be nominated by the committee, of course, was tantamount to election, since nominations were seldom made by the other methods possible. Although not a democratic procedure, as it resulted in no choice at all, the practice was clearly constitutional. Thus, there were many precedents for the 1948-49 nominating committee to name one person for each office, including Milam as Vice-President. As usual, the nominating committee presented its report to the Council at the Midwinter meeting.[1] A great deal of discussion followed the report, centering on the desirability of having two nominations for the vice-presidency. President E. W. McDiarmid called for

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[1]This discussion is based on Minutes of the Council during the meeting and Leslie Poste, "No Top Brass in A.L.A.," Library Journal, LXXIV (March 1, 1949), 334.

a voice vote on the motion to adopt the committee's report. He then ruled that the motion had carried. A storm of protest broke out in the audience of 1,400, forcing a show of hands. The second vote showed that the motion had lost by a vote of forty-seven to fifteen. The President then ruled that the constitution did not require acceptance of a nominating committee's report. After two days of stormy meetings and with an atmosphere reminiscent of a political convention, this decision of the President was allowed to stand. It was an unpopular decision, but correct according to the constitution. A sizable proportion of the membership present at the Midwinter meeting showed its unwillingness to let the nominating question remain settled in this manner. At the last session of the meeting the Executive Secretary announced that the name of Clarence R. Graham had been placed in nomination for the vice-presidency by petition, an alternative method allowed under the constitution.[1] Other nominees selected by the nominating committee remained unchallenged by the membership.

The situation was embarrassing to Milam as well as to the Association. For several reasons he had originally declined when the nominating committee had asked him to run for the office. He would be retired from the Library at

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Council, January 23, 1949.

the United Nations by the time he assumed the presidency of ALA. Therefore, he would have no secretarial assistance available during his term, usually a necessary requisite of the office because of the limited budget. Officers of the Association assured him that this would not be a serious problem. Milam was also concerned over the possible embarrassment to the new Executive Secretary in working with his predecessor. This, too, was checked out by the committee and refuted. When protests began during the Midwinter meeting over his nomination, Milam again attempted to have his name removed. Friends and officers prevailed on him not to do so.[1] The opposition to Milam's nomination was based on a number of factors. First was the general feeling that despite Executive Secretary Cory's denials, having Milam as President would put Cory in an unpleasant situation. Milam as Executive Secretary had been a strong and dominating leader. The natural tendency might be to have power and influence gravitate towards him once again as President.[2] The second reason put forth for the opposition was in connection with the proposed reorganization of ALA. The Fourth Activities Committee had suggested certain basic changes in the organization's structure. To some members it seemed incongruous that Milam would be

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Council, January 22, 1949.

[2] Ibid.

taking office just at the time when the reorganization might be taking place. The sum of this argument was that Milam was considered to be too closely connected with the "old" ALA.[1] The third reason had little to do with Milam himself. There seemed to be a deep resentment and frustration over the fact that the membership actually had very little control over the operation of the organization. Lack of opposition in the election of officers was, to these people, simply a glaring example of the lack of democracy in ALA.[2] The nomination process, of course, was a condition established by the constitution, which had been approved by the membership. Younger members were not mollified by that fact. Basic changes were desired by the group in order to end leadership by a few older people. Finally, opposition to Milam's nomination was engendered by personal antagonism towards the former Secretary. Although he was highly respected and generally liked, during his twenty-eight years in office it was only natural that there would be some conflicts and unhappiness.[3] Many people undoubtedly felt that he had been at the helm long enough, and that other people should be given the

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[1]"A.L.A.'s Presidency," Library Journal, LXXIV (March 15, 1949), 425.

[2]Poste, op. cit., 336.

[3]ALA, Minutes of Council, January 20, 1949.

opportunity to provide leadership. The mixture of these factors was enough to insure Milam's defeat. He received only 3,104 votes out of the 8,335 ballots cast.[1]

International Activity

When the end of the war came, the immediate response was to emphasize the domestic situation. However, ALA's international role was not neglected. In some respects, there was an enlargement of these activities. The work in Latin America, which has been previously described, was continued. In addition, grants from the Rockefeller Foundation subsidized the following projects: a study of the National Library of Brazil; work on the Mexican Union Catalog; attendance of Latin Americans at American library schools; and providing fellowships to Latin American librarians and archivists for visiting important libraries in this country.[2] Grants from the United States Department of State enabled ALA to administer American libraries in Nicaragua and Uruguay. In June, 1945, an American Book Center was organized, with the cooperation of other national library associations. Its purpose was to coordinate efforts at re-stocking the

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[1] "Official Report of Returns of 1949 Election," ALA Bulletin, XLIII (September, 1949), 264.

[2] Carl H. Milam, "News from the Executive Secretary." ALA Bulletin, IXL (May, 1945), 167-68.

libraries in war areas of the allied nations. Its major project was to be a book drive to obtain 1,000,000 volumes.[1] A "Books for China" program, similar to earlier ones for Europe and South America, was also started in 1945. This program was funded for two years with a grant of $100,000 from the State Department.[2]

There followed a period of relative inactivity, during which time the international program of ALA became almost negligible. The Rockefeller Foundation grant in 1948 was a terminal grant, which meant there was very little money for other than domestic work. In 1950 there was once again an increased emphasis on international relations. The start of the Korean conflict in June, 1950, probably contributed to the change. While the Association did not become involved in defense activities such as it had done in the past, the war called to mind the need for greater international awareness once again. A number of small projects was administered by ALA and its member associations. The old idea of the "Books for Europe" program had grown into the United States Book Exchange. The Exchange coordinated efforts to supply foreign libraries with materials no longer needed by American

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[1]Lucile Deaderich, "Pickups," ALA Bulletin, IXL (July, 1945), 248.

[2]Carl H. Milam, "News from the Executive Secretary," ALA Bulletin, IXL (January, 1945), 60.

libraries. The Association was one of the sponsors of the Exchange, with funding coming from the Rockefeller Foundation.[1] The Association directly administered a Rockefeller grant for the International Youth Library in Munich, Germany.[2] It also administered a Department of State grant for a foreign translation program. The biggest project at this time was the opening of a Japanese Library School. Plans for the school had been underway since May, 1950. A preliminary survey had been done by Robert Downs of the University of Illinois Library School. Final arrangements followed most of his suggestions, and the school opened in 1951. Robert L. Gitler, Director of the School of Librarianship at the University of Washington, was appointed the first head of the school. Although the Department of the Army financed the project, ALA was given full responsibility for its administration. This included the establishment of academic policies, admission standards, and the selection of the faculty. After fifteen months the school was planned to be the responsibility of a Japanese university.[3] Similar in nature was a grant in

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[1]John M. Cory, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, XLIV (December, 1950), 444.

[2]Margaret C. Scoggin, "The International Youth Library," ALA Bulletin, XLIV (January, 1950), 39.

[3]"Japanese Library School," ALA Bulletin, XLIV (December, 1950), 458.

1955 for the establishment of the University of Ankara Library School.[1] With funds from the Ford Foundation and the cooperation of the University of Ankara, the program got underway on March 1, 1955. At that time, Robert Downs became the first Director, for a planned period of seven months. As with previous projects of this nature, control of the school was then turned over to the cooperating university.

In 1956 ALA received a three year grant from the Rockefeller Foundation for the establishment of a new International Relations Office.[2] Although it received the same name as the previous office, its function was much narrower. The new office was concerned primarily with library education in foreign countries. Included in this term was archival work, documentation, "and other activities usually associated with the work of libraries and information centers."[3] The Director of the Office was to study and investigate library development and library education throughout the world. On the basis of this study and personal investigations, he was to assist in the development of proposals for foundations, government agencies, and

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[1]David H. Clift, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, L (July-August, 1956), 411.

[2]David H. Clift, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, L (June, 1956), 335.

[3]"ALA's New International Relations Office," ALA Bulletin, LI (June, 1957), 446.

foreign groups. The establishment of library schools in foreign countries would, of course, be a continuing concern for the Association and this new Office. In spite of the creation of this new Office, the old International Relations Committee continued to exist. The Committee, along with other groups within ALA, was responsible for such programs as the exchange of librarians between the United States and other countries. In some areas, the line of authority was not clear. The problem was in the stated purpose of the new International Relations Office. While it seemed to be completely concerned with library education, the inclusion of "other activities usually associated with the work of libraries" in its purpose made its sphere of activity quite large. The lack of coordination made for confusion and duplication of effort.

Other Foundation Activity

In 1955 ALA received a major grant from the Fund for Adult Education. This project, headed by Miss Ruth Warncke, proposed to determine the role of the library in the community. The project was intended to broaden and develop previously funded activities. There were three major aspects of this program: a partial continuation of the American Heritage project, first announced at the seventy-fifth anniversary conference of ALA; the development of consultants for adult education; and the

development of adult education programs in four states, to be chosen as pilot projects.[1]

Undoubtedly the most significant foundation project to begin during this time was the Council on Library Resources. Made possible through a grant of $5,000,000 from the Ford Foundation, the Council was established on September 19, 1956. Verner W. Clapp was chosen as the President of the Council. Clapp was the Chief Assistant Librarian of Congress and had been associated with that institution for thirty-three years.[2] The idea of the new Council was that it should act as an initiator of new ideas and as coordinator of developments. Through grants-in-aid to individuals and to institutions it was hoped to identify obstacles to efficient library service and to find new ways of overcoming the impediments.[3] The Council was to be especially concerned with new procedures and applications of technological developments in libraries. It was an imaginative venture which was to have significance for libraries in the future. As for its Director, David Clift wrote:

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[1]Ruth Warncke, "Library-Community Project," ALA Bulletin, IXL (April, 1955), 2.

[2]David H. Clift, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, L (November, 1956), 622.

[3]"Council on Library Resources," ALA Bulletin, L (November, 1956), 662.

> In Verner Clapp, the Council has an executive officer whose fertile and imaginative mind and great energy will accomplish all that the venture promises--and more; to him, librarians in every field of endeavor will be eager to give the help and counsel that he may need and desire and the cooperation that he has himself always so freely given.[1]

Although the Association's relationship with foundations in the administration of grants was usually satisfactory, one incident occurred in 1956 which brought the whole concept into question. This incident, which attracted national attention, was ALA's relationship with the Fund for the Republic. The Fund had been established with a $15,000,000 grant from the Ford Foundation, and a certain amount of controversy had been generated over some of its activities. It had been called a "vicious anti-communist propaganda machine" by Senator Joseph McCarthy.[2] The Fund had subsidized bibliographic work in the area of Communist influence which he and some others had attacked as being soft on Communism. In December, 1954, the Fund had given the ALA Committee $6,000 to be used principally to support the publication of the Committee's Newsletter. In September and October, 1955, the Newsletter was attacked in the Hearst newspapers. An article written by E. F. Tompkins, columnist for the Hearst syndicate, described the

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[1] Clift, loc. cit.

[2] New York Times, December 6, 1955, p. 1.

Newsletter as a miscellany of leftist items, rather than a librarian's professional information sheet.[1] The incident which followed was reminiscent of a Don Quixote tilting at windmills. Apparently taking its cue from the editorials in the Hearst papers, the American Legion News of Punxsutawney, Pennsylvania took up the attack and expanded on it. In the December, 1955, issue, the News referred to the American Library Association as "leftist," "red front," and a "Communist organization." The local library was attacked for its adoption of the Library Bill of Rights and for stocking books the Legion post considered to be subversive. A telegram was sent to the United States Attorney General to inquire whether his office had ever cited ALA as subversive.[2] The answer, of course, was in the negative. Naturally the problem, in spite of its ludicrous aspect, raised the question of the propriety of any continued relationship between ALA and the Fund for the Republic. This was answered effectively in the following letter from David Clift:

> I believe that these attacks are unavoidable at this particular time in our history and that they are lacking in substance. It is probably true that the Fund for the Republic has been

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[1]This is quoted in "Editorial," Newsletter on Intellectual Freedom, IV (January, 1956), 2.

[2]Letter, Paul Bixler, Secretary of the Intellectual Freedom Committee, to Edward Reed, Fund for the Republic, February 9, 1956.

> inept on occasion, but I am convinced that this is no reflection on its principles and objectives.
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> I feel strongly that the American Library Association has no reason to avoid association with the Fund.[1]

Although the criticism of the Fund continued in the press and in Congress, this did not have an adverse effect on its relationship with ALA. Grants such as these continued to be sought after and gratefully received. However, projects such as these added little besides prestige and staff to the Association. Most projects were self-sustaining, but they did not help to reduce the financial strain on the Association.

Appointment of David H. Clift

The announcement of the resignation of John Cory as Executive Secretary of ALA was the surprise of the Mid-winter conference in 1951.[2] His tenure of three years had been a period of financial difficulty, self-study, and internal dissension for the Association. Undoubtedly it had been a frustrating experience, since there was so much which needed to be done, and so little to do with in terms of financial backing. In announcing his resignation, Cory

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[1]"Japanese Library School," ALA Bulletin, XLIV (December, 1950), 458.

[2]John M. Cory, "Report to Council," ALA Bulletin, XLV (February, 1951), 47.

spoke of the need for the Association to change its personnel more often than had been true in the past. The Executive Secretary had great power and heavy responsibilities. It was therefore best for the Association and for the individual that one person should not hold the office too long. Cory believed that there was a large reservoir of qualified librarians who could capably fill positions in the Headquarters staff without becoming career officers. By his resignation, Cory was putting into practice his own philosophy.[1] Evidently the Executive Board was convinced of the logic of Cory's philosophy. At the same Midwinter conference the Board voted to limit the length of time professional staff members were to remain employed at Headquarters. Regular staff were to be kept on only as long as their services were essential. Staff at the executive level should be employed for no more than five years, subject to extension.[2] This was a radical departure from established policy and was extremely unpopular with the Headquarters staff. Although the execution of this policy would lead to excessive turnover of the profession staff, its basic premise was logical. New personnel would bring in new ideas. There would be a closer connection with the profession. Time alone would tell whether the

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[1] Ibid.

[2] ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, January 31, 1951.

theory worked in practice.[1]

The selection of Cory's successor took several months of searching and discussion. The Executive Board met in special session in May, 1951, to make its decision. The unanimous choice was David H. Clift, the Associate Librarian of Yale University. Clift was a graduate of the Columbia University School of Library Service. His first professional position was with the New York Public Library, where he remained for six years. In 1937 he became Assistant to the Director of Libraries at Columbia University. Following service with the Army during World War II, Clift went to Germany for the Library of Congress. The work of this special mission was to seek out books in enemy countries for the use of American research libraries. Upon his return to this country he had been appointed Yale University's Associate Librarian.[2]

The appointment of Clift coincided with the Association's seventy-fifth anniversary in 1951. The total membership stood at 20,202. It was estimated that there were over 50,000 librarians in the United States, so the organization still did not represent the majority of librarians. Yet the growth rate had been quite phenomenal.

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[1]This policy was discontinued by action of the Executive Board and Council at the 1952 Midwinter meeting.

[2]Loleta Fyan, "A Welcome to David H. Clift," ALA Bulletin, XLV (July-August, 1951), 249.

Membership had tripled in the twenty-five years since the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary.[1] Although the meetings in Chicago attracted only 3,800 librarians instead of the expected 6,000, it was a successful and happy celebration. The theme chosen for the occasion was "The Heritage of the United States in Times of Crisis." Probably the most exciting moment of the conference was the announcement the Ford Foundation had given the Association a grant of $150,000 to assist public libraries in the promotion of discussing the American Heritage. In view of the topic of the conference, the announcement came at an especially appropriate time.[2]

Success in Federal Aid

A ten year struggle for the enactment of federal aid to libraries reached its successful conclusion in the 1950's with the enactment of the Library Services Act. Every year since 1947 a bill of this nature had been introduced in Congress and supported in hearings by ALA. President Dwight Eisenhower, on signing the bill into law in 1956, said:

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[1]John M. Cory, "ALA Membership--Past and Future," ALA Bulletin, XLV (June, 1951), 197.

[2]John M. Cory, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, XLV (July-August, 1951), 237.

> The Library Services Bill, which I have today signed into law, represents an effort to stimulate the States and local communities to increase library service available to rural Americans. It shows promise of leading to a significant enrichment of the lives of millions of Americans, which, I am confident, will be continued by the States when this limited Federal program comes to an end.[1]

This Act authorized federal appropriations of $7,000,000 annually for five years to extend library service for rural areas. A basic annual appropriation of $40,000 was allotted to each state, in addition to an amount based on the proportion of rural population of the state. The federal funds were matched by state funds on the basis of its per capita income. No state, however, was to fall below thirty-four per cent or exceed sixty-seven per cent of the federal appropriation. When Congress passed the Appropriation Bill funding the Library Services Act, librarians were disappointed to learn that only $2,050,000 had been allowed. In effect, the decreased appropriation meant states would receive only the basic $40,000 during the first year. Congressional leaders commented that any future increase would depend entirely on what the states did with the initial funds granted them.[2] The burden was thus placed on the states, although in actual fact very

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[1] New York Times, June 20, 1956, p. 1.

[2] Julia Bennett, "Congress Appropriates $2,050,000 for Grants for the Library Services Act Program," Washington Newsletter, VIII (July 27, 1956), 1.

little could be done at the state level with this limited funding.

In spite of the setback in financing the new program, the enactment of the Library Services legislation was a major victory for the library profession. With limited resources it nevertheless set a precedent for federal participation and the matching of state funds for library programs. Future programs would benefit from the pioneering effort. In attempting to give credit to those who achieved this goal, it must be remembered that many people were involved during the ten year period. Paul Howard, as Director of the Washington office in 1948, had been instrumental in introducing the legislation. At that time, the Senate passed the bill, but the House of Representatives did not take any action on it. Julia Bennett, head of the Washington office in 1956, devoted a great deal of time and effort in securing the votes necessary to insure victory. Perhaps the greatest accolade belongs to Senator Lister Hill of Alabama. He sponsored every library services bill during the ten year effort to secure federal aid. In recognition of his efforts, the Executive Board awarded an honorary membership in ALA to Senator Hill in 1956.[1]

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[1]ALA, Minutes of Executive Board, June 17, 1956.

Merger of Publications

While the battle for federal aid to libraries was going on, the ALA Publishing Department was struggling with the problem of its book selection periodicals. The Booklist, which started in 1905, was a current buying list for libraries. Only books recommended for library purchase were included in its listings. The Subscription Books Bulletin began in 1930 and had an entirely different scope and purpose. It was basically concerned with encyclopedias, subscription sets, and other large reference works. Its reports were on books recommended and not recommended, since it attempted to serve individuals as well as libraries. The combined circulation of the two periodicals was only 18,000.[1] In merging these two periodicals into one called The Booklist and Subscription Books Bulletin, the Publishing Department hoped to make the service more attractive to libraries. Reviews, especially of subscription books, would appear faster, and it would be more economical, since the new price was the same as the former price of The Booklist alone.[2]

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[1] "Two in One," ALA Bulletin, L (September, 1956), 518.

[2] Ibid.

ALA and the Librarian of Congress

During the twentieth century, ALA became involved three times in the selection of the Librarian of Congress. In each case, the success or failure of the involvement was measured against the success the Association had enjoyed in the selection of Herbert Putnam as Librarian in 1889.[1] Unfortunately, there is no evidence to indicate that the Association's involvement had any influence in the selection of the three Librarians.

The first occasion for involvement in this century was with the retirement of Herbert Putnam. As early as 1937 he had indicated a desire to retire after almost forty years as the Librarian of Congress. This was perhaps a tentative statement by Putnam, since no formal move was made until 1940. Apparently there were two reasons for the delay in retirement plans: a desire by Putnam to select his own successor, and an inadequate pension plan.[2] Although the retirement had not been officially announced, Association leaders knew it was inevitable and therefore began to make plans. They were anxious to duplicate the success the Association had had in 1899 with Putnam's

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[1]For a discussion of the ALA's role in the appointment of Putnam, see pages 96-99.

[2]Memo from Luther Dickerson to Harrison Craver, reporting on conversations with Presidential adviser Harry Hopkins, in ALA Archives.

appointment. The ALA leaders immediately began the process of assembling possible candidates for the position when it became vacant. The first step was the appointment of a committee of five to represent the Association.[1] Although no official decision was made, the committee seemed to agree informally that the two best qualified candidates were Professor Carleton B. Joeckel of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School and Carl H. Milam, ALA's Executive Secretary. Very shortly, the committee settled on Milam as its nominee.

The problems of the selection committee were compounded by two factors. Herbert Putnam had not yet announced his retirement, and did not seem to be in any hurry to do so. Secondly, President Franklin Roosevelt had indicated through his close adviser, Harry Hopkins, that the advice of professional associations in the matter of appointments would not be solicited. Through Hopkins it was also learned that the Administration was annoyed with Putnam for his delay in retiring.[2] This problem was solved in June, 1938, when Roosevelt signed a bill allowing Putnam to retire at half salary. The Librarian then announced

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[1]Committee members were William Warner Bishop, H. M. Lydenberg, Linda A. Eastman, Louis R. Wisen, and Harrison W. Craver.

[2]Confidential report of conversations with Hopkins in letter from Luther Dickerson to Harrison Craver, May 16, 1938, ALA Archives.

his retirement as of August 1. The resignation gave the selection committee its opportunity to contact Roosevelt for the first time. In a telegram to the President, Harrison Craver stressed the importance of the position, suggested the necessary qualifications, and offered assistance in the selection of a new Librarian of Congress. The presidential office responded with a polite perfunctory note of appreciation.

Putnam's resignation also allowed public discussion of a possible successor. John Vance, Library of Congress Law Librarian, announced his availability for the position. This caused friends of Carl Milam to urge the Executive Secretary to campaign openly. Milam refused to do this, although his friends were uninhibited in his behalf. He indicated that if the position were to come to him, it would have to be on his own terms. This could only be possible if he did not openly seek the job.[1] However, some indirect steps were taken by both Milam and his friends. At Milam's suggestion, Harrison Craver wrote Frederick Delano, an uncle of the President. The letter offered to "suggest names if the President cares to have them suggested."[2] Delano did not respond to the letter.

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[1]Letter, Milam to Craver, June 30, 1938, ALA Archives.

[2]Letter, Craver to Delano, August 25, 1938, ALA Archives.

Milam next wrote to George Parker, Editor-in-Chief of the Scripps-Howard newspapers regarding the urgency in filling the vacancy. The letter also discussed possible candidates. Of Mr. Vance he wrote:

> I do not know whether our committee would endorse him or not. I do know that it would put certain names ahead of his.

The only other name Milam mentioned was his own. He conceded it had been mentioned, but said he did not know how seriously. He declared "I am in no sense a candidate."[3]

In December, 1938, and again in February, 1939, letters were sent to Roosevelt urging the appointment of Milam. In addition, the second letter included a comment designed to thwart the candidacy of Mr. Vance:

> We have heard that a member of the present staff may be urged for consideration. Dr. Putnam has, however, frequently stated that there is no member of his staff whom he could confidently recommend as his successor, and we are sure that the selection of the man mentioned would be a disappointment to the profession.[2]

Members of the committee believed the failure of Roosevelt to name a new Librarian was due to his lack of interest in the problem. However, it appears that Roosevelt was having difficulty making up his mind. He admitted as much in a letter to Justice Felix Frankfurter,

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[1]Letter, Milam to Parker, September 10, 1938, ALA Archives.

[2]Letter, Craver to Roosevelt, February 9, 1939, ALA Archives.

whom he had just appointed to the Supreme Court. The letter asked what Frankfurter thought of Archibald MacLeish. Frankfurter responded that he thought MacLeish would make an outstanding contribution. He predicted MacLeish:

> would bring to the Librarianship intellectual distinction, cultural recognition the world over, a persuasive personality and a delicacy of touch in dealing with others, and creative energy in making the Library of Congress the greatest center of the cultural resources of the nation. . . .[1]

On June 6, 1939, Roosevelt announced his selection of MacLeish. In his statement Roosevelt said he had sought and found in the poet a "gentleman and a scholar." He was convinced the nomination would meet with the approval of the library world.

The reaction of the library world, however, was swift and negative. At Milam's request, the new ALA President, Milton Ferguson, sent telegrams to the directors of the largest libraries in the country urging them to protest the appointment.[2] The Senate Library Committee was a special target for the protest because it was charged with the responsibility of holding hearings on the appointment. Its members were deluged with letters and

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[1]Letter, Frankfurter to Roosevelt, May 3, 1939.

[2]Memo, Milam to Ferguson, June 7, 1939, ALA Archives.

telegrams objecting to the nomination. Many senators responded that it was the President's prerogative to name whomever he wished. Therefore they felt it would be discourteous to oppose the nomination of MacLeish. The librarians continued in their efforts, however. Milton Ferguson, speaking as President of ALA, called a news conference to publicize the reactions of librarians. Ferguson said that he would no more think of the poet as the Librarian of Congress "than as the chief engineer of the Brooklyn Bridge."[1] In addition, when ALA held its annual conference in San Francisco, over 1,400 members signed an open letter to President Roosevelt. The letter stressed that no one questioned MacLeish's "ability and distinction as a man of letters," but "librarianship is not a literary pursuit." The letter concluded that it would be a calamity to have MacLeish approved as Librarian of Congress.[2]

The battle was lost and most librarians realized it. Harrison Craver wrote to Milam:

> My sympathy for you is great. I know you would have filled the position capably, even brilliantly. We would have been proud of our representative. And aside from that, I wanted to see my friend get what he wanted.[3]

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[1] New York Times, June 8, 1939, p. 2.

[2] Letter to Roosevelt, June 19, 1939.

[3] Letter, Craver to Milam, June 7, 1939, ALA Archives.

On June 29, 1939, the Senate confirmed the appointment. Two days later, ALA's newly elected president, Ralph Munn, wrote to congratulate MacLeish. He apologized that the Association's battle had to take the form of a protest against MacLeish's nomination. He noted the sole basis was the poet's lack of training and experience. MacLeish responded that he understood the reason for the protest, but he said "I do regret the tactics adopted by certain representatives of the A.L.A."[2] Milam also sent his congratulations to the new Librarian, and included a denial that he had ever been a candidate for the position.[3] His denial was accurate only to the extent that his candidacy had never been made public.

There was very little publicity given to the activities of ALA in this struggle. The average member would not have known the extent to which the organization was involved, because only a small part of the story was told. After some public criticism was made over what one librarian called ALA's "holy war," the events which had taken place were briefly summarized in the ALA Bulletin.[4]

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[1]Letter, Munn to MacLeish, July 1, 1939, ALA Archives.

[2]Letter, MacLeish to Munn, July 5, 1939, ALA Archives.

[3]Letter, Milam to MacLeish, July 13, 1939, ALA Archives.

[4]Letter, M. Llewellyn Raney to Editor, Library Journal, LXIV (July, 1939), 522.

Curiously, however, there was no mention in this summary of Milam's candidacy. There was no further discussion of the issue in the ALA Bulletin, and its editor refused to print a letter criticizing the Association's leadership.[1] Perhaps it was wise to cut off the discussion and to try to forget what had happened. Surely the campaign against MacLeish was a shrill, histrionic outburst which could only hurt a professional organization. In retrospect, it was to prove especially inappropriate in view of the outstanding reputation MacLeish gained during his short tenure as Librarian of Congress.[2]

Within four years, the problem of the selection of the Librarian of Congress was again before the Association. Through the news media librarians learned of the resignation of MacLeish to become Assistant Secretary of State in charge of public and cultural relations. Memories of the controversy over MacLeish's appointment to the Library came back to librarians as rumors began to circulate. A report in the Washington Star on December 10 seemed to confirm the possibility of trouble once again. The newspaper announced that several non-librarians, including Carl

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[1]Memo, Cora Beatty to Milam, August 4, 1939, ALA Archives.

[2]For a detailed discussion of his contributions, see Eva Goldschmidt, "Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress," College and Research Libraries, XXX (January, 1969), 12-24.

Sandburg and playwright Robert E. Sherwood, were being considered for the vacancy. In contrast to 1939, the role of ALA was subdued in spite of the apparent threat of another non-librarian at the head of the nation's most important library. An initial letter from ALA President Carl Vitz to President Roosevelt in January, 1945, offered assistance in selecting a new Librarian. The death of Roosevelt on April 12, 1945, prevented further action. Vitz then wrote to Roosevelt's successor, Harry Truman. The new President expressed a willingness to receive the advice of the Association.[1] President Vitz then gathered the suggestions of various librarians by telephone and personal contact. On the basis of these conferences, Vitz recommended that the following librarians be considered for the vacant post: Keyes D. Metcalf, Librarian of Harvard University; Ralph Ulveling, Librarian of the Detroit Public Library; and Dr. Luther Evans, Chief Assistant Librarian and Acting Librarian of Congress. A personal conference between Vitz and Truman was arranged for May 7, 1945. The surrender of Germany on that date prevented the appointment from taking place, and Vitz then made the suggestions in a letter dated May 8.[2] On June 17, President Truman announced his selection of Dr. Evans as

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[1] Carl Vitz, "Librarian of Congress," ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (July, 1945), 252.

[2] Ibid.

Librarian of Congress. The choice was a happy one for the profession, but there is no reason to assume that the recommendations of Vitz had any effect on the decision. Evans had been mentioned as a possible nominee by the Washington Star in the article previously mentioned as naming Carl Sandburg and Robert Sherwood as possible nominees. Nevertheless, it was reassuring to the profession to know that the President would at least encourage advice from professional associations in the matter of appointments.[1]

It is interesting to note the role MacLeish played in the selection of his successor. MacLeish apparently talked several times with Roosevelt about the choice. He commented on the excellent work of Julian Boyd, and recommended his appointment. Boyd, however, declined to be considered for the position because of his work with the Thomas Jefferson papers. The death of Roosevelt prevented any further suggestion, and Truman did not consult with the former librarian. So MacLeish learned of the appointment of Luther Evans the same way most other people did--from the newspaper.[2]

The tenure of Dr. Evans at the Library of Congress

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[1]Carl Vitz, "President's Report," ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (October 15, 1945), 327.

[2]Letter, MacLeish to author, undated.

was short, combined with an increasing amount of time spent with the United Nations Educational, Social, and Cultural Organization.[1] Members of Congress were critical of Evans for the time spent away from the Library. A committee report, published after Evans' resignation, commented:

> It would appear that the last two Librarians of Congress [MacLeish and Evans] were not wholly fitted by background for the post, and in addition were engaged in activities apart from their duties.[2]

In March, 1952, in appearing before the same committee, Evans' assistant, Verner W. Clapp, had seemed to agree with Congress that the Librarian should decide between UNESCO and the Library of Congress. He said, in response to criticism of Evans, that "UNESCO badly needs the wisdom of a man like Dr. Evans."[3] In 1953 Evans resigned to become Director General of UNESCO and ALA reacted almost immediately. President Robert B. Downs appointed a special committee to offer its services in selecting a new Librarian. The committee met at the Los Angeles conference of ALA in 1953.[4] It then wrote to President Eisenhower

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[1]Hereafter referred to as UNESCO.

[2]U.S., Congress, Senate, Committee on Rules and Administration, Nomination of Lawrence Quincy Mumford to be Librarian of Congress, 83rd Cong., 2nd sess., 1954, p. 145.

[3]Ibid., 61.

[4]David H. Clift, "Memo to Members," ALA Bulletin, XLVIII (April, 1954), 188.

requesting an appointment with him in order to present the essential qualifications for the position. Charles F. Willis, Jr., Special Assistant at the White House, acknowledged the letter and asked that the committee meet with him. On July 15 the committee went to the White House, where they presented a statement of qualifications, and a list of six well-qualified librarians to be considered for the position. Senators and representatives on the Joint Committee on the Library were also contacted at this time. One week later, members of the committee were contacted by telephone regarding two men who were being considered for the position. Committee members rejected both names as being unsuited for the Librarianship.[1] This incident, combined with rumors that non-librarians were being considered for the position, forced the committee to take additional action. On January 4, 1954, several of the committee members met with representatives of the National Research Council, the National Academy of Sciences, the American Council on Education, the Social Science Research Council, and the American Council of Learned Societies. After reviewing ALA's statement of personal qualifications needed, this group drafted its own statement, enlarging and reinforcing the original one. More names were added to the list of qualified librarians suitable for the

[1] Ibid.

vacancy. Both the enlarged statement and the original names were then presented to Sherman Adams, Assistant to the President, on January 4, 1954. In accordance with the wishes of the White House, the names suggested were not made public.[1] There the matter seemed to rest for an uncomfortable length of time. It was rumored, and printed in the New York Times, that Verner Clapp had been ALA's first choice. If that was the case, politics soon changed the situation:

> Some political manuevering has developed in connection with the post, although the learned societies would like to keep it above politics. In this manuevering, Mr. Clapp has been elbowed aside, although apparently not eliminated from consideration.[2]

It was also indicated in the New York Times, but not confirmed by the Administration, that a Republican was desired for the position.[3] Finally, on April 22, President Eisenhower named L. Quincy Mumford, Librarian of the Cleveland Public Library, as the new Librarian of Congress. The nomination was confirmed by the Senate on July 29, 1954. Mumford's nomination was unique in the fact that he had already been chosen as the President-elect of ALA. Thus he had the honor of assuming the two highest offices

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[1] ALA, Minutes of Council, February 4, 1954.

[2] New York Times, March 29, 1954, p. 21.

[3] Ibid.

in the profession at approximately the same time.

Future Planning

Planning for the future seemed to be the emphasis of a number of officers and members during the 1950's. Three plans will be discussed here: the library, relocation of Headquarters, and a management survey preliminary to a complete reorganization of ALA itself. Ironically, the library had long been a neglected feature of Headquarters. It was inadequate, poorly housed, and had lacked proper administration during most of its history. A statement submitted to the Executive Board in September, 1955, commented:

> . . . in order to give adequate service of any kind, the Library should be well organized and well cataloged. Such is not the case in the Headquarters Library.[1]

The historical archives of the Association, stored in the Headquarters building, received similar criticism:

> The archives of ALA are also in a deplorable condition. The American Library Association has a rich history, but it will not have any way of locating the material if something is not done soon about its archival collection, much of which is at present rotting away from dust, dirt, and heat in the basement storage room in which it is housed mostly in cartons.[2]

Unfortunately, a number of annual reports would have to

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[1] "Statement for an Enlarged Program for a Headquarters Library," September, 1955. (Mimeographed)

[2] Ibid.

repeat the criticism before adequate provision for the Library was made. The archives have not as yet received similar treatment.

The second example of future planning concerned the Headquarters building and the possibility of relocating in another city. During the fall meeting of the Executive Board, November 11-12, 1955, several persons had noted the deterioration of the Headquarters building. Repairs were needed and it was obvious that maintenance costs were going to increase on the old building. The result was a prolonged debate and an eventual decision to build new Headquarters in Chicago, as described in a previous chapter.

The third project in planning had actually been started in 1954.[1] During the annual conference of that year, held in Minneapolis, the membership had approved the employment of a firm to conduct a management survey of the organization. It was hoped that the end result of this survey would be a more efficient, productive, and capable ALA. The firm of Cresap, McCormick, and Paget began the work of the survey on October 26, 1954. The scope of this comprehensive study included the following aspects:

(1) A study of ALA organizational structure to

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[1]The following discussion is based on "Management Survey," ALA Bulletin, XLIX (September, 1955), 411-64.

determine the effectiveness of the relationships;

(2) A review of personnel administrative practices;

(3) A survey of the financial structure and practices of the Association;

(4) An examination of the membership policies and their effectiveness;

(5) A review of central services performed at the Headquarters.

In order to obtain a comprehensive view of the organization a number of methods were used. Interviews were held with a large number of individuals connected with the Association: the Headquarters staff, almost all Executive Board members, officers and directors of the divisions, board and committee chairmen, and a cross-section of the membership. Minutes of the Council, the Executive Board, and the division boards of directors for the previous five years were read. Reports of the Executive Secretary to the Council and the Executive Board were reviewed. A questionnaire was sent to the leaders of regional and state library associations. The firm also reviewed the publications of the Association and its divisions.

The final report of the management firm was released to the membership at the annual conference in July, 1955. It summarized the strengths and the weaknesses of the

Association better than had ever been done before. The report spoke of a "measure of success" first of all. These achievements were: improvement of techniques in cataloging and classification; special services for children, adult education, publishing, activities in international education; raising standards for professional education; and other activities which contributed to the advancement of the profession. The Association had cast itself in the role of spokesman for the modern library movement, and to a great extent had been successful in this role. There were also weaknesses, and a "degree of failure," according to the management firm. The ALA had not developed as the single organization representing all phases of librarianship. Because it failed to pursue the special needs of some librarians, other separate associations developed. Some developed outside ALA, such as the Special Libraries Association. Others, like the Association of College and Research Libraries, developed within the framework of ALA. The management firm found that as these groups developed within the Association, the possibility of secession had brought changes in order to meet the needs of these groups. Some of the changes created serious problems for the parent organization. The basic problem, the study revealed, was the lack of a "sound, progressive, and consistent management policy."

The following specific weaknesses and criticisms

were also made in the final report:

(1) The Council and Executive Board were involved in too much detail to function effectively.

(2) There was insufficient integration of the activities of ALA and its chapters.

(3) There was lack of coordination of the functions of the Executive Board and the divisional secretaries, which handicapped all concerned.

(4) The Executive Secretary lacked the authority and resources to effect overall action and coordination.

(5) Reorganization was needed to eliminate overlapping boards and committees.

(6) There should be a clear distinction among the divisions as to their proper functions.

(7) The divisions should be delegated the responsibility to act for ALA "on matters solely within the limits of their distinct fields of jurisdiction."

(8) The existing organizational structure was too complicated, and the delegation of responsibility was too inadequately provided for.

The report concluded with a number of recommendations to remove the weaknesses noted in the organizational

structure. These recommendations were based on the assumption that the divisions would be willing to relinquish some of their autonomy in the common interest of the Association. The management firm pointed out that their plan would make it possible to delegate more responsibility to the divisions than they then had, notwithstanding the loss of some autonomy. The major recommendations were as follows:

(1) The Council should be renamed the General Assembly, and should function as the governing body of ALA.

(2) The Executive Board should be renamed the Executive Committee of the General Assembly, and would act as the central working body of the Association.

(3) Consideration should be given to fixing a five year term for the Executive Secretary, with provision for reappointment if desired and appropriate.

(4) The dues system should be based on the ability to pay and on the benefits received.

(5) Divisional income should be allotted partly on the basis of membership and partly on the basis of need.

(6) Every division needed an Executive Secretary, although sharing such an officer might be

necessary for the very small divisions.

(7) There should be both type of library and type of interest groups, in addition to the geographic area and state type.

(8) Publishing should be centralized under a Board on Publications. However, publishing falling into the jurisdiction of a particular agency should be the responsibility of that agency.

In spite of the many weaknesses noted, the management report was generally optimistic over the future. The challenges of the growing population in the country would mean an ever-increasing role for libraries and librarians. They would be called on to provide services which had never been provided before. The report concluded:

> Thus, the American Library Association appears to be on the threshold of a great opportunity. This opportunity can be met successfully only if there is an elimination of divisive tendencies, a de-emphasis of parochial points of view, and a strengthening of the Association's unified capacity to fulfill its broad mission.[1]

An enthusiastic Council unanimously accepted this report on July 6, 1955.[2] It approved a plan of implementation which would call for a major reorganization if finally accepted.

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[1]"Management Survey," op. cit., 454.

[2]ALA, Proceedings of Council, July 6, 1955.

This plan called for extensive study of the recommendations before final action could be taken by the Association. After a number of preliminary steps, a Special Committee on Reorganization was appointed to work on the restructuring of the organization as suggested by the management report. Although there were many facets to this work, the guiding principles were as follows: (1) a closer relationship between the organization and its members, accompanied by greater participation on the part of the 20,000 members; (2) decentralization of responsibility and authority; (3) strengthening of the Council as the governing body of the organization; (4) to allow for more planning, control, and flexibility over the financial resources of the organization. While the constitution had not yet been completely revised, and some of the problems of reorganization had not been worked out, the major aspects had been worked out by the end of 1957. Therefore, it is possible to examine the reorganized Association at this point to see how effective the work had been.

The attempt at providing a climate for closer contacts between Headquarters and the membership was achieved through the decentralization of responsibility. This meant a general restructuring of the divisional framework. Divisions were divided into groups: type of library divisions and type of activity divisions. In doing so, the Special Committee on Reorganization said it

recognized that ALA "is by nature a two-dimensional pattern of overlapping interests." Librarians were usually interested in types of libraries as institutions and in types of library work as professional activities. However, for the purposes of clarifying the organizational structure, it was necessary to delineate between the two in order to avoid duplication. Type of library divisions were "focused upon planning in and evaluation of the whole library as an institution and upon the synthesis" of functions as they relate to the services of the library.[1] The types of library divisions were: American Association of School Librarians, Association of College and Research Libraries, Public Library Division, Association of Hospital and Institution Libraries, and the State Library Agencies Division. The type of activity divisions were to be concerned with the study and development of such functions as reference, children's work, and administration. The following divisions made up this second group: Adult Services Division, Children's Library Association, Library Administration Division, Library Education Division, Reference Services Division, and the Resources and Technical Services Division. The Committee originally suggested the merger of two divisions: Library Education and the Library Administration Division. This suggestion

[1]"Special Committee on Reorganization," ALA Bulletin, LI (October, 1957), 680.

was withdrawn when the two divisions involved showed a lack of interest.[1]

The management survey had been quite firm in its recommendations for divisional reallignment:

> It is recommended (1) that a division . . . encompass a field of interest clearly distinct from that of any other division, (2) that the area of responsibility of each division be clearly defined, and (3) that the governing body of each division be delegated authority to act for the ALA as a whole on matters related exclusively to the field of interest of the division.[2]

The firm had warned the Association that this was the most important part of the reorganization, and the cause of many problems in the old organizational structure. The different fields of interest and activity were not clearly enough defined, and therefore it has been impossible to delegate responsibility to divisions. The number of divisions in the new structure totalled twelve, instead of the seven which had been in existence before. If their areas of interest and responsibility were not carefully defined, the problems would be even larger than before the reorganization. There was some evidence that serious overlapping did exist in the new framework. Examples of this overlapping were: reference, included in both the Reference Services Division and the Association of College

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[1] Ibid.

[2] "Management Survey," ALA Bulletin, XXXIX (September, 1955), 441.

and Research Libraries; and children's work, included in both the Children's Library Association and the Public Libraries Division.[1] These and other problems would have to be worked out in time in order to avoid the recurrence of trouble found in the old organization.

In the previous structure there had been some question as to whether the Council or the Executive Board was the ultimate authority. The Council seemed to be, since it was the policy-making and legislative body of the Association. However, since it met infrequently and had its powers restricted severely by the constitution, there was a serious question as to its authority. The restructuring endeavored to change this by clearly designating the Council as the policy-making body of the Association. Further, the Executive Board was to have its origin in the Council. The Council was to elect Board members from the Council membership, so it was clear that the Executive Board was to act for the Council. Council representation was made more democratic under the new structure. The election process was also simplified. It was a combination of geographical elements, divisional strength, and at-large election. Unfortunately, the Council was still too large to act efficiently and speedily.

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[1]Ralph R. Shaw, "The President's Report," ALA Bulletin, LI (March, 1957), 174.

The next major change brought about by the reorganization was in the evaluation of the financial needs of the Association. There had been two outstanding characteristics of the financial arrangements under the old organizational structure. First, there was no adequate, knowledgeable review of the relative need of funds by various groups within the organization. Budgets were often developed out of politics, relative strengths, and the amount of "complaining done." Second, although the divisions had developed a sense of autonomy, this did not really extend to their finances. The by-laws of the Association explicitly denied the divisions the authority to incur expenses on behalf of ALA. Furthermore, until the development of the formula basis of budgeting funds to divisions, they were without adequate funding. Both characteristics of the old system were changed in the reorganization. Budget preparation became the responsibility of the Program Evaluation and Budget Committee.[1] Through this Committee, ALA obtained the reviewing agency so greatly needed and lacking under the old organization. The Committee had the authority to judge the relative merits of proposed programs. Its membership reflected the new status of the divisions. Of the fifteen members,

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[1]This Committee was often referred to as PEBCO.

twelve were past officers of the divisions. The other three members of this review Committee were the ALA Treasurer, the immediate past-President, and the President-elect of ALA.[1] The second aspect changed was in the delegation of authority. Since the divisions could now act for the Association, this authority extended to the incurring of expenses on behalf of ALA as well. This authority, of course, was only within the division's sphere of responsibility. Although limited, this new responsibility and authority was particularly important from the division's point of view. The question had been a matter of great concern in the past, especially with the more powerful divisions such as the Association of College and Research Libraries.

The results of the reorganization were such that it could be considered a success. Decentralization had been promoted by the reorganization, although not necessarily to the extent wished by some members. In the process of decentralizing authority, the divisions had been expanded and strengthened. At the same time, the Council was also strengthened. Its position as the ultimate authority, except for the membership itself, was now unchallenged in the general areas of librarianship. The

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[1]It is interesting to note that the dues structure was not immediately affected by the reorganization.

selection of its members was made somewhat more democratic and somewhat less complicated. In financial planning the reorganization had provided for a logical, systematic, and careful review of the overall spending of the Association. At the same time, it had allowed for greater flexibility in the funding of new programs.

Problems and weaknesses in the reorganization, however, had already made themselves evident by the end of 1957.[1] A careful delineation of areas of responsibility for divisions, sections, and committees had not been provided for adequately in the new structure. Perhaps it was not possible to delineate spheres so concisely that problems could be avoided. A second problem related to constitutional change. The Association was, in 1957, still working under an outmoded and inadequate constitution. The third problem concerned the democratization of the organization, and the closer involvement of the membership. Although this was one of the major reasons for the reorganization, it was not one of the notable successes. The only significant changes were in the composition of the Council and the delegation of authority to the divisions. For the individual members there was little direct change. He was no closer to the organization than before, and no more involved in its direction. Provision for this

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[1] Shaw, op. cit., 173-79.

involvement could have been made with the chapters at the local, state, and regional levels.[1] However, the reorganization did not place great enough emphasis on them to make extensive use of their features.

Summary

During this period, ALA was preoccupied with internal problems which needed to be confronted before any real progress could be made with external issues. The largest, and most difficult problem, was concerned with the overall direction of ALA. Where should it go in the post-war world? Although much time was spent in the consideration of this problem, the issue was not completely resolved. Certainly no comprehensive statement of objectives or directions came out of the discussions. The most immediate problem facing ALA was that of its relations with the divisions, specifically ACRL. Certain concessions were made in meeting the demand of ACRL, but at the close of the period it was not certain that the problems had actually been resolved. The reorganization had been in partial response to these issues, yet after the expenditure of time and money, ALA could not be sure that the new structure could handle the problems any better than the old structure.

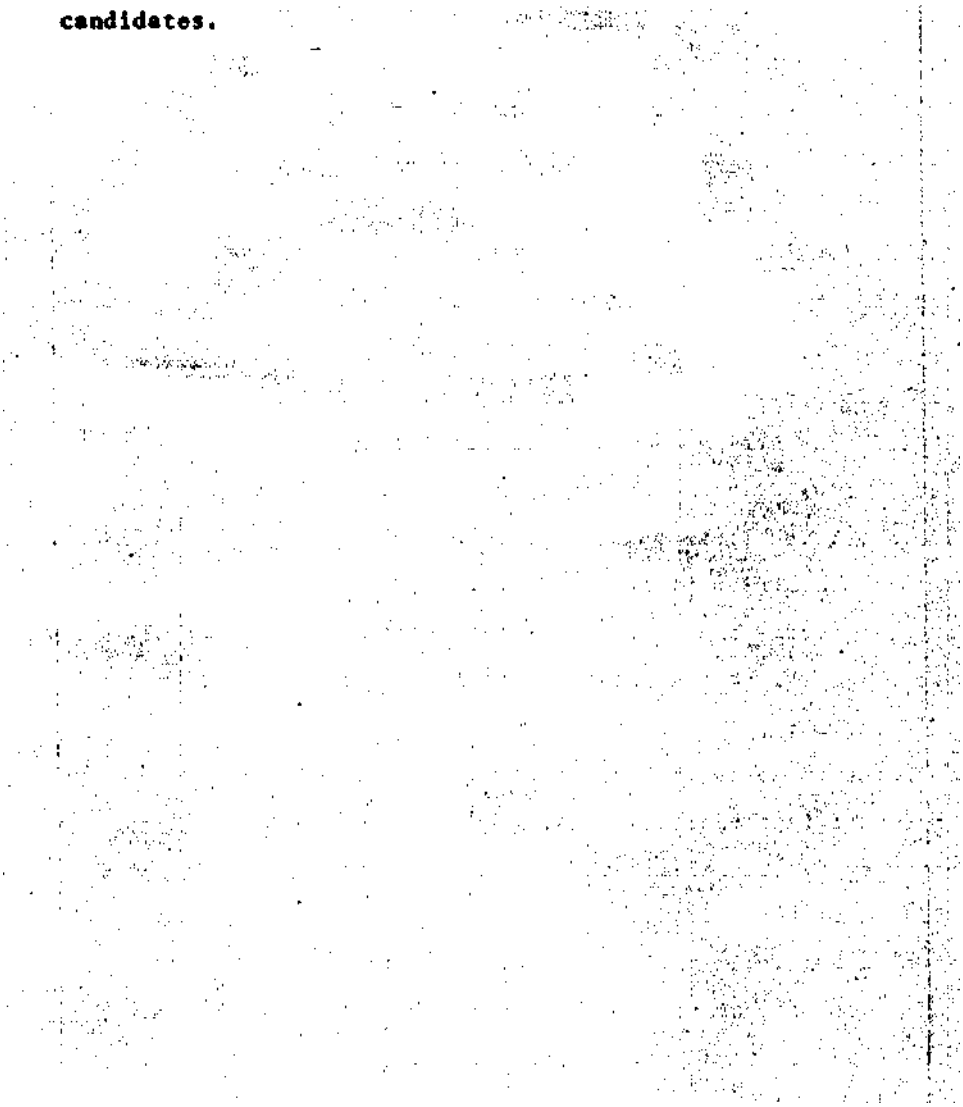
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[1]Shaw, op. cit., 178.

This postwar era saw a great amount of foundation activity. Through these philanthropic organizations, ALA administered library schools, libraries, and other projects in foreign countries. On the domestic scene, the two major undertakings were the studies on adult education and the establishment of the Council on Library Resources. Although not directly connected with ALA, the Council was to play an important part in research and development in library science. A major victory was achieved by the Association in the passage of the Library Services Act. This ended a ten-year struggle to achieve federal aid to support library services. The Act established a much needed precedent which would be useful in the future.

The recent history of ALA's role in the appointment of Librarians of Congress has been retraced in this chapter. To some extent, the Association was hampered by the great success of 1899 in securing the appointment of Herbert Putnam. That success set a precedent which was difficult to achieve during this century. The struggle to name Putnam's successor was hindered by the candidacy of Carl Milam. As ALA's candidate, he caused considerable doubt to be placed on the lobbying efforts of the Association. Following this defeat, the Association took a far more passive role in trying to advise Presidents. Both Truman and Eisenhower received recommendations, and officially encouraged advice from ALA, but there is no

evidence to indicate that this friendlier attitude resulted in any greater consideration of the Association's candidates.



CHAPTER XI

CONCLUSION

As the history of ALA is reviewed, one notes that through the years the problems of the organization and the profession have tended to remain constant. Many of the issues raised at the first meetings of the Association also confronted librarians in 1957. Examples of these problems are cooperative cataloging, distribution of public documents, library education, and inadequate public support of libraries. That is not to say that little has been accomplished during the eighty-one years of ALA's existence. Many problems, both old and new, have been resolved. But the major issues often need greater resources than have ever been available to librarians. New problems have been raised, and ALA has had to change in order to meet these challenges. In the process, the Association has expanded its role far beyond anything foreseen by its founders. In other ways, such as in providing library training at Headquarters, the Association has never fulfilled the original hopes of library pioneers. In attempting to meet the needs of librarians, the Association developed during this period into a multi-

faceted organization of 20,000 members, the most comprehensive national library association in existence.

This chapter will be devoted to a summation of important aspects of ALA history. The Association's strengths and weaknesses during its eighty years will be pointed out. Similarly, trends which have become evident during the development will be shown. From these trends it is possible to suggest future courses of action. Where appropriate, this writer has conjectured as to what might have happened if the Association had reacted differently in the past. Finally, there are noted additional areas where historical research is needed.

Strengths and Weaknesses

Partly by design and partly because of its own inadequacies, ALA has spawned many other organizations of librarians. Especially during the early years, the membership looked on each new library organization with considerable pride. By 1957 a common complaint among librarians concerned the excessive fragmentation of the profession into too many organizations. In a profession as diverse as librarianship, some fragmentation is to be expected, but not to the extent noted in the library profession. Much of the splintering could have been prevented or alleviated at several points in ALA's history. There has never been any overall planning in the establish-

ment of organizations, nor any serious attempt to prevent duplication. The development of SLA is perhaps the outstanding example. It originated because of the failure of ALA to respond to the needs of special librarians. It grew in spite of open hostility and several attempts by ALA to absorb the structure and membership. There was no effort to prevent duplication of sections in ALA, such as the Business Librarians Section, with similar sections in SLA. The Association was also hostile to the creation of the Council of National Library Associations. This Council was an attempt to bring some order out of the confusion of many separate national groups. From the beginning the Council was seen as an open threat to ALA's dominance. Only after the new organization's ability to act as a coordinating agency was eliminated did ALA leadership consent to its operation. Had the Association taken a friendlier attitude towards the Council, duplication of effort might have been prevented through coordination. However, ALA during its eighty years has actively sought, achieved, and deserved recognition as the leading library organization. In terms of membership, activities, and programs, it has been unrivaled as the association which could speak for librarians.

A very basic weakness of the Association throughout its history has been the lack of involvement of the membership. A hierarchy of older librarians was developed

at the beginning, and it has been perpetuated since that time. At the first meeting, the officers, speakers, and committee members chosen were almost all older people, in top administrative library positions. The precedent has been continued, with the vast majority of members uninvolved in the affairs of the organization. The method of voting has added to the problem. Direct election of officers was a right not given to the membership until well after the founding of ALA. Even after instituting direct election, the Association's use of the nominating committee with one slate of candidates made a mockery out of the contests. The membership has been far removed from the decision-making process. Actual authority in the organization has been a prerogative of the Executive Board, or the Council, or sometimes the Executive Secretary--but rarely the membership. Only in relatively few cases could it be said that the membership has exercised power or authority. The size of the membership, of course, necessitates a delegation of authority. A contributing factor in the lack of involvement by members has been the evolution of a powerful Executive Secretary. When the Association decided to limit its President to one year in office, it stripped the presidential office of most functions and authority. This change combined with the selection of very strong-willed individuals who enjoyed long terms as Executive Secretaries. Perhaps the only

exception to this was John MacKenzie Cory, who apparently believed in limiting the powers of the Secretary by limiting his term of office. Cory, however, was completely unsuccessful in changing the established policies. Thus the single most powerful individual in the Association has been the Secretary, and he has not been chosen directly by the membership. However, the Executive Secretary has added an important element to ALA administration. By the very fact that the Secretaries have remained in office for long periods of time, a continuity has been given to the leadership. It is only through such continuity that the Association could have been able to develop any long-range policies and goals.

As a socially oriented organization, ALA has been hampered by the question of what a professional organization should be doing. How active should it be as a welfare organization, as a guardian of human rights, and as a sentinel for intellectual freedom? The membership has never been able to arrive at a satisfactory answer. The expanded role in the two world wars helped to establish a precedent for its role as a welfare organization, yet there was immediate retrenchment following the close of the emergency. The disastrous failure of the Enlarged Program discouraged further peacetime activities in this area. The role of ALA in human rights was almost negligible during this period. Only once did it deal directly with the

problem of racial discrimination. That action came as a result of membership complaint, and not from the leadership. Rather than an unconcern for the rights of members, however, this lack of action seemed to indicate a feeling that the problem was outside the sphere of a professional association. If the Association had taken an adamant stand against racial discrimination, perhaps it would have been less vulnerable to future charges of not caring for the problems of minority groups. In view of the large Southern membership, such a position would have been difficult to maintain at that time. In the area of intellectual freedom, ALA has been criticized less by its own members. Its Library Bill of Rights provided libraries with a strong statement which could be used to fight censorship problems. The resolution against the use of loyalty oaths was strong at first, but many members felt it was then weakened through revision. The statement on labeling was an unqualified condemnation which left no room for interpretation. The Association seemed willing to act in most matters concerning intellectual freedom because these issues seemed to be an integral part of the library profession. Unfortunately, the effectiveness of ALA in confronting problems in intellectual freedom was potentially weakened by the failure to provide any force with which to fight violations. While members criticized this failure, there was perhaps little which a professional

association could do in enforcing its resolutions.

Through the development of various standards, the Association has been very effective in raising the quality of library service throughout the country. Occasionally other organizations, such as the National Education Association, have contributed in this effort, but the standards have been mainly the work of librarians. These guidelines have had a pronounced effect in convincing authorities of the need for larger budgets, better buildings and equipment, and more qualified personnel. Although the standards have often been criticized for being unrealistically high, they have established goals towards which communities should work. In that respect they have performed a real and valuable service to librarianship.

As a political organization, the Association has demonstrated only infrequent successes. Major victories have been the Printing Act of 1895, the selection of the Librarian of Congress in 1899, and the Library Services Act. Yet a listing of major successes does not reveal the whole story. It is possible that constant lobbying and contact with members of Congress have produced results which are not so noticeable, but are still important. A greater awareness of librarians and a favorable atmosphere are among the possible changes effected by lobbying efforts. The ALA has been engaged in these activities almost since the time it was established. This writer believes that the

effectiveness of its lobbying efforts has always been limited by a number of factors. The total membership of the profession and the Association have both been too small to carry much political weight. Furthermore, this membership has been dispersed over a large geographical area. Perhaps the most significant reason for the lack of effectiveness has been the underlying desire of ALA to remain a non-political organization. All political philosophies are embraced by the membership, and thus it would be very difficult to take an active political role. The nature of the profession places further limits on what could be considered appropriate political activity.

In its relationship to the divisions the Association has shown its greatest and most persistent weakness, in the view of ALA critics. Divisions were formed willingly and with the encouragement of ALA. Given the diversity of interests of librarians, the divisions seem to be an integral part of the Association. As the divisions grew in membership, there was a corresponding growth in desire for authority, autonomy, and a desire for a greater share in the financial resources. The Association was unwilling to grant these concessions until confronted with the threat of force. The threat of secession by ACRL was real enough so that a number of changes were made. According to the management firm studying ALA in 1954, some of the changes were not

beneficial as far as the total organization was concerned. The reorganization made further changes, yet it was clear no permanent solution had been achieved. The problem was made worse by the history of ALA's inadequate response to divisional complaints in the view of the divisions. If the divisions had been given sympathetic treatment earlier, the problems which came before and after reorganization might not have seemed so important.

The international role played by ALA has been strong and significant. There was an almost missionary spirit in carrying the American methods of librarianship to other nations, and many countries benefited from the Association's work. The organization was instrumental in establishing library schools in several nations. New libraries were founded and existing libraries were improved with foundation support and ALA administration. Although membership funds were not usually involved, these programs were not entirely without cost to the Association. The programs rarely covered the complete overhead costs, and they drew away energies which could have been expended on much-needed domestic library service. Furthermore, there was the serious question of whether a professional association should be involved in such activities. In spite of problems and questions, however, the services were very worthwhile.

Trends

The following trends have been noted in studying the history and development of ALA:

(1) In recent years there has been a growing concern for individual freedom and rights, perhaps a reflection of the concern shown in American society in general. This growing awareness in the Association, however, has not developed to the extent and with the speed desired by many members. There is considerable potential for friction between these members, and other members with a more traditional view of what should be the concern of a professional association.

(2) There has been a growing complexity in the organizational structure of ALA, a growing Headquarters staff, and a corresponding increase in dues. There has been dissatisfaction among some members over the benefits derived from membership, and this seems to increase as the dues escalate.

(3) A growing sense of the need to provide for greater democracy in the organization is evident. This was reflected in the reorganization of 1957, but was not adequately realized.

(4) During the period studied there was always a concern over salaries and working conditions of librarians, but any attempt to influence such matters seemed to be outside the realm of the Association. In taking this attitude, ALA was opening the way for the development of competing organizations which would be successful in attracting members.

(5) There has been a growing concern over the need to sell the idea of good library service to the public. It was apparent from experience that librarians could not be satisfied to wait for the public to discover how valuable library services were. Public relations has become an integral part of librarianship.

(6) Throughout the history of the Association there has been a great concern over library services, a constantly expanding concept. Through the years, adult education, rural library service, audio visual services, bookmobiles, and international efforts have been among the major projects added to the traditional services.

Additional Research

The following areas are suggested as among those needing additional attention and research:

(1) There is a need for individual histories of the divisions and associations which are part of ALA.

(2) There is a need for research into the development of library education in the unaccredited areas: graduate, undergraduate, and sub-professional.

(3) There is a need for the development of a systematic oral history program to preserve the unwritten record of ALA history. The profession has already lost the oral history of the early period; it should move rapidly before much more is lost forever. Although this project might be centered in one library or library school, it is clearly beyond the resources of any one institution.

(4) In addition, there is a need for more research in all areas of librarianship. What effect, for example, has technology had on the development of library service? What has been the effect of such projects as the Council on Library Resources? The profession also

needs to have more information on the non-user of library facilities. This will be necessary in determining the future role of libraries in society.

Conclusion

This chapter has noted the particular strengths and weaknesses of ALA during its history, and particularly in 1957. The organization is shown to be the major library organization, yet it is beset with many problems. The problems, in a number of instances, have been shown to be constant with ALA. Some issues were raised at the very beginning of ALA, yet are still unsolved today. Other problems, such as intellectual freedom and racial discrimination, are relatively new. Divided loyalties and divided opinions have long been a problem in the Association. Members have been unable to come to a decision as to what a professional organization should be doing. Political involvement, matters relating to salaries, and participation of the federal government in library support have been some of the particularly divisive issues which have faced libraries and which have still not been solved in 1972. Progress is difficult to achieve when such basic differences remain. A final problem is that of the internal structure. The problem existed even in the early days of the Association, when there was almost no permanent

visible organization. The reorganization solved some of the problems, but raised others. There have been intermittant suggestions that ALA should really be a federation of independent organizations if it is to meet the needs of all librarians. It is clear from the amount of time spent discussing the subject that ALA members are and have always been very concerned over the structure of the organization. Yet no permanent solution has ever been achieved. Thus it is apparent that in 1957, and still in 1972, that some very important problems remain unsettled. In spite of these problems, ALA is a strong, viable organization which has made a major contribution to American society.



APPENDIX A

CONFERENCES OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

CONFERENCES OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION[1]

Date	Place
1876	Philadelphia
1877	New York
1877	London (International)
1878	No meeting
1879	Boston
1880	No meeting
1881	Washington
1882	Cincinnati
1883	Buffalo
1884	No meeting
1885	Lake George, N.Y.
1886	Milwaukee
1887	Thousand Islands, N.Y.
1888	Catskill Mts., N.Y.
1889	St. Louis
1890	Fabyans (White Mts.)
1891	San Francisco
1892	Lakewood
1893	Chicago
1894	Lake Placid, N.Y.
1895	Denver and Colorado Springs
1896	Cleveland
1897	Philadelphia
1897	*London (International)*
1898	Lakewood-on-Chautauqua
1899	Atlanta
1900	Montreal, Que., Canada
1901	Waukesha, Wis.
1902	Boston and Magnolia, Mass.
1903	Niagra Falls, N.Y.
1904	St. Louis
1905	Portland, Ore.
1906	Narragansett Pier, R.I.
1907	Asheville, N.C.
1908	Lake Minnetonka, Minn.
1909	Bretton Woods, N.H.
1910	Mackinac Island, Mich.
1910	Brussels (International)
1911	Pasadena

[1] A.L.A. Membership Directory, 1970 (Chicago: ALA, 1970), pp. 256-57.

Date	Place
1912	Ottawa, Ont., Canada
1913	Kaaterskill, N.Y.
1914	Washington
1915	Berkeley, Calif.
1916	Asbury Park, N.J.
1917	Louisville
1918	Saratoga Springs, N.Y.
1919	Asbury Park, N.J.
1920	Colorado Springs
1921	Swampscott, Mass.
1922	Detroit
1923	Hot Springs, Ark.
1924	Saratoga Springs, N.Y.
1925	Seattle
1926	Atlantic City, N.J.
1927	Toronto, Ont., Canada
1928	West Baden, Ind.
1929	Washington
1930	Los Angeles
1931	New Haven, Conn.
1932	New Orleans
1933	Chicago
1934	Montreal, Que., Canada
1935	Denver
1936	Richmond, Va.
1937	New York
1938	Kansas City, Mo.
1939	San Francisco
1940	Cincinnati
1941	Boston
1942	Milwaukee
1943	No meeting
1944	No meeting
1945	No meeting
1946	Buffalo
1947	San Francisco
1948	Atlantic City
1949	Regional Conferences
1950	Cleveland
1951	Chicago
1952	New York
1953	Los Angeles
1954	Minneapolis
1955	Philadelphia
1956	Miami
1957	Kansas City

APPENDIX B

PRESIDENTS OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

PRESIDENTS OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION[1]

Presidents	Years
Justin Winsor	1876-85
William Frederick Poole	1885-87
Charles Ammi Cutter	1887-89
Frederick Morgan Crunden	1889-90
Melvil Dewey	1890-July, 1891
Samuel Swett Green	July-Nov., 1891
William Isaac Fletcher	1891-92
Melvil Dewey	1892-93
Josephus Nelson Larned	1893-94
Henry Munson Utley	1894-95
John Cotton Dana	1895-96
William Howard Brett	1896-97
Justin Winsor	July-Oct., 1897
Herbert Putnam	Jan.-Aug., 1898
William Coolidge Lane	1898-99
Reuben Gold Thwaites	1899-1900
Henry James Carr	1900-01
John Shaw Billings	1901-02
James Kendall Hosmer	1902-03
Herbert Putnam	1903-04
Ernest Cushing Richardson	1904-05
Frank Pierce Hill	1905-06
Clement Walker Andrews	1906-07
Arthur Elmore Bostwick	1907-08
Charles Henry Gould	1908-09
Nathaniel Dana Carlile Hodges	1909-10
James Ingersoll Wyer	1910-11
Mrs. Theresa West Elmendorf	1911-12
Henry Eduard Legler	1912-13
Edwin Hatfield Anderson	1913-14
Hiller Crowell Wellman	1914-15
Mary Wright Plummer	1915-16
Walter Lewis Brown	1916-17
Thomas Lynch Montgomery	1917-18
William Warner Bishop	1918-19
Chalmers Hadley	1919-20
Alice S. Tyler	1920-21
Azariah Smith Root	1921-22
George Burwell Utley	1922-23

[1] A.L.A. Membership Directory, 1970 (Chicago: ALA, 1970), p. x.

Presidents	Years
Judson Toll Jennings	1923-24
Herman H. B. Meyer	1924-25
Charles F. D. Belden	1925-26
George H. Locke	1926-27
Carl B. Roden	1927-28
Linda A. Eastman	1928-29
Andrew Keogh	1929-30
Adam Strohm	1930-31
Josephine Adams Rathbone	1931-32
Harry Miller Lydenberg	1932-33
Gratia A. Countryman	1933-34
Charles H. Compton	1934-35
Louis Round Wilson	1935-36
Malcolm Glenn Wyer	1936-37
Harrison Warwick Craver	1937-38
Milton James Ferguson	1938-39
Ralph Munn	1939-40
Essae Martha Culver	1940-41
Charles Harvey Brown	1941-42
Keyes D. Metcalf	1942-43
Althea H. Warren	1943-44
Carl Vitz	1944-45
Ralph A. Ulveling	1945-46
Mary U. Rothrock	1946-47
Paul North Rice	1947-48
E. W. McDiarmid	1948-49
Milton E. Lord	1949-50
Clarence R. Graham	1950-51
Loleta Fyan	1951-52
Robert Downs	1952-53
Flora B. Ludington	1953-54
L. Quincy Mumford	1954-55
John S. Richards	1955-56
Ralph R. Shaw	1956-57
Lucille Morsch	1957-58

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