Professional education for librarianship: a proposal for a library school at the University of Iowa

Tse-Chien Tai

University of Iowa

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PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP
A PROPOSAL FOR A LIBRARY SCHOOL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

by

TSE-CHIEN TAI

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF
THE GRADUATE COLLEGE OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

IOWA CITY, IOWA
MAY 20, 1925.
This study deals primarily with professional education for librarianship in the United States. Since the publication of Dr. Charles C. Williamson's report on "Training for Library Service" to the Carnegie Corporation authorized in 1919 and published in 1923, the American library world has had much discussion of the problem of training professional librarians. But none of the criticism and comment on this report nor the general wide-spread discussion which has followed has been based on a proper realization of the existing inter-relations between the development of libraries, the dominant factors in the determination of the character of library service, past and present training, and education for librarianship including the development of professional library schools.

The method employed in this work is, first, to present a theoretical analysis of the social, educational and intellectual factors which have been and still are dominant in the development of libraries and the determination of the character of their service and are, consequently, the dominant factors in the determination of the character of professional education for librarianship.

For practically every other recognized profession there is available the recorded history of its scientific and cultural development and of the training and education of its masters from the past to the present. But in the field of education for librarianship such is not the case.
Without knowing the qualifications of the librarians during the various stages in the evolution of the office from ancient times to the present and without knowing definitely the reasons for establishing professional library schools and their origin and development in different countries, there is small wonder at having no proper instrument for detecting the factors at present changing the conceptions of librarianship and its educational requirements. The systematic study of the past casts light on the development of librarianship to-day and the careful analysis of the present may illumine the path to the future.

This historical method is applied in studying systematically the training and education for librarianship and the origin and development of professional library schools on the Continent, in England, and in America. Especially have the merits and defects of the professional library schools of the last named country been critically analyzed. This constitutes the second part of this study.

From the theoretical analysis of the social, educational and intellectual factors in the development of librarianship, advanced in the first part of this study and the historical study of the origin and development of librarianship and professional library training agencies in the second, a definite program for the future is formulated. The program receives concrete illustration in the
specific proposal for a Library School at the State University of Iowa. This, including the curriculum and budget found in appendixes 1 and 2 constitute the third part of this study. If in reading the chapters which follow it is felt that proportionally too much space has been devoted in a treatise on professional education for librarianship to a description of the various types of libraries that have developed from ancient times to the present, it must be kept in mind that this is necessary in order to show the character of service for which librarians during these periods had to be educated.

Throughout this study almost all the quotations of various authorities whether agreed to or not are directly quoted with two distinct purposes, (1) to avoid the unintentional accident of misinterpretation and (2) to give due credit to those who have before dealt with the particular points involved.

The writer wishes to apologize to the woman-librarian. Whenever there is occasion to use the pronoun, the masculine "he" is generally used. But it does not mean that he neglects the valuable feminine contributions to the profession. He may be permitted to assert that wherever the word "librarian" is used, it is meant to include both men and women.

The writer wishes gratefully to acknowledge his indebtedness to those whose writings or opinions he has quoted. The number of persons contributing in this
respect is so large that it is not possible to mention them individually. However, special acknowledgements of his indebtedness are due to the following: To Professor John Boynton Kaiser, Director of the University Libraries, and Dean Paul Clifford Packer and Professor Forest C. Ensign of the College of Education, for their suggestion that this study be undertaken. The writer is further indebted to Professor John Boynton Kaiser for his valuable suggestions in procedure, helpful criticisms in development and untiring labour in the revision of the entire work. Without his deep interest and constant aid, this task would have been impossible.

The writer wishes to mention that the broad scientific attitude and scholarly atmosphere prevailing in the Graduate College of the State University of Iowa, exemplified by its leader, Dean Carl Emil Seashore and his colleagues, Professors G. T. W. Patrick, Carl F. Taeusch, Giles M. Ruch and other members of the College, have been a constant inspiration. He has been conscious of the fact that something was expected of him, and he has put forth his best efforts in striving towards this ideal.

Thanks are extended for the courtesy of the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association. It gave the writer the opportunity of attending its two conferences from which he got much inspiration and information from leaders of the profession in this country. To the members of the staff of the
University Libraries, special thanks are due for their prompt service.

To Mrs. John F. Loeck who kindly read portions of the manuscript and to Mr. Jackson E. Towne, Superintendent of Departmental Libraries of the University of Iowa, who patiently read the entire manuscript and made many valuable corrections especially in the use of English idioms, grateful acknowledgement is returned. Finally much indebtedness is acknowledged to the writer's wife, Julie Rummelhoff Tai, without whose constant devotion, enthusiasm, and systematic effort in checking over the translations from German books and periodicals and painstaking labour in reading the final typewritten copy, this work would not have been possible in its present condition.

May 11, 1925. Tse-Chien Tai

Iowa City, Iowa
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TOPICAL OUTLINE

Part I. THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN LIBRARIES AND
LIBRARIANSHIP.

Chapter 1. The Democratic Ideal in Education
(i.e. Education for the masses -
Public School System, School-District
Libraries and Public Libraries.)
Selected Bibliography.

Chapter 2. The Spirit of Research in Higher
Education (i.e. scope of education
widened from mere cultural to in­
clude also occupational subjects.
Changed methods of teaching,
especially in higher education, help
the development of college and
university libraries.)
Selected Bibliography.

Chapter 3. Increase of Printed Material (i.e.
great increase of Printed matter in
the form of newspapers, periodicals,
and books - cultural, scientific,
technical, vocational and recre­
ational. They require for storing
and using. Result: - development of
special libraries and scientific
libraries.)
Selected Bibliography.
Chapter 4. Library Philanthropy (i.e. on account of the service and benefits rendered by libraries to the public, men of wealth are willing to make gifts for the development of libraries. Librarians encouraged by these generous donations awake to the importance of their profession.)

Selected Bibliography.

Chapter 5. The Library Associations (i.e. An incentive in the development of modern libraries and librarianship. Exchange of ideas and mutual aid are the way to progress.)

Selected Bibliography.

Part II. TRAINING AND EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP.

Chapter 6. The Librarians in Ancient Times (i.e. from Egyptian to Roman.)
(a) Education (priest, author, monk and scholar)
(b) Function (Keeper and preserver of books)

Selected Bibliography.

Chapter 7. The Mediaeval and Early Modern Librarians. (i.e. Monastic to collegiate librarians of 18th Century; from 19th century to the present.)
(a) Education (Bibliographical, academic, technical and professional)
(b) Function (Social worker and administrator of books)

Selected bibliography.

Chapter 8. The Professional Education of the Modern Librarian. (Origin and development of Professional Library Schools.)
(a) Germany
(b) Austria
(c) Italy
(d) Scandinavian countries
(e) France
(f) American Library School in Paris
(g) Great Britain
(h) United States of America

(a) Scope limited to conditions in America.
(b) Education (general, cultural, special and professional)
(c) Function (cultural administrator, scholarly institutional manager; professional librarians for special
libraries, as Hospital Libraries, University Libraries, etc.)

Chapter 10. American Library Schools. (Are the Present Educational Agencies for Librarianship capable of training the type of Librarians needed for the Future?)

(a) Pros and Cons:

1. Priority of the American Library Schools; well attended by library students from other Countries.

2. Need not follow the well-trodden paths

3. Professional education, but not necessarily of graduate character, results of great variations in entrance requirements.

4. Curriculum of Library training should meet the needs of various types of libraries and various types of work.

5. Knowledge of library technique is the commonly accepted standard for the instructional staff.

6. Professional education and technical training necessary.
7. Standardization and uniformity are not essential.

Part III. A PROPOSED SCHEME OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP.

Chapter 11. The Library School as a School of a University.

1. The trend of professional education is toward complete University affiliation.
2. Specialization in library profession is essential.
3. Financially impossible for independent library schools to carry out the work of specialization.
4. Advanced research work in library science is possible.
5. Recruiting easier and outlook of the students bigger and life fuller.

Chapter 12. A Proposed Library School for the State University of Iowa.

1. Uneven distribution of library schools.
2. Need of Library service in the State of Iowa.
4. No other agency in a State is better equipped and fitted to take up the task of training professional librarians.

5. Organization of a library school; administration and instructional staff.
   (a) Salary
   (b) Part-time instruction
   (c) Office hours
   (d) Vacation and furlough
   (e) Qualifications

Chapter 13. Requirements for Admission, Degrees and Curriculum for a Library School.

Appendix I. Suggested Curricula for both Graduate and Under-graduate Work in the Library School.

Appendix II. A Proposed Budget.
Part I

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANSHIP

Chapter I. The Democratic Ideal in Education
Chapter II. The Spirit of Research in Higher Education
Chapter III. Increase of Printed Material
Chapter IV. Library Philanthropy
Chapter V. The Library Associations
CHAPTER 1

The Democratic Ideal in Education.

Throughout history many different forces have been at work moulding the character of the modern library. The democratic ideal of education is to give every citizen the opportunity of schooling. It is his or her birthright to be brought into contact with the rudiments of learning - reading, writing, and arithmetic. The democratic tendency in education since Rousseau's Émile has been gradually developed in this country. In the second half of the nineteenth century the establishment of free public schools by the government of all the States was already a matter of fact. That impressive situation was well described by the French Commission to the Centennial Exposition of 1876.

"The great zeal for the education of the youth which grows as the population increases, penetrates into the public mind more and more, and manifests itself in more and more decided ways. What may have seemed at first a transient glow of enthusiasm, a generous impulse, has in time assumed all the force of a logical conviction, or rather of a positive certainty. It is no longer a movement of a few philanthropists or of a few religious societies, but it is an essential part of the public administration for which the states, the cities and townships appropriate every year more money than any other country in the world has hitherto devoted to the education of the people. Far from limiting this generosity as much as possible to primary instruction,
it goes so far as to declare free for all not only primary but even secondary schools. 1

The period between 1835 and 1861 in American history was a great epoch of territorial expansion towards the West, of industrial development in the East, and of educational awakening, especially in the New England states. It was a period of growth in democratic ideas and of belief in human betterment. The statesmen, the religious thinkers, the social reformers, and others all believed that the extension of the franchise, growth of industrial prosperity, and social betterment of the masses from poverty and crime must call for a new system of democratic education. If all citizens were entitled to the right to vote, they must be qualified to vote intelligently. Education for the masses was conceived as the means of realizing the ideals. As early as 1852 the State of Massachusetts introduced the law of compulsory attendance. Many public schools were established and all children were required to attend school to receive regular training in reading and thinking.

This great period of educational awakening and establishing public schools for the masses resulted, among other things, in the formation of modern libraries. Educators knew that the period of formal schooling was limited. The method of teaching in schools was only to teach pupils

how to read, to spell, and to write, but seldom taught the pupils how to educate themselves. The educators also saw clearly that it would be unfortunate if young people after quitting the schools and becoming bread-winners were to have no agency to furnish them good and desirable reading.

Charles Francis Adams Jr., in an address delivered before the teachers of Quincy, Massachusetts, in 1877, expressed a pessimistic view of the smattering education accorded the youth of that day.

"The child was made to learn some queer definition in words, or some disagreeable puzzle in figures, as if it were in itself an acquisition of value ... The result was that the scholars acquire with immense difficulty something which they forgot with equal ease; and when they left our grammar schools, they had what people are pleased to call the rudiments of education, and yet not one in twenty of them could sit down and write an ordinary letter, in a legible hand, with ideas clearly expressed, in words correctly spelled; and the proportion of those who left school with either the ability or desire to further educate themselves was scarcely greater.... A man or woman whom a whole childhood spent in the common schools has made able to stumble through a newspaper, or labor through a few trashy books, is scarcely better off than one who cannot read at all. Indeed, I doubt if he or she is as well off, for it has long been observed that a very small degree of book knowledge almost universally takes a depraved shape, the animal will
come out. The man who can barely spell out his newspaper confines his labor in nine cases out of ten to these highly seasoned portions of it which relate to acts of violence and especially to murders. A little learning is proverbially a dangerous thing; and the less the learning the greater the danger.\(^2\)

Many great educators at that time felt the need of better methods of teaching in the public schools and also of some educational agency which would continue what the school had begun. They desired to have something which could exert a continuous educational influence over the young as well as the old; which could supply a stimulus for the development of individuality among the citizens; and which could gratify those who had a strong love for reading. This something was bound to be the public library. Since the first half of the nineteenth century, modern public libraries have been gradually founded side by side with the public schools. The public schools not only taught pupils how to read, to spell, and to write, but also began to give them the tools with which to educate themselves in the form of books available in the more modern type of public libraries. From that time, schools and libraries joined together to do their educational work. The library became a natural complement of the school. Between teachers and

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librarians of vision there has been from the beginning close co-operation.

Samuel S. Green performed a hitherto untried experiment in Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1887, when he placed four little libraries, made up of books most likely to be useful in school work, in the rooms of the sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. The results of the use of these books were as follows during the 200 days of the school year 1886-1887:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Home use</th>
<th>Reference use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>856</td>
<td>2522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>1565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>1032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>908</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This encouragement to the use of modern public library facilities by school teachers and scholars produced satisfactory results. Many superintendents of schools and school principals have felt and still feel that the modern public library is not only useful but indispensable to the system of public schools. The democratic ideal in education would not have fully developed if there had been instituted only the public schools without their natural and necessary complement, modern public libraries. Without the library the work in schools would become the rigid method of

memorizing text-books, and the desire for knowledge awakened in class-rooms would have to go unsatisfied. Melvil Dewey emphasized this very point in his address before the convocation of the University of the State of New York in 1888. "Our schools, at best, will only furnish the tools (how rudimentary these tools for most people); but in the ideal libraries, towards which we are looking today, will be found the materials which, with these tools may be worked up into good citizenship and higher living. The schools give the chisel; the libraries the marble; there can be no statues without both." 4

Thus, the movement of education for the masses resulted in the founding of public schools, which, in turn, was one of the influential factors in bringing about the development of public libraries. The children who are educated in the public schools must continue their training after they leave the class-room or the endeavors of their teachers will not have been of much use. But besides the young, there are adults in every community to be educated. Therefore it is the duty of the state to establish and maintain by taxation not only schools for the young but public libraries both for the young and the mature. A democratic state cannot compromise with the idea that the sphere of the common people is merely to work and not to read and to think.

In order to live up to the democratic ideal of education the state took up the task of providing public libraries for the people who saw clearly the merit and importance of their service. These people, then, willingly allowed themselves to be taxed for the purpose of sustaining these libraries.

The recognition of public libraries as an essential part of the system of public education was first advocated in 1826 by DeWitt Clinton, Governor of the State of New York. In 1838 General John A. Dix, Secretary of State for New York, was "charged with the execution of the law giving to the school districts $55,000 a year to buy books for their libraries, and requiring them to raise by taxation an equal amount for the same purpose."\(^5\)

Thus, New York has the honor of being the first state to recognize the full significance of public libraries in the realization of the democratic ideal of education for the masses. Soon the school-district libraries were also advocated in the state of Massachusetts by the eminent educator, Horace Mann. He had been personally benefited by the service of a little library at Franklin. The significance of this is shown by Mr. A. E. Winship in his story of Mann in

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"Great American Educators": "As this library furnished the only books that Horace Mann had in his boyhood and youth, without it he would probably have developed no taste for scholarship, and the world would not have known this most brilliant American educator. Mr. Mann was so much indebted to this library, that in speaking of it in later years, he said he would like to scatter libraries broadcast over the land as a farmer sows his wheat." Through Mann's enthusiasm and influence the school-district library law was passed in Massachusetts in 1837.

Michigan adopted and incorporated similar provisions into its school law in 1837. Then the tide swept over the seventeen other states in the following chronological order: Connecticut in 1839; Rhode Island and Iowa in 1840; Indiana in 1841; Maine in 1844; Ohio in 1847; Wisconsin in 1848; Missouri in 1853; California and Oregon in 1854; Illinois in 1855; Kansas and Virginia in 1870; New Jersey in 1871; Kentucky and Minnesota in 1873; and Colorado in 1876.

Although this first movement to establish public libraries with the school-district as a unit was a failure through sheer lack of proper administration, yet it had a threefold effect in connection with the development of modern public libraries in America. First, it was the forerunner of the movement for town or city libraries. Had it

not been for this pioneer legislation in the establishment of school-district libraries, it is improbable that the first city library for which a special state law was enacted would have been born in the city of Boston as early as the year 1848. The present modern libraries of American cities and counties are all the prosperous descendants of that humble ancestor.

The second great effect was to stimulate the love of books and the diffusion of knowledge among the masses of the people. To make people understand that the free public libraries were the popular universities of the young and the old, of the poor and the rich, of the well-educated and the uneducated.

The full recognition of the free public libraries as a part of the system of public education, and therefore entitled to be supported by public taxation, was the third great main effect of the movement. From the above discussions we realize that the public schools will not yield their fullest return unless they are supplemented by free public libraries. Besides being a complement to the public schools, the free public library is a people's university, whose wonderful development since 1835 has depended upon and illustrated the democratic ideal of education.
Selected Bibliography


Bostwick, A. E: Co-operation with Schools, (In his The American Public Library, New York, Appleton, 1923, pp. 13-14.)

Bostwick, A. E: The Library and the School, (In his The American Public Library, New York, Appleton, 1923, pp. 100-113.)


CHAPTER II

The Spirit of Research in Higher Education.

The conception of college studies a century ago was quite different from that of the present time. In former days students regarded their teachers as a sort of walking encyclopaedia. They took down all the sayings of their professors and studied their text-books word by word without looking further into other authorities. The subjects were limited mainly to Latin, Greek, Mathematics, and Philosophy. Theology, Law, and Medicine were the only so-called special subjects for post-graduate students.

The early university libraries under a limited curriculum of classical courses and cultural studies did not have need of enormous collections of books. The rigid method of text-book teaching required very little use of a college library. A library in a university was a museum of rare books, or was regarded as "an elegant concomitant of higher instruction." The librarian was generally a professor with regular work in class instruction. The office was a sinecure. Opening the library three or four hours per week to loan a few books of interest was a courteous act to the professors. The library was virtually a place of storing and hiding books. Under such an atmosphere the

students had no pleasure in or desire to use the college libraries and furthermore they were neither welcomed nor wanted by the librarians. The eminent librarian of Harvard University, Justin Winsor, well illustrated the vogue of the university libraries at that time in his address before the American Social Science Association at Saratoga, September 10, 1879.

"Time was when the student in college came up to the library once or twice a week on sufferance, under the impression that it would never do to have too much of a good thing. 'Boys!' cried the warder of one of the first of our college libraries, within the memory of the present generation, 'Boys! what are you doing here - this is no place for you!' The poor craving creatures slunk away to Euclid and Horace in the seclusion of their bedrooms."  

The enlargement of the field of knowledge in the last century has had a profound effect on the methods of academic teaching. The students, in view of the very rapid increase of new subjects for study, realized that they could not pursue all. The administrators and professors recognized the situation and hence pushed forward a set of new methods of instruction with all effort. They accelerated the wide adoption of the elective system, they introduced the topical study by syllabi and emphasized collateral-

al readings. All these methods encourage and direct the students not to confine themselves to their text-books alone. The students select the subject they like. The professors aim more to suggest than to direct their pupils to the various authorities on the subject. This results in a much freer expression of opinions and judgments in the classroom, for the topic taught is no longer restricted to recitations from a single text-book.

Besides these innovations in instruction the German form of seminary method conducted in the university libraries was also introduced. In the last century many American scholars experienced and later reflected the academic influence of Göttingen, Berlin, Leipzig, Halle, and other German universities. Their influence in the founding of seminar-collections in American university libraries ushered in the epoch of departmental libraries in universities in this country.

These new methods of instruction were based on the deep conception of freedom of thought and breadth of view which are the essentials in the spirit of research. No view will be broad and no thought impartial without studying the works of various authorities. Such changes in instruction have necessitated an unavoidable change in the administration of a university library and concurrently contributed an important factor in the development of modern university and special research libraries. As President Thwing remarked, "The causes of the growth of the library of
the college are comprehended in a single movement. It is the movement toward research. The college has come to stand for scholarship. Scholarship is at once the cause and the result of the book. The continuity of learning is embodied in the library. The library gathers up the wealth of the past. It represents all that man has struggled for or achieved. The library is therefore the treasure-house of the linguist, the philologist, the philosopher, the historian. Even the scientist finds in the library the records of experiments, be they successful or of failures."

This theory regarding the growing significance of modern libraries is well sustained by the established facts concerning the greater use and rapid growth of college libraries during the last fifty years. Limited was the use and slow the growth of the American college library before 1875. There are striking contrasts between a college library of today and that of about the middle of the nineteenth century if we compare the hours open, the size of collections, and annual expenditures for the purchase of books. Harvard College Library was founded as early as 1638, but after more than 200 years, through the efforts of many faithful and enthusiastic librarians, it only contained about 41,000 volumes. Professor John Langton Sibley effectively remarked in his address to the American librarians—

ans in 1879, "It was open for consultation from 9 o'clock to 1, and from 2 until 4, on the first four secular days of the week, and on Fridays in the forenoon. There was one hour when the sophomores on Tuesdays and the freshmen on Wednesdays took out books, and one on Mondays and on Thursdays for seniors and juniors. There were no shelves in the galleries, and Gore Hall was considered large enough to accommodate all the additions that would be made during the century. The total income from the permanent fund for purchasing, repairing and binding books was exactly $250 a year." The modern college librarian would take such a condition as a joke. Nevertheless, it actually existed in one of the most renowned American colleges only 84 years ago. Harvard College Library was at that time the leading institution in the length of hours kept open. It also advocated liberal principles for use of the books by students. As to the other college libraries their collections were less accessible than those of Harvard. Some amusing facts on the opening hours of the college libraries in 1850 are given us by Librarian Koch of Northwestern University. He says, "In 1850 the libraries at Amherst and Trinity, for example, were open once a week from 1 to 3 P. M., at Princeton one hour twice a week, at the University of Missouri one

hour every two weeks. At the University of Alabama there was a rule that 'the books shall ordinarily be received at the door, without admitting the applicant in the library room.' Harvard with its 28 hours of opening per week was as usual in the vanguard of progress, but contrast even these liberal hours with present-day schedules of 89 hours and even more per week and you will see that there has been considerable progress along this line.  

We learn at the conclusion of the above illustration the length of opening hours of the present college and university library. Every college and university librarian can testify that the library is well patronized by teachers and students during every hour that it is open. Longer hours of opening went into effect when the required reading of source-materials for study and research introduced. Not only the increase in the length of opening hours of the university library, but also the increase in the use as well as the rapid enlargement of the collections and the establishment of new libraries have been regarded as results of the new methods of instruction. In order to give a clear and definite idea of the rapid growth of the college and university libraries from 1876-1920, a comparative table of their collections and the average annual increase of the 60 principal college libraries is here submitted. The data compared are taken from the statistical tables of the


A Table of 60 college and university libraries showing their average growth from the date of origin to 1876 and from 1876 to 1920.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date of Origin</th>
<th>Number of Volumes in 1876</th>
<th>Date of Origin</th>
<th>Number of Bound Volumes in 1920</th>
<th>Average Annual Increase from Date of Origin to 1876</th>
<th>Average Annual Increase from 1876-1920</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>University of California</td>
<td>1869</td>
<td>13,600</td>
<td>1944</td>
<td>479,000</td>
<td>10,886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>Trinity College</td>
<td>1824</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>1,589</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wesleyan University</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>26,000</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>120,000</td>
<td>2,136</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yale College</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>95,200</td>
<td>541</td>
<td>1,250,000</td>
<td>26,345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District of</td>
<td>George-town College</td>
<td>1791</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>140,000</td>
<td>2,545</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>University of Georgia</td>
<td>1831</td>
<td>31,600</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>66,500</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>Chicago University</td>
<td>1857</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>947</td>
<td>599,492</td>
<td>13,315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Northwestern University</td>
<td>1856</td>
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<td>Wabash College</td>
<td>1833</td>
<td>10,482</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>56,000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Date of Origin</td>
<td>Number of Volumes in 1876</td>
<td>Number Bound Volumes in 1920</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from Date of Origin to 1876</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from 1876-1920</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Indiana University</td>
<td>1828</td>
<td>5,300</td>
<td>134,370</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>47,000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colby University</td>
<td>1813</td>
<td>11,100</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>1,020</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Mt. St. Mary's College</td>
<td>1808</td>
<td>7,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
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<td>Harvard College</td>
<td>1838</td>
<td>212,050</td>
<td>2,038,100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mass. Institute of Tech.</td>
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<td>140,737</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>3,143</td>
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</table>

6. According to the history of the General Library of the State University of Iowa, the first collection of books for a general library began in the fall of 1855. See University of Iowa, The University Libraries. Facilities and Service. 1934, p. 29.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date of Origin</th>
<th>Number of Volumes in 1876</th>
<th>Number of Bound Volumes in 1920</th>
<th>Average Annual Increase from Date of Origin to 1876</th>
<th>Number of Volumes in 1876</th>
<th>Average Annual Increase from 1876-1920</th>
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<td>Massachusetts</td>
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<td>80,000</td>
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<td>Williams College</td>
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<td>96,320</td>
<td>311</td>
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<td>University of Michigan</td>
<td>1841</td>
<td>27,500</td>
<td>432,394</td>
<td>785</td>
<td>9,202</td>
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<tr>
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<td>University of Minnesota</td>
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<td>10,000</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>1428</td>
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<td>31,000</td>
<td>221</td>
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<td>University of Missouri</td>
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<td>St. Louis University</td>
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<td>Dartmouth College</td>
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<td>Rutgers College</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>State</td>
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<td>Date of Origin</td>
<td>Number of Volumes in 1876</td>
<td>Number of Bound Volumes in 1920</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from Date of Origin to 1876</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from 1876-1920</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Hamilton College</td>
<td>1812</td>
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<td>Columbia College (University)</td>
<td>1757</td>
<td>31,390</td>
<td>747,448</td>
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<td>Vassar College</td>
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<td>Union College</td>
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<td>United States Military Academy</td>
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<td>500</td>
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<td>31,902</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>316</td>
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<td>2,079</td>
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<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Date of Origin</td>
<td>Number of Volumes in 1876</td>
<td>Number of Bound Volumes in 1920</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from Date of Origin to 1876</td>
<td>Average Annual Increase from 1876 to 1920</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>50,000</td>
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<td>21,000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>University of Wisconsin</td>
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<td>6,670</td>
<td>276,000</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>6,121</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The 60 cases in the above table indicate a more rapid average increase of every library from 1876 - 1920 than that from the dates of their origins to the year 1876. From 1876 to 1920 Columbia College library has had an average annual increase, the equivalent of 81 times its increase between 1757 and 1876 and from 1876 to 1920 Yale has had about 48 times its increase between 1700 and 1876. Before 1876 the average annual increase of Columbia was 264 books and that of Yale 541 books. Some may say that the average annual increase of any library before 1876 cannot be taken as a reliable record, due to several serious factors, namely, fire, war, absence of records, and irregularity of annual purchase. For example Harvard College Library, nominally
dating back from 1878, does not really take its origin until after the fire of 1764. It is true that we cannot take too seriously the figures of annual increase before 1878, but nevertheless, the above table shows very definitely the rapid growth of the college library from 1876 to the present day. It is not alone in the old universities that the rapid growth of the library has taken place, but the more recent universities and colleges have awakened to the same important truth. For instance several college libraries were not founded until 1876 or later and their growth also very rapid. The libraries of Johns Hopkins University and the University of Oregon both began in 1876 and within the period of the last 44 years, i.e. 1876-1920, they have acquired 225,000 and 94,000 bound volumes, respectively. In the year 1883 the library of the University of Texas was established and in about 37 years it has grown to a collection of 194,459 volumes. This rapid development of college libraries has just begun. The momentum of acceleration of growth is and will be increased, as the spirit of research in the universities intensifies the method of instruction in every branch of scientific and professional subjects. The slogan now-a-days is "use and more use" of the college and university libraries. The present methods of college teaching increase the use of the university libraries. They have become mental laboratories for every phase of human knowledge.

The important rôle to be played by university libraries in the sphere of the university teaching functions
was well described by President Harper of the University of Chicago in his address read at the dedication of the Library of Colorado College, March 14, 1894. He began his paper by painting the college libraries of the third quarter of the nineteenth century:

"A quarter of a century ago the library in most of our institutions, even the oldest, was scarcely large enough, if one were to count volumes, or valuable enough, if one were to estimate values, to deserve the name of the library. So far as it had location, it was the place to which the professor was accustomed to make his way occasionally, the student almost never.... Today the chief building of a college, the building in which is taken greatest pride, is the library. With the stack for storage purposes, the reading room for reference books, the offices of delivery, the rooms for seminar purposes, it is the center of the institutional activity. The director of the library is not infrequently one of the most learned men of the faculty; in many instances certainly, the most influential. Lectures are sometimes given by him on bibliography, or classes organized for instruction in the use of books. The staff of assistants is often larger than the entire faculty in the same institution thirty years ago. Volumes are added to the number of 3,000; 5,000; 10,000; or 20,000 in a single year; the periodical literature of each department is on file; the building is open day and night.... That factor of our college and university work, the library, fifty years ago was almost unknown,
today already the center of the institution's intellectual activity, half a century hence — with its sister, the laboratory, almost equally unknown fifty years back — will, by absorbing all else, have become the institution itself."  

This is a very enthusiastic statement. As the spirit of research advances in universities, the university library will be the heart of intellectual activities and it will constantly supply life and strength to the faculty and to the students.

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Richardson, E. C: The Place of the Library in a University.


Scudder, Horace E: College Libraries a hundred years ago.
   pp. 21-31.)
Sibley, John Langton: An Address before the American Library
University of Iowa: The University Libraries, Facilities and Services. Iowa City, 1924.
   pp. 7-14.)
Winsor, Justin: College and Other Higher Libraries.
CHAPTER III
Increase of Printed Material.

The last quarter of the nineteenth century marked the beginning of an age of publication, scientific, philosophical, social, ephemeral and what not. In science it was the time of crystallization of the experimental methods of the last two hundred and fifty years. It was the fruit produced from a great period of scientific revolution. In philosophy and natural science, empiricism and the theory of evolution had filled the mind of intellectuals and laymen alike with skeptical curiosity. In the social sciences the results of industrial revolution started afresh the new conception of the organization of society. Modern inventions and wonderful discoveries in applied chemistry have revolutionized the ordinary conditions and views of life. The every day working man has been bewildered by the miracles around him. He has been restless to learn about the miracles of scientific invention and to inform himself of the new interpretations of life. This desire of the working man has called forth a flood of publications. The great age of printing is characterized by a headlong rush into the wide production of reading material. Scientists publish the results of their investigations, philosophers their new interpretations of life and knowledge, psychologists their advanced theories of mental tests, jingoists their war talk, and business-men their clever advertisements. Not only have books, monographs and pamphlets on various sub-
jects been published, but periodicals and newspapers have increased daily in numbers and in variety.

If one compares the newspapers of 1875 with those of today, he will be greatly surprised to find the extraordinary voluminousness of the modern dailies. They publish news, national, local, and international, irrespective of its significance or scandalous nature. Stock exchange news, financial markets, interesting stories, scientific discussions, and talks on arts occupy many pages of the metropolitan dailies. Advertisements and crossword puzzles give no less pleasure to the readers. Papers of yesterday had only two to four pages, but papers of today take more than twenty. The items are so numerous that they necessitate an index.

People read not only dailies, but weeklies and monthlies. According to Mr. John Cotton Dana's estimates ten years ago of the publication of dailies, weeklies, and monthlies in the United States of America in a single year, the figures were as follows: 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Copies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dailies</td>
<td>2,865,466,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weeklies</td>
<td>1,208,190,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthlies</td>
<td>283,452,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,337,108,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before going on to speak of the profound effect of this age of publication on the development of modern

libraries, two important factors should not be overlooked. First the cost of paper today is cheaper than fifty years ago and second the improvement of printing machinery has made possible the great success of multitudinous publications. Mr. Dana, librarian of the Newark Public Library, succinctly pointed out these facts in an address delivered before the Pennsylvania Library Association as follows: "In 1870 a poor quality of printing paper cost 16 cents a pound. Paper of better quality is sold today for two cents a pound... Up to 1880 type was made and set very much as it had been from its first invention several hundred years before. Now the punches, one of the most expensive of the things required in type-setting, are cut almost automatically from one model for type of any size of a given style. The Wicks type-casting machine is reported as about to reduce the cost of type one half... The Lanston monotype casts and sets and justifies lines - does all that a hand compositor can do - automatically and with astonishing rapidity, under the guidance of a strip of paper properly perforated by a machine almost as easy to operate as a typewriter. The Linotype machine casts solid bars of type with almost any desired changes of face. All large papers and most books are stereotyped before printing. A machine now makes the stereotype plates in a fraction of a minute from a matrix formed in a few seconds... Presses are now obtainable which will deliver in one hour 100,000 newspapers complete and
folded and printed in twelve colors.²

With the improvements of manufacturing paper and of printing machinery, the production of printed material is much easier and also much cheaper. Consequently the demand for things to read has been easily filled. At the same time the schools and the colleges turn out more graduates whose tendency to read has been stimulated and because of this the public and university libraries have more readers of a serious type. The view of every man and woman is wider and the habit of reading and wishing to know more about things are constantly increased. These tendencies have been anticipated by the commercialized publications. Excellent writers, now-a-days somewhat more than their forefathers, who were more likely to write prompted by their genuine convictions, may be hired to compose propaganda. To produce a work to satisfy the popular fancy may yield a much bigger financial return than a work of plain truth. Many publishers will publish any book, provided that it will have a chance of commanding a sale. Thus the book-market is flooded not only with scientific publications but also with commercialized literature of every conceivable sort.

And what has resulted from this enormous output of publications, of ephemeral or even more or less permanent value? One of the direct results has been the rapid development of modern libraries of every type and particularly state

² Ibid. pp. 77-78.
libraries and special libraries. In general the increase of printed material has created the need for special libraries. The more books a library has the more complicated is the administration. The librarian must be able to handle books with less labor and expense. No matter how big the income of a library is, it cannot keep pace with the production of books. Then book-selection and sharper differentiation in the nature and scope of different libraries are more emphasized than ever before.

Libraries hitherto bought standard works of well-known authors irrespective of their subjects. But such a purchasing policy in this age of quantity production will not satisfy the interests of the patrons of a library. The patrons will not get what they want to read. To avoid their disappointment the library has adopted two policies of development. First, it defines its scope and nature and only purchases those books within its sphere. Second, it recognizes that it is more economical and efficient to have a division of the field of purchase between different libraries of the same region. For instance, the John Crerar Library of Chicago aims to buy only scientific and technical books, and leaves the purchase of books in the humanities to the Newberry Library, while the Chicago Public Library through its branches looks after the buying of fiction and of books of general culture and recreation.

As has been already mentioned, the increase of printed material has influenced the growth of two particular
orders of libraries, namely state and special libraries. The state libraries go back rather far in the history of American libraries. Originally these were reference collections of law books and public documents, housed in state capitols for the use of state-legislators and officials. In general, all the collections of the state libraries outgrew their limitations and they were and are immensely influenced by the tremendous increase of things to read. The state libraries could not expect to stand against the tide and in time some of them became general reference libraries, and some, special reference libraries on legislative problems or on history. The scope of the state library has been widened and its contents enriched by the increase of printed material. Mr. G. S. Godard illuminates this point in his article "Development of the State Library," as follows:

"The area of human knowledge is unlimited and getting more so. Books! Books! Books! See how they grow. A dozen or more new ones every hour, 24 hours a day, 365 days in a year. Good books and bad books. Standard books and books to stand, and some one, somewhere, desiring to see, not necessarily read, each one sometime. Think of it! From eternity to eternity is a long time, and each decade must learn and unlearn so much, but apparently print it all. It is no longer possible within any sort of reason for any one library - town, county, state or national - to think of enveloping every thing printed. The expense of purchasing, collecting, cataloguing and housing is prohibitive. There-
fore, is it not desirable – as has in some instances been
done – that each state library select its departments or
fields of work which may thus be made approximately complete,
leaving the other departments of knowledge which are thus
either neglected or deficient to be covered by other
libraries which may in turn be deficient or neglected in
some lines covered in this." 3

In the same manner as the growth of the state
library, the Library of Congress has been greatly effected
by the increase of printed material at the close of the last
century. Any one who is familiar with the history of the
Library of Congress knows that its rapid development occurred
only recently. Besides its acquisition from deposits under
the copyright law and from gifts and exchanges, the annual
appropriation for the purchase of books amounts, approxi­
mately, to $100,000. In 1852, immediately after the second
fire of the Congressional Library, Congress generously
voted $75,000 for the immediate purchase of books. That
amount was then an enormous sum to spend for books, but it
is small in comparison to the present annual appropriation,
already cited. From 1800, the date of birth of the Library
of Congress, to the year 1860, partly because of two de­

3. Godard, G. S: Development of the State Library. Library
and Its Organization," ed. by G. G. Drury, New York,
Wilson, 1924, pp. 281-286.
structive fires, it had grown to but 75,000 volumes. Sixteen years later it had grown to about 360,000 volumes including pamphlets. In 1897 the library was removed to its new building and at that time it had a collection of 750,000 volumes. During the last twenty-five years the collection of books and pamphlets has grown to about three millions. It is a wonderful development which indirectly reflects the tremendous increase of the printed material of the present age. Some may suppose that the growth is not primarily due to the increase of books to read and that it may be due to a considerable extent to the buying of much material printed before the improvement of the printing press, such as the Peter Force Library, purchased in 1867. The Library of Congress does buy old European and Oriental books, but the large annual appropriation for useful books and pamphlets in conjunction with current copyrighted books has certainly been the chief force in moulding and influencing its scope and development. Dr. Putnam, the present librarian, remarks on this very fact in an address delivered at the Portland conference of the American Library Association in 1905: "And its appropriation for the purchase is now $98,000 a year. Freed from any expenditure for current copyrighted books and a considerable mass of other material, this may go far. It might do much even in the purchase of the rare and

curious books suited to a museum library. It is not, however, being applied to these. It is being applied to the acquisition of the material not precious from its form or rarity merely, but useful from its contents.  

Therefore the increase of printed material does effect the development of the modern libraries and it has moulded the state-libraries into general and special reference libraries, and the Library of Congress into a monstrous reference and research library for the whole country.

Special libraries are of two types which might be termed the static and the dynamic. The static type, such as the Union Theological Seminary Library of New York, the Philadelphia Law Association Library, and the Boston Medical Library, was established for the convenience and learning of the members of a certain profession. But most of these libraries were not very rich in collections even as late as 1876. If we refer to Professor Theodore Gill's article on scientific libraries in the United States, made as a special report to the Bureau of Education for the year 1876 we learn that at that time only the libraries of a few learned societies contained the chief sources of scientific information. The societies which could afford the requisite facilities were extremely few. In fact there were consider-

ably less than a dozen of these libraries. The medical library of the Surgeon-General's Office, the applied science library of the Patent Office, the Astronomical library of the United States Naval Observatory, the Boston Society Library of natural history, and a few other scientific libraries in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, were the leaders.

Within the period of the last fifty years the tremendous advances made in pure and applied science have resulted in the production of numberless scientific and technical publications. That in turn has immensely enlarged the collections of the early scientific and technical libraries, and promoted the establishment of many new ones. The library data on page 391 and 392 of the Encyclopædia Americana, 1924 edition, show that at present the United States has 76 principal libraries representing 34 special subjects of human knowledge. For example, the Prudential Life Insurance Company of Newark, New Jersey has an insurance library of 100,000 volumes. The sociological library of the Russell Sage Foundation has 15,695 volumes. The Art library of the Metropolitan Museum of New York City has 29,000 volumes. The Agricultural library of the United States Department of Agriculture has 131,693 volumes.

The scientific library of the Smithsonian Institution has 521,616 volumes. This is the wonderful progress of the special libraries of the static type.

The dynamic type of special library has been developing especially since 1909 in commercial corporations and industrial plants. Its purpose is to supply managers, submanagers, engineers, accountants, foreman and others in important positions with scientific information pertaining to their work and to the work of the industry or organization as a whole. These libraries are not like the static type of special libraries for investigation and research. They are primarily time-saving machines for information for the creative and managerial minds of a big concern. The old proverb "knowledge is power" is taken deeply to heart by the ever insistent business man, but he finds that he has no time to get "power" from the great flood of modern business, scientific, and technical literature. As the industrial and commercial organizations were growing and expanding rapidly, new problems concerning management, science, and technique were daily rising. They demanded of the managers, experts, foremen, salesmen and other heads of departments fresh ideas, new devices, greater efficiency, and broader views. Advice and suggestions from the treasury of publications were sought. Thus trade journals and professional publications grew by leaps and bounds. Great organizations found that the printed trade material was so helpful in increasing their knowledge that they needed a
tool to supply them with the maximum information within the minimum time. Thus came the establishment of commercial and industrial libraries.

Both in scope and function these differ from the special libraries of the static type. The special libraries of the dynamic type deal chiefly with the latest data on current problems, while the special libraries of the static type include primarily well-authenticated though not necessarily current material on special subjects. They are for scholars and investigators. The one collects books and periodicals to be preserved and the other discards printed material which is no longer of use. Utilitarianism of an extreme form is the guiding principle of the commercial and industrial libraries. Let us borrow a paragraph regarding the nature, method, and use of the special libraries of the dynamic type.

"The special library," (Mr. John A. Lapp means the special library of the dynamic type,) "is an organization serving a specific institution which seeks to gather all of the experiences available with regard to that institution's problems, to classify it in such a way as to make it quickly available, to digest and prepare the same in usable form, to study the actual problems which confront the institution and to attempt to bring the information gathered to the right man at the right place, so that it may function in the work
of the institution which it serves."?


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CHAPTER IV
Library Philanthropy.

The last three chapters have dealt with certain important forces of outstanding significance in the development of modern libraries. The functions and contents of these libraries have been so moulded that each type has had a special service to render to society. This is a very important point in connection with the duties, work, training, and education of a librarian, and will be fully treated in the second part of this thesis. In addition to the democratic ideal in education, the spirit of research, and the increase of printed material, there are two immediate factors which have accelerated the development of modern libraries. They are library philanthropy and library organizations.

In the history of library donations in America, two early events heralded the beginning of this magnificent epoch. In the year 1700 Reverend John Sharp bequeathed his books to the city of New York and the second event was the establishment of subscription and society libraries for the benefit of the common people. These events directed the attention of wealthy men to a productive field for philanthropy.¹

Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia was the first to organize a subscription library and later the movement spread to the other parts of the early colonies. Men like

¹ Scudder, H. E: Public Libraries a Hundred Years Ago.

James Logan, John McKenzie, Abraham Redwood, and others, started to bequeath either books or money to found public libraries for the intellectual benefit of the people. The movement of library philanthropy reached its maturity in the generous donations of John Jacob Astor and James Lenox to the New York City Library; the munificent gifts of Joshua Bates of London to the Boston Public Library; the princely bequests of Walter L. Newberry to found the well-known Newberry Library for the citizens of Chicago; the $1,000,000 left by James Rush to the Ridgeway Branch of the Philadelphia Public Library for the erection of a magnificent building; several gifts of James Lick to the libraries of San Francisco; and the generous donation of Enoch Pratt to the people of Baltimore for maintaining and developing a library and branches. A list of the names of all the great library philanthropists would be too long to include here.

Andrew Carnegie has been, of course, the greatest of all donors of libraries. According to Dr. William S. Learned, the total number of library buildings in the United States, Canada, Hawaii and Porto Rico given by Mr. Carnegie and his corporation amounts to 1,804. The total amount of money for those buildings reaches the sum of $43,665,513.47.

We have seen that many rich men have been awakening

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to the worthiness of the library field to receive their philanthropy. Those who have accumulated millions in the keen competition of modern industry and commerce who are willing to spend their fortunes for the benefit of their fellowmen have shown themselves possessed of a penetrating and farsighted view of social problems. To them enlightenment and education for the mass is a royal way to peace and prosperity. Many modern millionaires realize that they are not especially created by Providence to own their millions for their private comfort and luxury, but that their wealth is a sacred trust for them wisely to administer for the welfare of the human race. Mr. Carnegie expressed the most philanthropic sentiments concerning the disposal of what he regarded as the surplus wealth of multi-millionaires in an inspiring article entitled, "Wealth," which appeared in the June number of the North American Review in 1889.

Mr. Carnegie would not give his money to libraries if they were to be but decorations to the community. The librarians of Carnegie libraries are not afraid of the accusation of belonging to a class of professionals who trumpet the importance of their own calling. For in the first place the Carnegie library has not developed only in those localities where enormous gifts have made it easy. It has come into being in regions where the need for a library was strongly felt by the community. The golden rule of Mr. Carnegie's philanthropy has been to help those who can help themselves. As Dr. Bostwick remarks of the library dona-
tions, "Most of the larger library gifts, too, have been of such a nature that they require public co-operation, so that, in the long run, the private benefaction that is the nucleus of the library snowball is almost as nothing within the accreted mass of public contributions that clings around it." 3

Library philanthropy has not created the need of free libraries for the public, but in helping to meet the need it has accelerated a movement which was already well under way. The need for a certain institution is first felt and then comes the institution. Any institution artificially installed by a whimsical person cannot flourish normally and permanently and it will wither away as a hot-house plant as soon as it is exposed under natural conditions. The determination to spread popular education through free public schools has taken firm hold on the public mind and one of the continuing natural results of that determination has been more and more readers of books. The need of free public libraries is only a necessary incident of the movement. The more the need is fulfilled, the more readers and users of the free public libraries will be produced and the more available will be the popular books. These factors are interdependent quantities.

We have seen that it has become the desire and con-

viction on the part of many rich men to help their fellows. In Mr. Carnegie's article "The Best Field for Philanthropy," he presented seven of the best uses of the surplus wealth of a millionaire. He placed donations to free public libraries at the top of his scheme. He said, "the result of my own study of the question, what is the best gift which can be given to a community is that a free library occupies the first place, provided the community will accept and maintain it as a public institution, as much a part of the city property as its public schools, and, indeed, an adjunct to these. It is, no doubt, possible that my own personal experience may have led me to value a free library beyond all other forms of beneficence ... No millionaire will go far wrong in his search for one of the best forms for the use of his surplus who chooses to establish a free library in any community that is willing to maintain and develop it." Mr. Carnegie's donations not only accelerated the growth of the public libraries of America, but also the growth of the public libraries of British municipalities, where Mr. Carnegie and other British men of wealth notably Passmore Edwards donated large amounts to help their less fortunate fellowmen secure access to books thru free public libraries.

Another result produced by the library donations of millionaires was to impart a great stimulus to librarians, some of whom were not, previous to that time, fully awakened to the value and great possibilities of their calling. The original concept of a library was a reservoir of knowledge, a mere storehouse of books. No words can better or more fully indicate the meaning of "library," in the former sense than the Chinese terminology. Formerly a library in Chinese was "Ch'on Ssu Lou." It literally meant to store (Ch'on) books (Ssu) in the upper story of a house (Lou.) Why in the upper story of a house? This meant two important factors in storing books, namely, keeping off dampness and making access difficult. The above term for library was always used after Lao-Tse's time from about the 8th century B. C. Lao-Tse was the first librarian of the archives of the Chow Dynasty. The term was recently discarded and the Chinese have adopted in its place a modern name, Tu Ssu Ku'an, which means as follows: Tu(maps) Ssu (books) Ku'an (house.)

Thus we see a great change in the concept of the functions of a library in its community. It is no longer a mere reservoir for storing books, but a fountain, a vital force and a progressive element in the solution of the problem of education. It is a "continuing university" of the people, free to all and supported by all. Hence the librarians are not only custodians of books, but active agents supplementing the work of teachers and professors in
the function of teaching the people. Library donations hastened the realization of modern librarians of their responsibilities and helped to prepare them the better for discharging their duties as public servants.

Selected Bibliography


CHAPTER V

The Library Associations.

American librarians were the first to have a national library association. On October 6, 1876, the American Library Association now commonly known as the A. L. A., was organized in Philadelphia, with 103 members. In 1879 it was chartered in the state of Massachusetts. As early as 1853 Charles C. Jewett, of the Smithsonian Institution, and eighty others interested in bibliography and libraries, had convened in New York to discuss various ways of forming a permanent organization of librarians. This plan did not materialize until twenty-three years later. The organization of national library associations, started in the United States, was enthusiastically sponsored by the librarians of Great Britain who besides holding an international librarians' conference in London in 1877 formed the Library Association of the United Kingdom in that same year. John Winter Jones, Librarian of the British Museum, and president of the International librarians' conference, gave due credit to American librarians in his inaugural address, "We live in an age of congresses and conferences - which means that we live in an age when the advantages of the interchange of thoughts, ideas, and experiences are fully appreciated, and the benefits to be de-

rived from unity of action in the affairs of life are recognized. 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 practical results which may be anticipated from it."

The spirit of The International Librarians' Conference at London was taken home by many librarians of different countries, and soon the growing interest in the modern library movement was manifested in the founding of many national library associations. For instance the National Library Association of Australia was founded in 1896; the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare in Germany was founded in 1900; and the Kansai Bunko Kyokai of Japan was established in 1901. Later Italy, France, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and other countries followed and established national library associations. Today almost all civilized nations have some sort of a national association with local subsidiary organizations.

American Librarians were not only the first to

found a national library association, but were also the first to found library clubs, state library associations, special library associations, the American Library Institute, and the Library Workers' Association. Library clubs are in general organized by the librarians of a single city, as the New York or the Chicago Library Club. State library associations have been founded by librarians serving within the boundaries of a single state. Librarians of special libraries have organized a Special Libraries' Association.

A glance at the organization of the American Library Institute will suggest to us a mental picture of the House of Elders of Japan or the House of Peers of England. Its members consist of all ex-presidents, members of the Executive Board, and members of the Council of the American Library Association, and elected Fellows. Their chief duty is to deliberate on difficult questions in connection with library administration and economy. In reality the Institute is a body like the learned societies and scientific academies. The majority of the members of the American Library Association have, however, considered the members of the Institute as powerful elders. This subjective view is probably due to the fact that most of the American Library Institute members are either directors of libraries or head-librarians. They have the actual power of giving positions to their fellow-librarians. This represents, to some extent, a difference between the American Library Institute and most scientific academies. So far the
Institute has not affiliated with the American Library Association but has existed as an independent organization.

In 1920 the Library Workers' Association was formed at Atlantic City. Its main purpose is to act as an employment agency for library assistants without library school training, and to look after their welfare intellectually and materially. The formation of this association appears to outside observers, perhaps, as a weak link in the strong chain of American library organizations. Its organization implies that the American Library Association has not been sufficiently active in looking after the employment, and welfare of the "Library Workers." The Library Workers' Association is nearly the opposite of the American Library Institute. Roughly speaking the members of the former are the plebians and those of the latter are the aristocrats of the library profession. However, if one analyzes further the duty and service of any library organization he finds it totally different from that of any capitalistic or labor organization. The essential difference is perhaps summed up in the slogan of the American Library Association i.e. "The best reading for the largest number at the least cost."

The American Library Association bases itself on two principles, service to society and mutual aid among the members. The wonderful progress of the library movement

since 1876 has been due largely to those librarians of the American Library Association who have been vitally concerned about these two principles. They give their best service to the poor as well as to the rich. Social inequality and racial prejudice are beyond the conception of a true librarian. In effective library management, emphasis on efficiency is stressed, but the human touch is never lacking. No capable librarian will treat his staff members as mere machines. There is always a sympathetic relation. As Dr. Dana of the Newark Public Library remarked in one of his addresses, "In union is strength; but the worth of strength is in its use. An association tends to the academic and to hold its members to a standard, often a narrow one...
The conclusion is, encourage your colleagues, confer with them, work with them, and as opportunity permits join with them in organized effort to attain certain definite results. So doing you get wisdom for yourself and growth in esteem and efficiency for your profession."  

Since the formation of the American Library Association the members have always taken a noteworthy interest in problems of self-advancement. They have always been mentally alert. They take much interest in the meetings of

library clubs and local library associations, in staff training classes in the large libraries, in attendance at summer schools, and many, after a number of years' experience in a library, are still anxious to study a year or two in a library school. Every librarian feels that his or her service will be better if he or she keeps on advancing in the profession. And so the motive of the American Library Association to promote larger library interests through the means of better service has been well realized. Better service can be rendered only through the incessant self-improvement of the librarians in professional knowledge.

Dr. Learned in his book, "The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge," declares that there is probably no group of responsible men and women which can more safely be trusted as the custodian of its own professional standards and qualifications. The present writer feels that this is not too sweeping a statement. Dr. Learned is not himself a librarian but a professional educator of high rank.

A brief review of what the American Library Association has accomplished in the field of technical aids and of interpretive material for readers, should satisfy any hostile critic as to its unquestionably helpful influence in the development of modern libraries. First, the American Library Association emphasized uniformity in methods in order

to enable librarians to do better work at less expense. Then library supplies, such as shelf-lists, accession books, book-covers, book-supports, binders, call slips, and other useful appliances were introduced. This was followed by publications dealing with book selection, indexes, building plans, classification, cataloguing, book-buying, organization, administration, library legislation and other technical matters. They enable librarians to administer their libraries more efficiently and more scientifically. Any new theory, method, or appliance is always fully discussed in the official publication of the Association. This has benefited not only American librarians but the librarians of other countries.

The official mouth-piece of the American Library Association from 1876 to 1907 was the Library Journal. From 1907 the Association has published its own Bulletin. Besides the journals called Public Libraries and Special Libraries, some of the state libraries and large public libraries have issued their own Bulletins, as for instance New York State Library Bulletin, the New York Public Library Bulletin, and the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh Monthly Bulletin.

As to interpretive material for readers, roughly there are two classes. One is for quick information on how ideas are to be found in print at libraries. There are numerous forms used to give this information such as posters, placards, leaflets, book-lists and hand-books from which
readers can easily learn what, where, and how to find in print needed facts. The other class of material is for the systematic study of students and scholarly readers. Extensive indexes, impartial book-notes, and bibliographies for research are prepared.

The influence of the American Library Association in the growth of modern libraries and librarianship is incalculable. Its service in organizing printed knowledge for popular use is very extensive. Its attitude towards the library activities of other countries is genuinely sympathetic and internationally co-operative. Such is the brilliant record of the American Library Association. Every American librarian should be proud of its great success. During this age of economic unrest and class struggle, may the American Library Association set a lofty example in rendering a bigger service to human society through the united effort of its members to provide trustworthy information to all who seek after truth. With this as its aim there should be no cleavage between head-librarians and library workers. They are brothers and sisters of one family. Their common mission is to spread the Gospel of Knowledge which is the key to the Hall of World Democracy.

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Part II

TRAINING AND EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

Chapter VI. The Librarians in Ancient Times
Chapter VII. The Mediaeval and Early Modern Librarians
Chapter VIII. The Professional Education of the Modern Librarian
Chapter IX. Changing Conceptions of Librarianship and its Educational Requirements
Chapter X. American Library Schools
CHAPTER VI

The Librarians in Ancient Times.

The primitive library takes its origin from the desire for the preservation of some record either of the worship of supernatural beings or of political events. Because of the lack of proper tools for recording and of the elementary state of the written language, the records were not so abundant that it was necessary to have a special keeper. Therefore, before the beginning of large collections of books for the use of scholars, the librarian discharged numerous offices and the keeping of records was only one of his functions.

Before taking up the discussion of the education and the function of a librarian among the ancients, two terms, "library" and "librarian" as understood by the ancients, should be defined. ¹ At one time a misunderstanding about the interpretation of these two terms existed between Professor Max Muller and Dr, E. C. Richardson, after the publication of the latter's interesting book on "Old Egyptian Librarians."² To counteract the tendency to confuse modern librarians with the keepers of libraries of

¹ Muller, William Max: Richardson's Some Old Egyptian Librarians. Library Journal. 37:217. April, 1912.
about four thousand years ago, Dr. Richardson's definitions in reply to Professor Max Müller's criticisms are fully quoted:

"Turning to the facts as to library usage, one may first set right the implication that a library is not a library when it is an archive. At a later period in Egypt, as the Papyri show, a man could send a book (biblion) to a keeper of books (bibliophylax) and have it put in a library (bibliotheke), and this library not be a library, according to Professor Müller, because it was a depository of official records! Yet the word used is the word that was used, and has been used constantly ever since, and is now used in all languages except English for library. The Egyptians themselves thus called a library a library, even if it was an archive, and this is the practice with the best modern experts in book-history (Birt. Buchrolle, p. 247), 'when the library was an archive of account books and official documents.' Library is the generic word for all collections of written documents, their place and their keeper. And why, indeed, does Professor Max Müller object to attributing to 'librarians' the keeping of copies of the divine oracles? Is the keeper of a special library of Bibles not a librarian? When the people of Sparta made their kings custodians of the responses from the various shrines, sent for by the State through their special oracle bringers and deposited in the public collections, and the laws for which, one by one or in quantity, they had likewise sent and re-
ceived the approval of the oracle, also the Athenian oracles captured by Cleomenes, were not these kings "librarians?" If these "keepers" of books were not librarians, what were they? They, of course, were not "librarians," because "liber" and the Latin tongue had not been invented when these began to be used, but they were keepers of books, just as the keeper of printed books or the keeper of manuscripts in the British Museum today."3

As to the accounts of ancient libraries, the material is quite scanty and of their librarians, almost all traces have disappeared. Only fragmentary passages of references dug out here and there must suffice from which we may infer the education and function of the librarians of the past. Human beings are always interested in their ancestors and genealogy is a fascinating study to many scholars. Modern librarians are no exception. A study of the librarians of the past may satisfy the pride of modern librarians that their professional ancestors came from no mean origin and that the professional services of these accomplished much benefit to humanity and civilization. That notion may stimulate modern librarians to place their useful deeds against the accomplishments of their ancestors.

There are two prominent facts about the earliest of librarians. They were as a class above the average in

knowledge. They were intellectual leaders. It is invari-
ably true in the ancient histories of Babylonia, Egypt,
India, China, Greece, and Rome, that the earliest librari-
ans were either priests, or kings, or archivists, or
teachers. They had many duties and the keeping of
official records was only one of their functions. The
multiplication of library-duties and the specialized work
of the present day librarians evolved from this simple
origin of keeping official documents. The process of
training and the function of the librarians of the past
leading on up to the librarians of the present suggests
Spencer's law of evolution, i.e. "from their initial state
of simplicity to their ultimate state of complexity," or
Spencer's more exact and philosophical definition, "Evo-
lution is an integration of matter and concomitant dissipa-
tion of motion; during which the matter passes from an
indefinite incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent
heterogeneity." Beginnings, though simple, are the roots
of the present complex organization. To approach the
past is a method of understanding the present and to study
the present is a means of predicting the future.

Before getting into contact with the lives of the
librarians of the past and learning something from their
experiences in managing libraries, a brief explanation re-
garding the divisions of the periods of time and the con-
tinuity of function at the different ages may be necessary.
The evolution of the training of librarians can be con-
veniently divided into three periods, ancient, medieval and early modern, and modern. The ancient period begins with history and ends with the fall of the Western Empire in 476 A. D. The medieval and early modern period starts with the invasions of the northern barbarians and closes at the end of the eighteenth century. The modern period begins with the wonderful development of modern libraries and the recognition of the professional status of the librarian in the nineteenth century. As to the function of the librarians from the past to the present, it is a continuous development from the simplest state to the most complex, though the development was arrested for some time at the beginning of the medieval age.

According to old and reliable records of Chinese history there were libraries for storing official documents as early as 2650 B. C. The writer has seen several pieces of bone full of old Chinese hieroglyphics excavated from a place in the province of Honan. The authorities on Chinese antiquities consider that the "bone-book" is the oldest written record of the Chinese archives. Several prominent scholars, Chinese, Japanese, and western sinologists, have been and are studying these earliest hieroglyphics. As to the earliest Chinese librarians, no instance has yet been found before 600 B. C.

The first Chinese librarian who appeared in the history of China was Laotse, founder of Taoism and author of the "Tao-Te-King" (Book of the Way and Virtue.) He was regarded by his contemporaries as a great scholar who had profound knowledge about the literatures of the ancients. Laotse was appointed keeper of the royal archives of the Chou dynasty about 553 B.C. Confucius once consulted him for material for his works. In this period there was not only a royal library but each feudal prince had a place for keeping his books. Confucius's great work, "Spring and Autumn Annals" was compiled from the official records of one hundred and twenty archives of the feudal princes.

According to the records of history, a royal custodian was usually appointed by a ruler to look after the archives of former reigns and to keep the records of the important events of the ruler's own reign. About the sixth century B.C. the staff of the royal custodian was increased until it included five separate offices under the supervision and direction of the chief royal custodian, whose official title was T'ai Shih (Head Archivist.) He recorded the ruler's actions (in the manner of a modern court circular) besides his duty of supervising the library. The Hsiao Shih's (assistant archivist) function was to take care of the records of the important events of the country and the Wai Shih (reference librarian in the present sense) was to keep archives and geographical records. The Nai Shih was the head archivist's secretary. The Yu Shih
watched and recorded the actions of various officials in the library. The Hsiao Yin Jen were the assistants.

From Chinese history and other records there are sufficient references about the development of Chinese libraries from Laozi's time in 600 B.C. to the present. As to the functions and education of the keepers of books, these can be traced from the books of history, literature and biography, which are accurate and reliable, as remarked by the eminent sinologist, Dr. Berthold Laufer. "The marked historical sense of the Chinese is one of their most striking characteristics. Hardly any other nation can boast of such a long and well-authenticated record of a continuous uninterrupted historical tradition extending over a millennium and a half down to 1644 ... excluding the present one, there are in existence the official records of twenty-four previous dynasties, known as the 'Twenty-Four Histories,' comprising altogether 3,364 extensive chapters, with pedantic accuracy, all events are there registered, not only year by year, but also month by month, and even frequently day by day."5 After 1910 the custodians of the libraries have gradually begun to enlarge their duties into the realm of modern library economy. The tendency in library administration now inclines towards the

American system. 6

The Near East has been a rich field for the studies of archaeologists. The researches which followed the discoveries of P. E. Potta and H. Layard in 1850 at Kouyunjik, on the Tigris, have revealed the fact that the ancient Babylonians and Assyrians had libraries. The clay tablets with cuneiform characters are the contents of the palace-library of Assur-bani-pal, King of Nineveh. These tablets have been arranged according to the following subjects, namely: History, Law, Science, Magic, Dogma, and Legends. 7 From such orderly arrangement we can infer that there must have been a keeper. He was probably a priest, because priests were the learned men par excellence of the ancients. Three points can be definitely inferred: (1) There was a special functionary to look after the tablets. (2) The keeper was learned enough to be able to arrange them in their proper sequence. (3) In ancient times the learned persons were generally priests and the keeping of the official documents was one of the priestly duties. Such a big library as Assur-bani-pal's might demand the entire time of a priest. When we read the history of the

early libraries of Babylonia, Assyria and ancient Egypt we learn that the priests were concurrently the librarians. They had "the power to communicate with gods." That power of communication might mean merely the power of reading the records of the ancients.

The ancient librarians of the priestly type were gradually supplanted by learned teachers. The substitution took place in the normal process of evolution. As the intellect of the ancients advanced, more people were able to read the records of the dead. This was a heavy blow to the power of the priestly librarian. It was only natural for the great kings such as the Ptolemies of Alexandria, Antiochus the Great of Pergamum, and Augustus of the Roman Empire, to look for outstanding scholars and learned teachers of the age to be the librarians of their splendid libraries. The qualifications of a librarian then were that he must possess more than the mere knowledge to read all kinds of books, modern and ancient. His power to communicate with the records of the dead had ceased to be a charm, because abundant scholars by that time could do the same, and therefore in knowledge he had to know more than his contemporaries; in thought he was expected to be a creator; and in literary works he was required to be a master.

The functions of the librarians of that period were mainly three: (1) preservation and arrangement of books (rolls), as the librarians of Babylonia and Assyria
did in their temple-libraries; (2) compilations of bibliographies and catalogues of the libraries; and (3) encouragement of scholars to use libraries and to permit readers to take out books. In the libraries of Alexandria and Rome there was systematic organization and the chief librarian had supervision and direction of his staff-members as one of his duties. Two distinctive functions which have been outstanding considerations in building up the professional education of a librarian took their origin in this golden age of ancient civilization. First, the compilation of bibliographies and the making of library catalogues were originally experiments of the Alexandrian librarians. In the course of making a library catalogue, according to the arrangement of rolls on shelves, the idea of book-classification probably crept into the minds of the ancient librarians. Bibliographies, cataloguing, and classification are still the main technical subjects taught in library schools. The second distinctive function was the encouragement of scholars to use the books in, and to draw out the books from, the library. This was certainly a new departure from the established custom of the earliest libraries. These two new lines of development complicated and increased the amount of work for the librarian, and necessitated the introduction of some organization among the staff-members of a library.

According to Silvestrede Sacy's "Abdu-I-Lattif's Compendium of the History of Egypt," there were four famous
Alexandrian libraries, (1) the Library of the Brucheion, collected and founded by the early Ptolemies; (2) the Library of the Serapeum; (3) the Library of the Temple of Augustus; and (4) the Library of the School of Alexandria. Among the librarians of the Library of the Brucheion, five famous learned men are known. They were Zenodotus, Callimachus, Eratosthenes, Apollonius, and Aristonymus, or Aristophanes of Byzantium. The story runs that Zenodotus the Ephesian, about B.C. 280, was the first librarian. He rejected the unauthorized additions to Homer and produced the earliest scientific edition of the Greek poet. His successors were all scholars and grammarians of equal or greater eminence. They not only preserved their collections with care, but they also took an inventory and revised their library catalogues once in every five years. Two lists of the Alexandrian collections on tragedies and comedies were prepared by these famous librarians, and Callimachus compiled a catalogue of all the principal books in Alexandria under 120 classes. A fragment of that catalogue, the philosophical works, from a papyrus found near Alexandria, is among the Greek manuscripts in the

Library of Leningrad (formerly the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg.)

The names of the librarians Callimachus and Aristonymus have occasioned much dispute. According to the references in the "Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography," the "Encyclopedia Britannica," Edward's "Memoirs of Libraries," and Clark's "Care of Books," Callimachus was well established as the chief librarian of the Library of Alexandria under the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus. Gardthausen's recent book, "Handbuch der wissenschaftlichen Bibliothekskunde," however, denies Callimachus the honor of being the chief librarian of the Alexandrian library. Gardthausen bases his evidence on the finding of a papyrus Oxyrhynch. 10 p.99 no. 124 of the second century including an old list of the names of the Alexandrian librarians which gives us the name of one of Callimachus's students but does not mention Callimachus himself.

Regarding Aristonymus, Edwards with his sources from the text of Suidas and Meineke's "apud Bonamy ut supra," concludes that Aristonymus, the grammarian, succeeded Apollonius as the chief librarian of the Brucheion. But the information in Savage's "Story of Libraries and Book Collecting," and other references, point to Aristophanes of Byzantium as the successor of Apollonius and the fifth of the eminent Alexandrian librarians.

An interesting story about the appointment of Aristophanes of Byzantium to the position of chief librarian is worth repeating from Dr. Edward's version of Vitruvius. "It was the practice of the Ptolemies to invite literary men to come to Alexandria on certain festive occasions to recite their compositions before seven appointed judges; those who were deemed to have surpassed their rivals being honored and rewarded for their works. On one such occasion, the king had selected six judges but could not so readily satisfy himself as to the seventh. In his strait, he applied to the officers of the Library for their aid, and was told that one Aristophanes had long been a most diligent reader there, - so diligent, indeed, that he seemed to be steadily working his way through the collection. He, it was thought, might worthily acquit himself of this duty. Aristophanes, accordingly, took his place amongst the judges. The recitations proceeded. Some were loudly applauded. Others were listened to in cold silence. When the time came for distribution of the prizes, six of the judges were speedily of one mind, but the seventh - our plodding student, Aristophanes, - was of quite another. The best poet, said he, has had little applause or none. The king grew impatient and the people grew angry. Aristophanes, however, persisted in his opinion. These he said, are not poets, but plagiarists. One man only recited what he had himself composed. Summoned to bring proof of his allegations, he named the books in the library from which the
Thefts had been committed. The upshot of the matter was, of course, the disgrace of the plagiarists, and the elevation of Aristophanes to the superintendence of the library."

The eminent Alexandrian librarians were not without rivals in neighboring countries. A royal library was founded by the kings of Pergamum, and Antiochus the Great appointed Euphorion of Chalcis, the poet and grammarian, to be the librarian. Euphorion's literary fame was as high as that of Callimachus of the Alexandrian library. His works were highly esteemed by the Romans. Under his administration, the royal library of Pergamum became a worthy rival of the libraries of the Ptolemies.

The duties of the library officials under the Roman Empire assumed a more definite form than those of the Alexandrian librarians. The Roman emperors were anxious to have eminent scholars as their librarians. The collections of the libraries at that time were bigger and the scholars more numerous. Some authorities have claimed that there were twenty-eight, possibly twenty-nine, public libraries in ancient Rome. Regardless of the various opinions concerning the number of Roman public libraries, we know that new developments took shape in library management. It was the first time in the history of libraries that the general public was allowed to use the books and to take the books

out of the library. From this innovation in the field of library management sprang the work of reference and circulation. The duties of librarians became more complex and the organization of the library staff-members and the division of labor in library work had their beginnings.

According to Professor Boyd's "Public Libraries and Literary Culture in Ancient Rome," the evidence for the management of the ancient Roman libraries is taken chiefly from inscriptions and secondly from Roman literature. A rough diagram of the personnel organization of the libraries of ancient Rome is here given from Dr. Boyd's descriptions of the duties of library officials of various grades.¹²

Personnel Organization of the Ancient Roman Libraries.

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The head procurator might correspond to the position of a cabinet-minister. He might have several vice-ministers and one of them might have the duty of looking after the development of the public libraries. According to Mommsen and Hirschfeld, the "Procurator bibliothecarum" was subordinate to the head procurator and his duty was to look after the imperial finances available for library purposes. One of the Greek inscriptions (CIG, 5900) gives a reference to the effect that the position of procurator bibliothecarum (chief director of libraries) was once occupied by the eminent scholar, L. Julius Vestinus. He concurrently held positions as curator of museum, high priest of Alexandria, imperial secretary to Emperor Hadrian, and philologist. Gardthausen concludes in his "Handbuch der wissenschaftlichen Bibliothekskunde,"(vol. 2, chapter 1, pp. 69-70,) that these procurators were never called librarians, but actually were directors of Greek and Latin libraries. They had somehow the same functions as the curators of the German universities in dealing with the administration of external and economic affairs. These directors at the same time held positions as imperial secretaries for Greek correspondence and also study-councilors to the emperor. To be such a curator was a high honor. He had a salary of 60,000 sesterces (about $3,000 United States currency.) It is quite evident that the procurator bibliothecarum in the organization of Roman libraries is the highest administrative officer, and a great scholar with marked executive
abilities.

Since the procurator bibliothecarum had many duties, the libraries must have had an official who took charge of the central administration. This official was probably the magista a bibliotheca. Under him there were a number of librarians, bibliothecas, and each of them took charge of a special library. The bibliothecas' names were usually recorded with the names of special libraries, as in one of the inscriptions (CIL, VI, 4433) "a bibliotheca Graeca Portius Octaviae." The bibliotheca must have been a man of literary training and professional efficiency. His culture and knowledge must have had to command the respect of scholars. In an epigram of Martial, one Sextus is spoken of as officially connected with the Palatine Library, "O Sextus, thou eloquent devotee of Palatine Minerva, who possessest intelligence approaching that of a god..." 13

Asinius Pollio, Pompeius Macer, and C. Julius Hyginus were the prominent librarians in the reign of the Emperor Augustus. Augustus appointed Asinius Pollio to take over the uncompleted task of Varro of founding libraries in Rome. Pollio was a prominent literary man, a noted orator, a learned historian, and a Roman general. Pompeius Macer was delegated to put the Palatine Library in order; and C. Julius Hyginus, a freedman of Augustus, and

an intimate friend of Ovid and of C. Licinius, the historian, was in turn appointed to the librarianship of the Palatine. Caius Melissus, the librarian of the Porticus Octaviae, was a great grammarian and author of Ioci. All the ancient Roman librarians were worthy successors of the famous Varro, selected by Julius Caesar to be the first organizer and director of the Roman libraries.

Vilicus a bibliotheca was some sort of a departmental head of a library in the modern sense. He had a special duty. Medicus a bibliothecis might be the librarian of a collection of medical books and concurrently a special physician to the library employees. One of the inscriptions tells us that Hymenaeus, medicus a bibliothecis, had the duty of looking after the health of all the library employees of the emperor and that he was efficient in his work.

Near the end of the nineteenth century many men-librarians, especially in England and Europe, regarded the presence of women in library work as savouring of novelty and inappropriate. But they forgot that women took up library work almost as early as men. Both men and women did library work under the Roman emperors. According to one of the inscriptions (CIL, VI, 6314) a woman is regarded as quite capable to fill the office of "librarius a manu,"

which means a secretary on the library staff or a copist.

The work of "librarius," which had several meanings, copyist, or transcriber, or bookseller (who had books copied), was divided under various heads, as servus librarius, doctus librarius, benignus librarius and other kinds of librarius. These heads performed various minor tasks, clerical and literary. They might correspond to the assistants of a modern library. All evidence that survives indicates that literary training, knowledge of both Greek and Latin books, high intellectuality and library efficiency were the important qualifications of the several upper grades of Roman library administrators. Assistants, secretaries, copyists, scribes and clerks were locally trained in library technique. Most of the secretaries, copyists, scribes and clerks were well-educated and intelligent slaves. They were especially qualified for their numerous duties. This fact is well brought out in Cicero's three letters to his friend Atticus about the rearrangement of his library.  

First letter: "I wish you would send me any two fellows out of your library, for Tyrannio to make use of as pasters and assistants in other matters. Remind them to bring some vellum with them to make those titles (indices)...."

Second letter: "Your men have made my library gay with their carpentry-work and their titles. I wish you would commend them." When the arrangement of his library

was completed, Cicero wrote the third letter. "Now that Tyrannio has arranged my books, a new spirit has been infused into my house. In this matter the help of your men Dionysius and Menophilus has been invaluable. Nothing could look neater than these shelves of yours (illa tua pegmata), since they smartened up my books with their titles."

Callimachus's system of classification might have been improved by later Roman librarians and the technique of cataloguing bettered for public use. "Further, it's evident, from the passages which I have quoted," says Mr. J. W. Clark, "that catalogues must have been in use. But, besides this inference, such a document is distinctly mentioned by Quintilian and the younger Pliny. The former remarks that anybody could increase his list of Greek authors by transferring a library catalogue (index) to his pages; and the latter, speaking of his uncle's works, says that he could supply the want of a catalogue (index) and record the very order in which they had been written."

The Roman conquests brought the Romans into direct contact with other civilizations, notably the Hellenic and the Egyptian. Julius Caesar, Augustus, and other emperors encouraged civic ideals and the attainment of a high intellectual standard. All those incentives made for the development of ancient Roman libraries. The use of the

libraries increased in proportion as the literary and cultural tendencies of the citizens developed. The practice of lending books from libraries was introduced. There are many references to this. One occurs in the writings of Aulus Gellius. On a very hot summer day Gellius and some of his friends were assembled in a rich man's villa and began to drink melted snow. They discussed whether such cold water was healthful. One member of the party was a philosopher and he asserted that Aristotle and many physicians had strongly condemned the use of cold water. In order to convince his companions of the truth of his argument, he ran to the public library in the temple of Hercules to take out a copy of Aristotle's book dealing with the subject and read to them the statement. This instance clearly shows that ancient public libraries in Rome allowed readers to take books out of the library.

The splendid Roman public libraries fell into decline at the repeated invasions of the northern barbarians. Literary activity at Rome as well as at Constantinople rapidly collapsed. Books were either burnt or destroyed and librarians were not wanted. This marks the end of the library development among the ancients and practically ended the labors of their librarians.

17. Gellius, Aulus: *Notae Atticae*, XIX. 5. 4: (original quotation in Boyd's Public Libraries and Literary Culture in Ancient Rome, p. 30.)
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CHAPTER VII

The Mediaeval and Early Modern Librarians.

The library movement during the Middle Ages had a weak and narrow beginning and a powerful and broad ending. The mediaeval age can be divided into two parts. The first period covers the growth of the monastic libraries when the members of the library profession all wore the garb of monks. Biblical literature, theological dogma, and biographies of saints and martyrs were the principal collections of the monastic library of the first period. The second period covers the great strides made by libraries in institutions of learning after the invention of printing had multiplied the number of books, and when a revival of true learning and science made the libraries the indispensable tools of scholars. Learned monks and great savants were again summoned to the tasks of librarianship.

In the development of the training of librarians, the Order of Saint Benedict, the Cistercians, the Augustinians, and the other orders, contributed several valuable factors as to the methods of arranging books, repairing, binding, loaning, and cataloguing. The care and preservation of books in libraries was much emphasized. Annual reports and stock-taking were a few of the important duties of a monk-librarian who at the same time was the leader of the choir, superintendent of the transcription of manuscripts, and occasionally the master of ceremonies. The monk-librarian was an all-round person in a monastery.
Only in large and wealthy monasteries was there a special monk to take charge of the library. Usually the old manuscripts in the monastery were kept in the treasury room and the new books in the scriptorium. Therefore there was no use for a special monk-librarian.

Some of the regulations governing the use and the loaning of books in modern collegiate libraries have their origin in the rules of the monastic libraries. In the early monastery no stranger could borrow a book. The privilege of taking out a book for a week was only granted to the brothers of the monastery. In the evening the "Second," i.e. the second in command, took charge of the books, counted them, and locked them in a cupboard in the thickness of the wall.¹ As a result of the encouragement of reading in the various Orders and the diligent and extensive labours in scriptoria, the production of books was much increased. Some of the large monasteries began to keep their books in a separate room and to publish regulations governing circulation to monks and to strangers. Regarding the loan of books to strangers, there was much variety in the regulations of the different orders. In general the system of loan on pledge was adopted.

Saint Benedict was the first to issue a set of rules regarding the reading and the loaning of books. These

rules were further modified by the Cluniacs. The Carthusians maintained the principle of loaning two books to each brother of the House. The Cistercians, the Augustinians, and the other orders all allowed the circulation of books. In a way the monasteries were the collegiate libraries to the monks and the public libraries to any others who were anxious to read. The following passages from J. W. Clark's translations in his "Care of Books" will illustrate the viewpoints on library economy held by the monk-librarians.

"Between Easter and the Calends of October let them apply themselves to reading from the fourth hour till near the sixth hour. From the Calends of October to the beginning of Lent let them apply themselves to reading until the second hour... During Lent, let them apply themselves to reading from morning until the end of the third hour... and, in these days of Lent, let them receive a book apiece from the library, and read it straight through." This was the famous rule of Saint Benedict. "Then shall he read aloud a note of the books which a year before had been given out to brethren for their reading. When a brother's name is called, he rises, and returns the book that has been given to him; and if it should happen that he has not read it through, he is to ask forgiveness for his want of diligence. A carpet on which these books are to be laid out is to be

2. Ibid. p. 56.
put down in the Chapter-House; and the titles of those which are distributed to brethren afresh are to be noted, for which purpose a tablet is to be made of somewhat larger size than usual."

About 1070 Archbishop Lanfranc gave decrees to the English Benedictines. The section relating to books and the duty of the librarian is as follows, "On the Monday after the first Sunday in Lent...before the brethren go into Chapter, the librarian (custos librorum) ought to have all the books brought together into the Chapter-House and laid out on a carpet, except those which had been given out for reading during the past year; these the brethren ought to bring with them as they come into Chapter, each carrying his book in his hand. Of this they ought to have had notice given to them by the aforesaid librarian on the preceding day in Chapter... Next let the librarian read a document (breve) setting forth the names of the brethren who have had books during the past year; and let each brother, when he hears his own name pronounced, return the book which had been entrusted to him for reading; and let him who is conscious of not having read the book through which he had received, fall down on his face, confess his fault and pray for forgiveness. Then let the aforesaid librarian hand to each brother another book for reading; and when the books have been distributed in order, let the aforesaid librarian in the same Chapter

3. Ibid. p.57.
put on record the names of the books and of those who receive them. "

The fourteenth chapter of the customs of the Augustinian Order, "of the safe keeping of the books, and of the office of librarian," represents the general trend of the administration of monastery libraries in Great Britain as well as in Europe. Many phases of present day library training can be traced to the practices of the monastic and collegiate libraries of the Middle Ages. Dr. C. C. Williamson's report on "Training for Library Service," deplores the present condition of the library schools in that they do not differentiate clearly between professional and clerical training. This lack of differentiation has been due, Dr. Williamson thinks, to the mixture in library administration of the two types of services (professional and clerical.) Many duties of a twentieth century librarian are simply the inherited traditions of the past. For example, modern library schools give a course in binding. It is not expected that professionally trained librarians are to be binders after graduation. The course is given in part merely because of the age old tradition that every librarian should know how to mend and to bind books just as the monk-librarian of the Middle Ages did. The following excerpt illustrates the scope of the functions and training of a monk-librarian.

"The librarian, who is called also precentor, is to take charge of the books of the church; all which he ought to keep and to know under their separate titles; and he should frequently examine them carefully to prevent any damage or injury from insects or decay. He ought also, at the beginning of Lent, in each year, to show them to the convent in Chapter, when the souls of those who have given them to the church, or of the brethren who have written them, and laboured over them, ought to be absolved, and a service in convent be held over them. He ought also to hand to the brethren the books which they see occasion to use, and to enter on his roll the titles of the books, and the names of those who receive them. These, when required, are bound to give surety for the volumes they receive; nor may they lend them to others, whether known or unknown, without first obtaining permission from the librarian. Nor ought the librarian himself to lend books unless he receive a pledge of equal value; and then he ought to enter on his roll the name of the borrower, the title of the book lent, and the pledge taken. The larger and more valuable books he ought not to lend to anyone, known or unknown, without permission of the Prelate...

"Books which are to be kept at hand for daily use, whether for singing or reading, ought to be in some common place, to which all the brethren can have easy access for inspection, and selection of anything which seems to them suitable. The books, therefore, ought not to be carried
away into the chambers, or into corners outside the Cloister or the Church. The librarian ought frequently to dust the books carefully, to repair them, and to point them, lest brethren should find any error or hindrance in the daily service of the church, whether in singing or in reading. No other brother ought to erase or change anything in the books unless he have obtained the consent of the librarian...

"The press in which the books are kept ought to be lined inside with wood, that the damp of the walls may not moisten or stain the books. This press should be divided vertically as well as horizontally by sundry shelves on which the books may be ranged so as to be separated from one another; for fear they be packed so close as to injure each other or delay those who want them.

"Further, as the books ought to be mended, pointed, and taken care of by the librarian, so ought they to be properly bound by him." 5

From the above passages we see that the monasteries encouraged monks to study and that generally there was some sort of a library in spite of the difficulty of acquiring books. Special care against the theft and the soiling of books was usually taken by the mediaeval librarians. The preservation of books was regarded, perhaps, as the most important problem of mediaeval library administration. The scarcity of books and the laborious task of copying made the

5. Ibid. p. 61.
monk-librarians realize their responsibility in looking after their collections. There were rules regarding the handling of books in reading. "When the religious are engaged in reading in cloister or in church," says an Order of the general Benedictine Chapter, "they shall if possible hold the books in their left hands, wrapped in the sleeve of their tunics, and resting on their knees; their right hands shall be uncovered with which to hold and turn the leaves of the aforesaid book." Thomas à Kempis advised the youthful student how to use a book in his Doctrinale Juvenum. He said, "take thou a book into thine hands as Simeon the just took the Child Jesus into his arms to carry him and kiss him. And when thou hast finished reading, close the book and give thanks for every word out of the mouth of God; because in the Lord's field thou hast found a hidden treasure." What would a present day student who unscrupulously cuts the pages of an encyclopaedia or mercilessly drags a heavy book about by one of the covers say about these injunctions? To curb vandalism in libraries is as difficult to-day as it was several centuries ago. It is still an unsolved problem in library administration. An imprecation like that on a book plate of a book belonging to the house of Saint Mary of Robert's Bridge, "This book belongs to Saint Mary of Robert's Bridge: Whosoever steals it, or sells it, or takes it away from this house in any way, or injures it, 6. Ibid. p. 67.
let him be anathema—maranatha," will certainly not serve as a restraining influence to-day. Small likelihood a youth of the present generation on getting hold of such a book would keep it and write on the title page as the Bishop of Exeter flippantly did, "I, John, Bishop of Exeter, do not know where the said house is: I did not steal this book, but got it lawfully." Of course the word "lawfully" may have been used with ironic intent, and would surely be so used by the modern library vandal.

Indications of careful methods and of minute accuracy are to be found in some of the monastic catalogues, though others were mere inventories with no classification. In general the monastic libraries emphasized the compilation of catalogues. There are monastic manuscript catalogues in the Library of Munich, in Jesus College, Cambridge, and in other libraries. The classifications are general and hardly have any subdivisions. The letters of the alphabet are used to signify classes. The books are arranged in the manner of fixed location. The divisions of the catalogues of the Library of the Monastery of Rievaulx and the main classes of the catalogue of the Library of the Monastery of Tychefeld are respectively reprinted in Edwards's "Memoirs of Libraries" and Clark's "Care of Books." In plan they were defective and in classification unscientific; but we must remember that they mark only the beginnings. The

development in the technique of cataloguing and in the science of bibliography, during a period generally characterized by a low ebb of the intellectual life of the masses, compares very favorably with any other intellectual undertakings at that time.

Modern university librarians favor the installation of carrels in the stacks for graduate students. This is only a revival of a phase of the administration of monastery-libraries in the Middle Ages. The carrell system in monastery-libraries was quite prevalent. The privilege of occupying carrels belonged only to the older monks who were engaged either in copying, in illuminating, or in reading, as was the case at Durham. According to Clark, the carrels in the south cloister at Gloucester were built between 1370 and 1412. Each carrell was four feet wide, nineteen inches deep and six feet nine inches high, and was lighted by a small window of two lights.

As to the organization of some large cloister-libraries, there were two officers, a precentor and a succentor. The former had a seat in front of the press, which doubtless stood against the wall, and his carrell was generally located at no great distance. The latter had his seat and his carrell near the press. They, or at least one of them, was always at hand to give service to brethren who wished to seek some information about the books. The

precentor was the librarian and the succentor was the sub-librarian. They were always ready to answer questions somewhat in the manner of modern reference librarians.

In summing up, the monastery-librarian was a learned monk of high rank in his order. In earlier monasteries when the books were not numerous, he was an all-round monk with many duties. Later his chief functions were to look after the cloister-libraries, to mend books, to circulate books, to compile catalogues, and to serve as a reference librarian. His status was not changed but his functions increased during the growth of cathedral libraries in the fifteenth century.

Early collegiate libraries, for instance some of the earlier colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, developed in the manner of the cloister libraries. Scholars borrowed books under pledges. The annual audit and distribution of books was carried out somewhat as directed in Lanfranc's statutes for English Benedictines. An examination of the statutes of Oriel College or of Merton College, Oxford, or of Peterhouse, Cambridge, leads us to the definite conclusion that the library regulations were directly derived from monastic practice. Modern library management, especially modern university library management, has inherited many of the customs of the monastic libraries.

For about a millennium the task of managing libraries and of looking after books was in the hands of monks. By the fifteenth century, the monasteries, cathe-
dralls, and universities throughout Europe were vying with each other in collecting books, building libraries, compiling catalogues, and framing liberal regulations to make libraries useful not only to monks but to the public. The development was arrested in the sixteenth century by the Huguenot movement in France and the suppression of the monasteries in England. Many monasteries were pulled down and their contents destroyed. Manuscripts were either burned or scattered. How terrible the loss was has been bitterly recorded by many writers. One writer who was especially aware of the worth of the monastery-libraries wrote emphatically to King Edward VI, in 1549, protesting "that in turning over of the superstitious monasteries so little respect was had to their libraries, for the safeguard of these noble and precious monuments... Avarice was the other dispatcher which hath made an end both of our libraries and books... A great number of them which purchased those superstitious mansions, reserved of those library books, some... to scour their candelsticks, and some to rub their boots; some they sold to the grocers and soap-sellers, and some they sent over sea to the bookbinders, not in small number but at times whole ships full, to the wondering of the foreign nations... I judge this to be true, and utter it with heaviness,- that neither the Britons under the Romans and Saxons, nor yet the English people under the Danes and Normans, had ever such damage of their learned monuments as we have seen in our time. Our posterity may well curse this wicked fact of our
age, this unreasonable spoil of England's most noble antiquities. 9... This devastation of monastic libraries and manuscripts, coupled with the protests and lamentations of many learned persons, prepared the ground for a new and forceful development of the library movement.

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries books were rapidly multiplied by the use of movable type. Freedom of thought budded forth as the first fruit of the Renaissance and the Reformation. Authorship in literature and science was much more prolific than under the ecclesiastical yoke of monasticism. On one hand the dispersion of the mediaeval monastery libraries was a loss to human knowledge, and on the other hand the conception of making libraries free to all and not merely sacred store-houses open only to a few privileged scholars and monks would probably not have developed so fully had monk-librarians continued to exercise the sole power as library administrators and educators. Would the administrators of cloister-libraries have been liberal enough to collect and to catalogue the irreligious and radical books of the early modern era within their sacred walls, if the type of dogmatic monk who believed that to ward off the evils of the Hebrews it would be best to commit all the Jewish books except the Bible to the flames, had continued to control the fountain of

knowledge? Modern librarians are indebted to the monks in many ways both in library economy and in bibliography, but the spirit of impartiality towards the contents of books and the idea of democracy in the free library movement are the new wine. Had it happened to be put into the old bottles of the monastery libraries, there would to-day have been no battle-cry to promote the advanced education for librarianship.

After the suppression of many monasteries the management of libraries began to pass into the hands of secular scholars and clergymen. In the seventeenth century there were many scholars who at the same time were eminent librarians. Men like Gabriel Naudé, John Durie, James Kirkwood, Antonio Magliabecchi, and others, have contributed much to the foundation of modern library science. They were book lovers and they wished to collect books, to enlarge libraries, and to systematize library service. The eighteenth century's librarians were no less prominent than their predecessors. Jean Des Houssyes, David Hume, Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, and many other learned persons were once the keepers of the treasures of knowledge. Some contributed to the library profession by the eminence of their literary standing and some gave their suggestions for the advancement of the science of bibliography. As a class they were chiefly learned professors and prominent writers, but nevertheless, a few of them had visions of administering libraries in accordance with the new order of society.
One of the great librarians of the seventeenth century was Gabriel Naudé, who was born at Paris in February, 1600. He studied philosophy and rhetoric under Padet and Belurget. The last named teacher was a free thinker in matters of religion and belief. Naudé was a prolific writer and his knowledge was very encyclopaedic. At the age of twenty, his literary reputation attracted Henri de Mesmes, President of the Parliament, who appointed young Gabriel to take charge of his library. In 1630 Naudé became the librarian of Cardinal de Bagni. This office took him to Italy, and when Bagni died, Naudé became librarian to Cardinal Barberini. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu recalled him to Paris. After Richelieu's death he became librarian to Mazarin. During Mazarin's exile from Paris he was engaged by Queen Christina of Sweden to be the librarian of her famous library. In spite of his wide interest in various controversial subjects, he was by nature a born librarian. He loved to collect books and was an expert in bargaining. When he started a book hunting expedition, he took a foot rule in his hand. As soon as he entered a book shop, he would ask a bookseller to name a price for several piles of books. The latter would suggest some amount all too hastily and Naudé would then begin to bully and to storm and would generally carry the books he wanted at a very low figure. He often struck bargains and the bookseller, only after stopping to think over the matter, would realize that he had been duped and left lamenting over the deal and wish-
ing that he had sold those papers to the butterman or the grocer. When Naudé found nothing more to buy in Paris, he went to Belgium and there bought the best books on the market. Italy having been ransacked, Germany and England were next attacked. Wherever he visited, the booksellers' shops seemed to be devastated by a whirlwind. Gabriel Naudé was the librarian who made the Mazarin Library "the eighth wonder of the world" in the seventeenth century.

We realize Naudé's grasp of the problem of library science when we survey his brilliant achievements. When he was only twenty-six and still librarian to President de Mesmes, he wrote a book, "Advis pour Dresser une Bibliothèque," in honor of his patron. It was first published in 1627, a second edition came out in 1644, and other editions in the same year and in 1668. In 1661 John Evelyn translated it into English and in 1703 it was translated into Latin. This book consists of nine chapters, the first five giving reasons for forming a library, the sort of books of which it should be composed, and by what means to obtain them. The sixth chapter deals with library architecture; the seventh introduces a scheme of classification divided into twelve main classes, with

several sub-divisions. The eighth chapter treats of bookbinding, and the ninth deals with the principal aims of a library.

According to George Smith, Naudé's "Advis pour Dresser une Bibliothèque" was the first "practical" treatise on libraries and Naudé was the first librarian to sketch out in full a plan for the arrangement of a library. "The basis he (Naudé) adopted," says George Smith, "was not much dissimilar to some of the most successful schemes of the present day. Accessions he proposed to keep separately for six months, at the end of which time, they were to be placed on the shelves in their respective classes, opportunity then being seized of dusting the rest of the books, which in many cases would require to be moved to make room for the new-comers; he thus avoids, in a practical manner, the constant re-arrangement necessitated by immediately shelving new books in their respective classes."

Not only did Naudé conceive the idea of throwing open the library to the public, but he actually persuaded Cardinal Mazarin to open his rich library on every Thursday, from eight until eleven and from two until five. Anybody


was admitted and could freely consult the valuable collections. Naudé not only advocated the policy of free library service, but also urged the appointment of capable librarians to draw up catalogues of both authors and subjects as well as to minister in every way to the needs of all earnest students. No one has paid a more respectful tribute to Naudé, the forerunner of the modern library profession, than... Albert de la Fizelière in his *Rymaille sur les plus célèbres Bibliothèques de Paris*: "As long as there are in France men devoted to literature and to a discriminating love of books, Gabriel Naudé will remain the type of the model librarian. It is true that there were bibliophiles and bibliographers before his day, but the science of books had not been co-ordinated. He was the first to set a proper standard for it, and, thanks to his encyclopaedic knowledge, he was able to make it take its place beside the science and letters of the seventeenth century on their lofty eminence."

During the eighteenth century royal libraries, libraries of learned institutions and private libraries developed extensively in various countries. It was often a matter of pride to the owners to obtain learned men,

great thinkers and well-known bibliographers to be their librarians. The position offered more honor than remuneration. The use of libraries was generally granted to scholars by royal collectors, who took this means of giving scholars their encouragement and of expressing their love for literature and science. The value of those libraries would have been increased, had the well-known authors and thinkers been engaged to take charge. Learned men like Hume, Lessing, and others were as important assets to their libraries as many valuable manuscripts would have been. Famous scholars sometimes took a library appointment with two reasons: to receive charity under the name of a salary for library service; and to have free use of the books of the library while carrying on their work.

David Hume was elected to succeed Ruddiman in 1752 as the librarian of the Library of the Advocates in Edinburgh. According to Hume, it was a petty office of about forty guineas a year. Though the salary was insignificant, he accepted the offer, because it gave him the command of a large library. His assistant, Walter Goodall, who was "seldom sober," spent a part of his time in writings designed to white-wash Queen Mary, and Hume's primary interest lay in composing a history of England. Ernest A. Savage has remarked, "we may well wonder how the library
was administered under them." (Hume and Goodall.) It was the same in the case of Lessing's acceptance of the offer to be the librarian of the Wolfenbüttel Library in 1770. His chief purpose was to make personal use of the rich manuscript-collection of the library, though he wished also to give the contents of these manuscripts to the world by their publication.

In spite of the laissez-faire attitude of not a few of the most famous scholar-librarians, the standards for being a librarian have been raised by such types of learned as well as public spirited men, as those, among whom we must include Jean-Baptiste Cotton Des Houssayes, elected librarian of the Society of the Sorbonne about 1776. In his discourse on the "Duties and Qualifications of a Librarian," Des Houssayes sets up classical professional standards. As to qualifications, "A librarian truly worthy of the name should, if I may be permitted the expression, have explored in advance every region of the empire of letters, to enable him afterwards to serve as a faithful guide to all who may desire to survey it. And though it is by no means my intention to give the preference above all other sciences to the science of bibliography,


which is nothing more than an exact and critical acquaintance with the productions of the intellect, it will nevertheless be permitted me to consider this science as the forerunner of all the others, ... Thus the superintendent of a library, whatever be its character, should be no stranger to any department of learning; sacred and profane literature, the fine arts, the exact sciences, all should be familiar to him." As to the administration of a library, Des Houssayes emphasized that, "it should be administered by a librarian distinguished for soundness of judgment no less than for the readiness and accuracy of his memory... He will therefore not admit indiscriminately every book into his collection, but will select such only as are of genuine merit and of well approved utility; and his acquisitions, guided by the principles of an enlightened economy, will be rendered still more valuable by the substantial merits of an able classification."  

The qualifications prescribed by the learned librarians of the eighteenth century fortunately set up a fine scholarly standard for their successors. Following this, the highly useful service rendered by the librarians

of the first three quarters of the nineteenth century introduced training for library work to the hall of professional studies.

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The Professional Education of the Modern Librarian.

During the first half of the nineteenth century libraries were increasingly used, many books were bought, and buildings were multiplied. The "book worm" type of librarian could not handle the situation efficiently. Up to this time the typical librarian was supposed to have read everything and was looked upon as a living catalogue. Soon after the middle of the century, however, the administrative aspects of librarianship began to be more fully recognized, and the literature of various subjects became so voluminous that a librarian, even though possessed of a Magliabecchi's zeal and brain, could not be expected to have read all of the books on any single subject. The compilation and use of bibliographies, rather than prodigious learning and the introduction of mnemonic methods in library technique naturally developed as characteristics of librarianship in evolution.

The people at that time began to feel that they had the right to ask the state to supply free schools and public libraries. Hence legislation for this was introduced and libraries were thrown open to young and old and to the uneducated as well as the learned. Under such circumstances the demand for a new type of librarian who possessed not only scholarly attainments but also organizing power and business capacity was necessary. Men like Sir Anthony Panizzi of England and Professor Charles C. Jewett
of America are splendid examples of both the scholarly and
the newer professional type of librarian during the great
transitional period of which we speak. The pendulum of
librarianship has since swung to the side of practicability
and library economy. By the middle of the nineteenth cen­
tury also many prominent advocates of modern librarianship
urged the importance of proper training in library adminis­
tration. They wrote treatises on library science and
popular articles to convince the public of the necessity of
having trained librarians. They started to form associ­
at­ions, to publish journals, to advocate the establishment
of training agencies, and were themselves careful to render
efficient and modern library service. The public reluctant­
ly began to give the librarian the formal status of a person
engaged in a profession. For all this modern librarians
are deeply indebted to the untiring efforts of their
immediate forerunners.

In regard to the training and qualifications of a
modern librarian, F. A. Ebert, the learned Dresden librarian,
commonly referred to as Germany's Greatest Librarian, in his
"Bildung des Bibliothekars," 2nd edition, Leipzig, 1820,
set up an ideal standard for a librarian involving encyclo­
paedic knowledge, zeal and interest in every phase of human
knowledge, and an extreme love of orderliness. He should
devote his entire time to library work and above all he
must be prepared to find the only reward in the work itself.
Ebert lived up to what he preached, but this was too high
and impractical a standard for the average individual to achieve.

As Mr. Tedder, librarian of the Athenaeum Club, London, remarked, "such universality as he (Ebert) asked for might be desirable, but it was very rarely to be obtained in one individual."¹

Instead of attempting Ebert's almost utopian ideal, librarians of Mr. Tedder's type planned to work out a system which could train an average person of general culture to become a professional librarian. As early as 1829, Martin Schrettinger had published in Munich his "Versuch eines vollständigen Lehrbuchs der Bibliothek-Wissenschaft," in which was emphasized the value of training in a special librarians' training school. "No man," said Schrettinger, "with a literary education, however highly educated he is, even if he is a great scholar, is fitted to be a librarian without a special study, preparation and practice... There should be a kind of librarians' training school connected with a national library; from that the other libraries could be supplied with its able graduates. Thus the methods of administration could be carried on in a uniform way."²

Mr. Frank K. Walter, librarian of the University of Minnesota, is right in saying that Schrettinger was probably first to suggest a special school for training librarians. Schrettinger did not outline any definite programme as to how a special library school could be established in a national library, nor suggest any schedule of courses to be offered. He simply expressed the idea.

No extensive plea for library training was made in Germany until the publication of Dr. Anton Klette's "Die Selbständigkeit des bibliothekarischen Berufes," Leipzig, 1871. Then the practice of recognizing librarianship as an independent profession had its beginning in Germany. Librarians and university professors became keenly interested in the new-born profession and in their discussions stressed methods of training. Thus the way was somewhat prepared for F. Rullman, librarian of the University of Freiburg, to outline in 1874 a university course of three years in library science.

Mr. F. Rullman suggested a meeting of German librarians to discuss two things, namely, (1) the formation of an organization of German libraries, (2) the establishment of a library school for professional training. The


decisions of the meeting were to be carried out by the states. This meeting was never held due to objections raised by some of the librarians. Dr. Steffenhagen, librarian of the University of Kiel, criticized the project as entirely too theoretical. In the first place the decisions of the librarians at the meeting could have no authoritative effect on the state governments since the meeting would be financially dependent upon the states. In the second place, the courses outlined were too theoretical and put too much emphasis on the bibliographical side rather than the practical problems of library administration. Rullman and Steffenhagen carried on a bitter fight in various papers for a long time. After 1876, Rullman, with the assistance of Julius Petzholdt, referred his fellow-librarians to the success of the conference of the American Librarians at Philadelphia in the formation of the American Library Association. However the formation of the American Library Association proved but a slight incentive to the German librarians. In short, the time was not yet ripe for the majority of the German librarians to regard librarianship seriously as an independent profession requiring a thorough school training and an organization for professional co-operation and improvement.

The question of training librarians was finally

settled for Prussia by a proclamation issued by the Department of Public Instruction on December 15, 1893. The first meeting of German librarians was called under the leadership of Karl Dziatzko in 1897 as a section of the Association of Philologists and Educators in Dresden. Fifty-one librarians gathered together to discuss various problems. Three years later the Verein Deutscher Bibliothekare was formally organized.

According to James Ross in his essay "Technical Training in Librarianship in England and Abroad" (Library Association Record 12:114 Feb. 1910) "As early as 1861 the Library of the Bonn University was used as a training school for intending librarians by Friedrich Ritschl. Subsequently in 1886 a professorship of Library Science (Bibliotheks-Hilfswissenschaften) was created at Göttingen, and consequently instruction in that science must have been offered." In a letter from Professor R. Fick, Director of the Göttingen University Library to Director John Boynton Kaiser of the University Libraries of the State University of Iowa, Dr. Karl Dziatzko is designated as the first one to

systematize courses of library training at Göttingen University. Professor Fick quotes a paragraph from P. Schwenke's article about Dziatzko's work in Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen (20:135 March 1903.) This is translated as follows: "He (Dziatzko) organized a course of four semesters of two to three hours' lectures which gradually developed and also included courses on library management (or, as he called it later, history and development of the modern library science), books and writings of antiquity, and, in two parts, the history of printing and of the book-trade (before and after the Reformation.) Besides there were also lectures on manuscripts of Latin authors and authors' and publishers' rights in the history of book-selling. There was also regular practice work in bibliography as Mr. Dziatzko lectured on certain subjects or gave practical bibliographical problems to the students to solve. During the last years his subjects were chiefly description of the Göttingen incunabula, and the ascertaining of the printing types and printing practice during the fifteenth century. Dziatzko's work as a teacher and as director of the Examination Commission founded in 1896, which for the first time with us prescribed the extent and nature of the long desired professional library training, will always be a landmark in the history of the Prussian and German library development." Professor Fick adds that among Dziatzko's papers, manuscripts on which he had based his lectures on library science were also found. "As far as I have seen,
these manuscripts correspond with the subjects of his lectures as given in the university bulletins... There are some insufficient references in Georg Schneider's 'Handbuch der Bibliographie,' 1923, p. 25 and p. 195 ff. In connection with these references it should be noticed that already before Dziatzko there were then at Göttingen assistant professors acting as librarians who created interest in bibliography and lectured on the literary history of their subjects...."

Dr. Ernest A. Baker, Director of the University of London School of Librarianship in his new book, "The Public Library," has a concise chapter on training in librarianship, in which he traces the history of professional library training. He says, "certain general colleges, also, hold courses in bibliography, paleography and kindred subjects, useful not only to the librarian but also to the research student. Germany, Italy and Sweden preceded us in the establishment of library schools, the first-named in 1861." The references in Graesel's "Bibliothekslehre," or in Garde-thausen's "Handbuch der Wissenschaftlichen Bibliothekskunde," or in Dr. Fick's letter to Director Kaiser about professional library training in Germany, or in Dziatzko's "Present State of Libraries and Librarianship in Germany" (Library Chronicle 4:57-63, 1887) or in Mr. Ambrose's "Dr. Dziatzko

on German Libraries" (Library Journal 21:53-59, Feb. 1896), speak only of innovations in the catalogue, rearrangement of books on the shelves, and of other purely administrative improvements put into effect at Bonn from 1854 to 1865 by the eminent scholar and chief librarian, Friedrich Ritschl. For the introduction of professional library training in Germany most of the references give the honor to Karl Dziatzko as the first professor of library science at Göttingen University. The year 1886 has been generally considered as the date of the establishment of the first chair of library science in a German university.

When Dziatzko was a student at the University of Bonn, Friedrich Ritschl, Professor of philology and university librarian, made it a rule for the students of the philological seminar to assist in the library, and so Dziatzko probably made his first acquaintance with library methods in the circulation department of the library at Bonn. Professor Ritschl entirely reorganized the library and did much for its development. Dr. Richard Pietschmann, Director of the University Library of Göttingen, remarked in his memorial sketch of Dziatzko, "Many of the best librarians of Germany received their training from Ritschl, of whom I mention only Aug. Wilmanns, general director in Berlin, Jos. Ständer, director of the university library at Bonn, and Wilhelm Brambach, until recently librarian at
From this we might assume that Professor Ritschl have his student-assistants in the library and other students some instruction in library methods and bibliography, just as some of the present American universities and colleges give courses in how to use books in the library and in bibliography. It cannot be said that such American universities and colleges have library schools for the purpose of training persons intending to be librarians. Professor Ritschl may have given considerable extra-curriculum instruction in library management to his library assistants, who, though working in the university library, might not have had any intention of making library work their vocation, as in the case of Dziatzko. Upon his graduation in 1863, Dziatzko chose the career of teacher. Had the University of Bonn had a library school as early as 1861, Dziatzko's natural inclination towards the library profession, and his long connection with the university library under Professor Ritschl, would surely inclined him to graduate as a librarian rather than a teacher. If Friedrich Ritschl had founded a library school in the university of Bonn, Rullman's outline of a university course of three years in library science would not have created so great a sensation among his contemporaries.

ries in 1874. It was not unusual for professors of German universities to give courses in bibliography and in the history of books and libraries, but these courses were not regarded as constituting in any sense professional library training comparable to that offered by a professional library school.

Since the Prussian Act of 1893 defining the qualifications of a librarian, and the appointment of a Library Examination Commission in 1896, the entire German system of examining librarians and certification has been revised several times. In 1917 two decrees about examinations were issued. They were (1) for "middle officials" at scientific libraries, (2) for "workers" in public libraries. The decrees prescribed certain courses for the assistants in scientific libraries. These courses had to be taken by the assistants before they might enter the libraries to do practice work. Due to the Great War, the entire matter was neglected. In 1918 the question of examination and training of library assistants was taken up again and it was decided to find a happy medium between theoretical training and practical work. The aim was that practice work should be done at the libraries and studies of library science in universities be simultaneously carried on. A new act was accordingly published in 1919. After the end of the war the development in the library field was very rapid, so that courses for library science were started with the winter semester of 1919-1920 in several of the universities.
In order to give some general idea of the library courses in Germany, the following extract from the Leipzig University Bulletin may serve as an example (1) "courses for higher library training (in connection with the University Library.) The candidates will, during the two semesters' lectures, problems and practice work, get the necessary theoretical knowledge for passing the diploma examination. But this is only the preliminary training for a special examination. (2) Special studies for the future librarians. The candidates taking these special studies must first have two years' practice work at a large library. The theoretical studies may be covered in one year and then the second year only is devoted to practical library work." 10

Lecture courses for winter semester 1919-1920.
1. History of Libraries, Director Dr. Boysen
2. Manuscript I, Professor Dr. Rörig
3. Encyclopaedias and Bibliography, Professor Dr. Minde-Pouet
4. History of the German Booktrade, Dr. Goldfriedrich
5. History of Printing, Professor Dr. Schramm
6. Greek Palaeography, Professor Dr. Gardthausen
7. Chronology of the Middle Ages and Modern

8. Palaeographical Problems; Professor Dr. Rürg
9. Problems of Diplomatics; Professor Dr. Rürg

The last four courses, i.e. no. 8-9, are also intended for general students.

The qualifications for candidates to enter professional library service in Prussia are (1) Final examination from a humanistic gymnasium, (2) Testimony of successful studies in one of the four colleges in a German university, (3) a doctor or a licentiate degree, (4) certificate of good health, (5) two years' practice work in one of the large Prussian libraries, (6) a successful examination by a state commission. In Saxony the German Printers' Association has recently started in Leipzig a library school for lower functionaries, since the government has started library courses at the university for higher functionaries. This plan has been adopted by other German states.

In Austria examination for library positions was already required in 1862. Lectures in bibliography, history of books and other subjects were undertaken by the Institute of Historical Enquiry as early as 1874. The contents of the examination were modified and rearranged in November 1895. Italy has had tentative regulations governing public libraries and examinations for library officials since 1876. These were drawn up by Signor Ruggero Bonghi, Minister of Public Instruction. The examination in bibliography and librarianship was not actually given by the government until
1885. An international library school on American lines was projected at Florence in 1905. The Scandinavian countries recognized the profession of librarianship in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Some of the descendants of the Vikings have crossed the Atlantic to be trained in American library schools. Sweden started its first summer school of librarianship in 1908 at Stockholm.

In France the examination for librarianship has been given by the Minister of Public Instruction since 1879. There are two types of examination, one for the higher and the other for the lower functionaries. The qualifications for the higher functionaries require candidates to produce (1) their birth-certificates with diplomas; (2) a statement of the work they have done, their library experience of two years and their knowledge of languages. The examination is partly written and partly oral. Both the oral and written examinations for the lower functionaries or sub-librarians include:

I. Printed Books

1. Cataloguing of twelve books including incunabula and books in foreign languages

2. Arrangement of twelve order slips

3. Classification in the National Library and questions about bibliography, history of

II. Manuscripts

1. Description of 4-5 manuscripts

2. Questions about palaeography and bibliography of manuscripts

3. History of libraries and the chief collections of the National Library since the seventeenth century

In 1894 the Sorbonne commenced to give lectures in bibliography and a few courses in library economy. But there was no independent library school either in Paris or in any province until June, 1923. The American Library School in Paris was founded by the American Committee for Devastated France. The plan for a regular full-time library school for French librarians was matured in the fall of 1924. It has been conducted by the American Library Association. However, we must remember that although France has no modern library school, yet she has one of the finest schools in the world to teach scholars and bibliophiles how to study and interpret her rich stores of documents. One who reads Delisle's "Souvenirs de Jeunesse" cannot help but realize that the "Ecole des Chartes" of Paris has produced many brilliant archivists. It has rendered civilization a great service, as Sir William Osler remarked in his address at the

opening of the Aberystwyth Summer School of Library Service in July 1917. "When, as we may hope, library schools are organized, opportunities will be offered to students on the same wide and liberal lines as the "Ecole des Chartes" of Paris, whose students have been well named the modern Benedictines." 13

The Library Association of the United Kingdom has always enthusiastically promoted the training of librarianship and rigorously defined the proper qualifications of librarians in England. The first examination of library assistants in accordance with a syllabus drawn up by the Library Association was held in July 1885, and three candidates presented themselves for the occasion. Many librarians at that time felt that an organization to train candidates for examination under the auspices of the Library Association was quite necessary. Mr. J. J. Ogle, Librarian of the Bootle Public Library, read a paper on "A Summer School of Library Science" at the fifteenth annual meeting of the Library Association. In response to his appeal the first Summer School of Library Science in England was inaugurated in 1893. By the inspiration of Mr. H. D. Roberts, Librarian of St. Saviour Public Library, the Library Association changed the name of the Summer School Committee to the Education Committee, and the regular train-

ing of library assistants began in February 1898. The courses were modified to a certain extent when the Library Association decided in 1902 to co-operate with the London School of Economics. Since that time the London School has been for nearly a decade the place for English would-be librarians to receive their training in bibliography, classification, cataloguing, library law and library economy. The library assistants in the provinces were without opportunity for training, and so the Library Association commenced correspondence classes in 1904, and urged certain leading provincial colleges and universities to give lectures on library economy and bibliography for the convenience of the library assistants in their neighboring districts. This proposal of the Library Association has been put into effect by the Manchester School of Technology, the John Rylands Library, Manchester, Leeds University and Armstrong College, Newcastle.

The lectures and methods of training in the English summer schools, correspondence classes, and universities and colleges have been nearly the same. The syllabus published by the Library Association has always been closely followed and students have been prepared with the one aim to pass the examinations conducted by the Library Association every year. Certificates have been granted in separate subjects and each subject has formed a section of an examination. There have been six sections, namely, Literary History, Bibliography, Classification, Cataloguing, Library Organi-
zation and Library Routine. When one has passed all these six sections and shown some knowledge of Latin and of a foreign language with a satisfactorily written thesis on an appropriate subject, he has been entitled to a full diploma. This system has had the advantage of standardizing the training of library assistants, but it has not been sufficiently broad in scope to cover the entire field of library subjects. The shortcomings of the system were taken into account in the establishment of the School of Librarianship in the University of London in 1919. The plan of this school offers a thorough training in library science. The School is the result of close co-operation between the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the Library Association.

"The school is a department of university college... its curriculum fits into the scheme of the Faculty of Arts." Dr. Baker adds, "the nominal course of training occupies two years, and students must devote their whole time to lectures, private study, and practice work; but for the benefit of assistants who cannot throw up their occupation, and also of booksellers, publishers' assistants... part time attendance is allowed, by which the training is spread over a period varying from three to five years. But it must be continuous. This and the thoroughness of a college training, coupled with the initial requirement of a general education of matriculation standard, make the advent of the school a great stride forward. In time the training may
develop into a postgraduate course. The present curricu-

lum is as follows:— (1) English Composition (2) Latin or 
Greek or Sanskrit or Classical Arabic (3) A Modern Language 
other than English (4) Bibliography (5) Library Organization 
(including Public Library Law) (6) Library Routine (7) 
Cataloguing and Indexing (8) Literary History and Book 
Selection (9) Classification (10) Palaeography and Archives 
(11) Special Lectures on Library Topics by special authori-
ties. The instruction in the purely technical subjects 
is both theoretical and practical. The students are re-
quired to do practice work under expert supervision. One 
year's salaried work in a library is necessary before 
receiving the diploma.

The beginning of systematic library training in 
America is chiefly due to Dr. Melvil Dewey, who had the 
vision to foresee the development in the United States of a 
library movement unparralled in history. To him it was 
especially clear that the growth of education, journalism, 
and industry and the general progress of American achieve-
ments would inevitably result in libraries in America far 
different from those of the old world. The "jailer of 
books" of yesterday could not very well understand the 
significance of the modern public library which Dr. Dewey 
has called in Carlyle's phraseology "the Peoples' Universi-

ty." Dr. Dewey has spent much of his energy in advocating a type of librarian trained to utilize libraries as channels for the diffusion of knowledge among all the people.

As early as 1879 Dr. Dewey wrote, "we need a training school for preparation for the special work. The village school-mistress is provided with normal schools by the hundred, where the best methods of teaching are taught. Physicians, lawyers, preachers, yes even our cooks have special schools for special training. But the librarian, whose profession has been so much exalted, must learn his trade by his own experiments and experience." 15

Dr. Dewey's advocacy of a regular library school was enthusiastically received by many eminent American librarians. Dr. William F. Poole, C. A. Cutter, Samuel S. Green, R. C. Davis and many others joined him to push the project. The plan for a library school was accepted in 1884 by Columbia College after a full meeting of its trustees. The school of Library Economy was finally opened on January 5, 1887, at Columbia College, New York City. When Dr. Dewey was appointed librarian of the New York State Library in 1889 the school was transferred to Albany. It was renamed the New York State Library School and it became a part of the University of the State of New York. This was an important step in library history, because librarian-

ship was thus to a certain extent officially acknowledged as a profession of equal standing with those of teaching, law, medicine, etc. It was natural that other schools should be established, once the New York State Library School had proved itself of a value to the library profession and to libraries. Since 1902 the rules of the regents of the university have required graduation from a registered college for admission to the New York State Library School.

The Pratt Institute School of Library Science, Brooklyn, New York, opened in 1890. It was followed by the Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, in 1892, which was discontinued in 1914 and re-established in 1922. According to a recent announcement, admission to Drexel will require graduation from college or university and this rule will be in force from the fall term of 1925. In 1893 a library training class was started in the Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, which was transferred to the University of Illinois, Urbana, in September, 1897, becoming then a full-fledged Library School. Since 1911 only college graduates have been admitted. The other "accredited" library schools in America to-day are as follows:

1897 Syracuse University Library School, Syracuse, New York.

1900 Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh, Pa.

1902 Simmons College, School of Library Science, Boston, Mass.
1904 Western Reserve University Library School, Cleveland, Ohio.

1905 Library School of the Carnegie Library of Atlanta, Ga.

1906 University of Wisconsin Library School, Madison, Wis.

1911 Library School of the New York Public Library, New York City, New York.

1911 University of Washington Library School, Seattle, Wash.

1914 Library School of the Los Angeles Public Library, Los Angeles, Cal.

1917 St. Louis Library School, St. Louis, Mo.

In 1915 the Association of American Library Schools was formed. "This Association consists only of schools deemed by the Association itself to be of the first grade," says Dr. Bostwick, adding: "It has from time to time admitted other schools until in 1922 it included thirteen. Its requirements have never been formulated and published, but it is generally acknowledged to have acted wisely in the admission of schools." The Association affiliated with the American Library Association in December, 1923.

The library schools named above give courses of either one or two school years. All of them are connected

with large libraries providing facilities for study and practice. In main the subjects taught in these schools are the same. They include library administration, buildings and equipment, loan work, binding, cataloguing, classification, reference work, bibliography, book selection, history of libraries and books, and many other technical and social subjects related to library work. The training emphasizes the theoretical as well as the practical side.

Other library schools are the University of Texas, School of Library Sciences, Austin, Texas; University of California, Course in Library Science, Berkeley, Cal; Riverside Library Service School, Riverside, Cal; University of Buffalo Library Science Course, Buffalo, New York; Washington Training School for Business Librarians, Washington, D. C; and University of Minnesota Library Course for Hospital Library Service, Minneapolis, Minn.

Besides these regular training schools, many universities, colleges, libraries and library commissions give elementary courses of three or more weeks' duration in the summer months and the courses are intended for librarians of small public or school libraries and library assistants of sub-professional grade. Let us place this last type of instruction in the second category of training for librarianship.

The classes generally conducted by the big libraries for their assistants will then occupy the third category of training for librarianship in America. The courses given
are elementary and the instruction is usually local in emphasis.

In the fourth category we will place the library institutes or library conferences which are conducted by library commissions or local library associations. These conferences are helpful forces in promoting a professional spirit and in encouraging library training. Sometimes a library organizer is employed by a state to give library instruction to librarians of small libraries.

In a fifth category are correspondence and extension courses in library work. They have so far made very little progress. But at present many normal schools, colleges and universities give a course in how to use the library intelligently, how to select the best books, and how to compile a bibliography. The primary purpose of such a course is to familiarize students with the contents of libraries and not to train them as librarians or library assistants.

In 1916 the American Library Association Council appointed a committee on Standardization of Libraries and Certification of Librarians. After three years, the outlines of a national certification system were presented to the Association at the Asbury Park Conference of 1919. The outlines were informally approved and referred to the Council. After another lapse of two years, a report of the committee on National Certification and Training, with a suggested plan of certification, was again submitted to the Associ-
nation. By 1923 two states, Wisconsin and New York, had passed laws requiring some form of certificate for persons employed in public libraries. Four states, California, Iowa, Minnesota, and South Dakota had adopted some scheme of voluntary certification under the charge of either state library association or library commission. A national certification system is still under discussion. Some American librarians believe that it would provide a very effective means for furthering professional progress and efficient library service, and others fear that a certification system will stifle librarians of the "original genius" type now in the library field. Whether the National Certification System of librarianship will be useful or not depends upon certain objective measurements scientifically valid and reliable. So far the arguments for and against are chiefly emotional and subjective in nature.

The American Library Association anxious to have the whole question scientifically considered is studying it in all its aspects through a number of important boards, commissions and committees. One committee is conducting a comprehensive survey of all library activities in America. Another is co-operating with the Bureau of personnel administration of the Institute for Government research in conducting a series of personnel surveys involving elaborate job analyses to be followed by suggested psychological tests of fitness for the various jobs analyzed. There is also a
Board of Education for Librarianship studying the whole question of professional education, which has visited all existing library schools and has held several public hearings attended by prominent educators including various specialists in the field of professional education. But of the associations part in helping to solve the problem of the best professional education for librarianship more will be said later.

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CHAPTER IX

Changing Conceptions of Librarianship and its Educational Requirements.

As we survey the librarian's qualifications and preparation for his calling from ancient times to the present, as was done in the last three chapters, it appears that the one fundamental qualification for librarianship, common to all ages and peoples, is education. The librarian must be an educated man. Different personalities have given different interpretations to the office. Varying techniques have developed. Yet, the foundation has been and is ever the same.

The question then naturally arises whether the changing conceptions of librarianship will necessitate for the future any other foundation than this.

The answer must be, "Yes." Even this first essential must be changed; the very foundation broadened. The librarian of the future must not simply be educated, but in a very definite sense he must be liberally educated. And, what it is to be liberally educated has been well stated by President Charles F. Thwing in these words: "The primary purpose of the ideal college is to give a liberal education, or if one prefer the active voice, to give an education which liberalizes the human mind and character... The liberally educated man, we sometimes say, is the scholar. But we all know men who are scholars who do not embody an education of a liberal type... The liberally educated man,
it is sometimes said, is the thinker. The man who can reason, judge, assess a truth at its proper value, relate truth to truth, or infer a new truth, is the thinker. But there are men whose minds are as accurate in their movement as Babbage's famous machine, who would never be judged guilty of having a liberal education. One knows such men—orderly, precise, correct, their mental operations are more regular than the movements of the heavenly bodies—but they are not liberally educated.

"The man of a liberal education is a scholar, or at least is scholarly; he is a thinker, or at least is thoughtful, but he is also more than either the thinker or the scholar, in fact, more than both. This man liberally educated, has entered the arena of learning, yet he is not cumbered by, nor made heavy with the treasures which he bears forth. He is still intellectually alert... Every faculty acts, every function is complete. Reason plus sympathy plus appreciation equals fullness of life. Fullness of life equals the man himself liberally educated." ¹

A liberal education then, in President Thwing's meaning best describes the primary qualification of the future librarian.

President Thwing has aimed to present an ideal standard of a liberally educated man, but we must realize

that to set one's standard high - higher even than one is able to reach - is the surest way to attain real excellence in any profession. It is very true that human beings seldom reach perfection, nevertheless, it is the business of the liberally educated man to aim at it. The higher the ideal, the nearer one is likely to come to success in the profession one has voluntarily chosen. A high aim is necessary in the future not only to librarians but to all professional men.

Any adequate program of professional education for librarianship in America must be fully cognizant of the fact that here there has developed both from the standpoint of administration and of library service an American type; and, furthermore, this program must recognize definitely the several significant factors which have produced this distinctly American type of library organization and library service. In successive chapters the principal factors which have influenced the development of American libraries have been shown to be the democratic ideal of education, the spirit of research, the growth of print, library philanthropy and library associations.

These and doubtless other influences are still at work. The American type of library is still evolving. The process is one of at least semi-conscious evolution.

To-day a certain method of training for librarianship may admirably serve the needs of American library administration but to-morrow it will need modification. American methods of training for librarianship are also a re-
sultant of the spirit and influence of these same factors which have acted upon and effected the development and organization of American libraries. If some defects in the modern methods and system of library training have been felt it will be worth while to examine into the matter. It is quite possible that these defects may be traced to a failure to recognize the factors that have influenced library development here in America and to adjust professional instruction accordingly.

Some seem to think that the present-day librarian is too mechanical and not as scholarly or learned as his predecessor. The library school graduate is felt to be too practical and machine-minded. Perhaps the training in library schools does lay too much emphasis on technique. Mr. J. H. Friedel describes the situation thus: "It is the watch-spring all wound up, not the brain that knows when or how to wind. The emphasis is thus continually on memory, since to the technician memory is more essential than the ability to cope with new situations. Yet it is the latter faculty which we should try to develop. The end of all library science, as of all education, should be development of character not of mere skill... Or they may be subjects involving skill of performance. Of these three, those involving skill of performance undoubtedly cover a major part of the subjects taught in the library schools, since library work is largely an occupation involving skill of performance. The special danger of such subjects is that they tend to be-
come performed mechanically, thereby restricting independent thought. The accomplishment tends to become an end in itself. Cataloguing may be cited as an example. How frequently do we hear the fact bemoaned that trained cataloguers center their attention so much on commas and periods and use so little grey matter."

It is true that many library processes are mechanical, others highly technical, and that at one time the emphasis in training agencies was such that "practical" and, often, no doubt, "mechanical" librarians were the result. But these qualifications were once, at a certain stage in the development of libraries and librarianship, very useful. Existing conditions almost necessitated the production of such mechanical librarians, at least of librarians capable of taking an intelligent interest in seeing that the necessary mechanical processes were well done. And, while this is not the place to digress at length upon the subject, it should be pointed out that one must not confuse in his mind those library processes which are admittedly mechanical with those like cataloguing and classification which are always technical, as opposed to mechanical, and which may be and often are highly professional and scholarly pursuits.

But to return to the question of preparation for

librarianship, note that it is the American librarians themselves who have become conscious of the inadequacy of their training agencies who are taking the lead in the movement for improvement. They are demanding a new standard for professional training. There are evidences too that this desire for a change in the system of training has been prompted, in part at least, by a further recognition of the requirements of the still evolving American type of library administration and service and the factors that have produced it.

After the middle of the nineteenth century, the democratic ideal of education aimed primarily to lift the level of education for the masses of the people, and the American public library attempting to play its part became both an adjunct to the public schools and in truth an independent "peoples university." The public demanded only quick and in the main superficial service from the librarians of public libraries. Consequently mechanical aids and administrative methods conducive to machine-like staff-management were urgently sought by students of library schools and the higher principles of library science and humanistic studies in general were neglected. The popular demand for librarians of a technical type was great and naturally the training agencies centered their efforts on skill in technique rather than on the development of the broadest possible grasp of the problems of the profession.
The movement of library philanthropy increased the need for trained librarians in ever increasing numbers. The demand for librarians to operate the host of newly founded libraries had to be supplied as quickly as possible from library schools, training classes, and apprentice courses. The donors' idea was that the library was the place to diffuse knowledge among the masses of the people, and the community which received the gift frequently regarded the library as merely a social center with books for recreation. A librarian who could keep the place clean and who could arrange books in order was hired to supply library service. The donors, the people, and the librarians, all proceeded to carry out too mechanically an idea of popular education which constituted one of the essentials of American democracy.

With the twentieth century there dawned a new spirit in library service. Librarians have now begun to realize that the exactness of the catalogue, the neatness of the loan-system, and the careful arrangement of scheduled hours for staff-members are not ultimate aims, but merely means to the economical utilization of books. The right books cannot be brought to the right people by librarians who are interested only in mechanical systems. A type of librarian who knows how to perform library service of quality, whose eyes are open to social needs, and whose administration does not lack human sympathy is needed. Present-day librarians are conscious of their short-comings
and some requirements for the future have been outlined by Mr. Carl B. Roden, Librarian of the Chicago Public Library, in one of his thoughtful addresses read at the twenty-seventh annual meeting of the Illinois Library Association, Peoria, on September 26, 1923. "Thanks to their labors we are the legatees of a well-nigh perfect body of doctrine and practice, which we have but to follow to achieve a satisfactory measure of mechanical efficiency. The principles of classification, so far as they concern most of us, were established when Melvil Dewey evolved the Decimal System. The rules for cataloguing have long since been so far stabilized that little remains even for cataloguers to talk about, and the craft is in danger of being embedded like the well-known fly in a rigid translucence that promotes both permanence and finality. So in other departments, our work, save for occasional innovation born of personal ingenuity, has been standardized to a degree that should leave little room for further fruitful discussions... The outward and visible form of our calling is clear and sharply defined." He continues by emphasizing the spiritual value which he feels should characterize the future librarianship. "Books are spiritual goods; they are imponderables. To attempt to apply quantitative standards to their distribution or to the measurement of their power is as futile as the Dean (Dean Inge of Saint Paul's Cathedral, London) declares these methods to be in the realm of Philosophy... It is the mission of the librarian, not merely to supply even the best
books to the greatest number, not yet 'at the least cost',
but to bring together the right book and the right reader -
at any cost! That, in my opinion, will be the next step in
library administration, if there is to be one. Thus, in
the end, and thus alone, will be manifested that inward and
spiritual grace which is the soul of librarianship."

Hitherto library donors have fixed their intentions
upon building more and larger libraries. Only recently have
they shifted their gaze to a new aspect of the library move­
ment. It has been pointed out by many librarians and
recognized by many donors that the essential factor in
enabling a library to perform better service and to function
on a greater scale is a sufficiently large and competently
trained personnel. The repeated grants by the Carnegie
Corporation for library service as distinguished from build­
ings and books herald the new aspect of the library movement.
Dr. William S. Learned's expectation of the future librarian­
ship and the library schools is as follows, "The provision
of a sufficient number of thoroughly educated and techni­
cally trained library workers under conditions suitable for
a permanent career is the salient feature in a properly re­
organized library service, and should receive immediate
attention... If a rapid and wholesome development is to take
place in the process of adjusting libraries to their users,

3. Roden, Carl B: On a Certain Reticence or Inarticulateness
the most vigorous and drastic changes should be made at this point. Expert duties in libraries must be distinguished from routine duties of a purely clerical sort, and the personnel developed accordingly; full-time teachers and adequate equipment must be provided; and professional curricula for the higher, responsible positions must doubtless be associated with comparable professional curricula in the universities."  

Before the spirit of research was fully felt in American universities, the professional qualifications and specialized education of their librarians were neglected. Any person was employed who had a little library training in classification and cataloguing. His chief work was to keep records and his status among the faculty was frequently that of only a book-clerk. In America the methods of library training were not much influenced by the earlier college and university libraries. Only recently have American universities begun to vie in the achievements of their research with European universities, and only recently have the American university libraries been brought face to face with problems, the solutions of which require the tact, energy, and initiative of a highly trained librarian. For instance such problems as the

efficient organization of departmental libraries, the centralization of administration, the building up of special collections, the teaching functions of the library, conferences with the deans of various schools, the estimating of yearly budgets, and the problem of the best service to all library users require the most careful thought of a liberally educated as well as a technically trained librarian. To-day the importance of a library in the life and work of a university is beginning to be generally recognized. From an Introductory Statement in the 1924 Report of the Commission on the Future Policy of the University Libraries of the University of Chicago we learn that "The library is the heart of the University. The rectifying of these conditions is essential to the life of the University." On November 30, 1912, Dean Kendrick Babcock of the University of Illinois presented a paper, "Bibliographical Instruction in College," at the Conference of Eastern College Librarians, at Columbia University. He thought that instruction in bibliographical method should be given by the librarian and the members of the library staff. He said, "This plea for required accredited instruction in bibliography is not based wholly upon theory. It certainly would not be satisfied by chance instruction through the insistence of departmental heads or enthusi-

astic instructors in different departments. Several insti-

tutions have already tried the scheme and find that it works

well. They have reasoned rightly that the work should be

under the direction of the librarian and carried on by his

trained assistants, and that when so done it is entitled to

recognition." 6 Dr. E. C. Richardson of Princeton believes

that the question of the position of the library in the uni-

versity will in the end be determined by this matter of the

methods by which it fulfills its teaching function. 7

The ranking of the university librarian as a dean and

of the trained members of the staff as professors and in-

structors will be adopted by American universities, when the

university libraries become the dominating forces as well

as the indispensable tools of research work. This admission

of librarians into the sacred circle of the instructional

faculties will be a test of the education and professional

training of the graduates of library schools.

Occasionally unfavorable criticisms of trained

librarians come from the field of special libraries. It

is intimated that the library school graduates are special-

ists in methods of checking, of classifying, and of cata-

loguing books, but not in knowledge of current research

6. Babcock, Kendric C: Bibliographical Instruction in


7. Richardson, E. C: The Place of the Library in a Uni-


Jan. 1916.
material on industrial conditions, for instance. The growth of print has influenced all types of libraries and the flood of commercial and industrial literature has necessitated many special and business libraries. It is expected of the library school graduate that he be not only well versed in library methods but also in the concrete knowledge of a few highly specialized subjects. Sometimes a young library school graduate, who either lacks broad educational background or has not the aptitude to master the literature of a specific field disappoints the employers of special librarians.

In 1919 Mr. J. H. Friedel, then editor of Special Libraries, vividly wrote: "But this should not blind us to the need of teaching the student to be self-dependent, to think for himself and to be able to solve new problems when these are encountered. A problem frequently met in the newly organized special library is that of preparing a special classification that will best meet the needs of the particular library. The capable, experienced special librarian is invariably of the opinion that a special classification is essential to the best functioning of the library. The writer's experience has been that few library school graduates know how to prepare such classifications and this observation is confirmed by inquiry from other special librarians. Where standard methods, such as the Dewey, are adopted, the library school graduate appears at a loss to make necessary expansions. Scientific classifi-
cation is cast to the winds and a method of patchwork is resorted to, followed by consequent patching of patches. Instances might be enumerated galore, but the necessity of politeness prevents specific mention of cases encountered... The courses given are in many cases capable of improvement... Our courses, however, should not be designed for appearance only. Catch-fly methods may be efficient for flies; they cannot honestly deserve the name of education, much less the dignity of classification as scholarship or science."

If one wished to answer Friedel's criticisms of the trained librarian's inability to function well as a special librarian he might point out that particularly in the early days of the special library movement, it was the noticeably mediocre librarian, dissatisfied with his or her lot, and more interested in salary than in service, who rushed in and filled the ranks of the so-called "special librarians." That there were notable exceptions does not disprove the fact. Moreover, many of these special librarians had no professional training at all but were opportunists alert for a change whose small learning did much to discredit those who came later to the field well prepared.

The failure on the part of some of the library school graduates to meet the requirements of certain special

libraries does not necessarily mean that the standard of any of the library schools is low. The number of library school students entering the field of special libraries is constantly increasing, and in a large proportion of the cases the students succeed in their work. 9 Again, the sudden increase of special libraries and of special divisions in large public libraries has disturbed the equilibrium of the preparation for the work and strained the resources of the library training agencies, which are primarily schools to train assistants for general public rather than for special libraries. When the schools want to prepare their students for special library work, their finances are insufficient to cover the cost of new courses, equipment, and the salaries of extra teachers. Professional libraries, those of medical, legal, theological, sociological, educational, industrial, financial, technological, and scientific institutions are calling for trained librarians. The existing schools cannot give the specific training for such work, and can supply only graduates with a general library training.

Again suppose that some of the library schools should try to specialize in preparing for work in special libraries, whether there will be enough students to take special library training is a grave conjecture. In general students ask themselves two questions before choosing special library work. Will the salary be enough to justify

an extra year or years in special library training, and how can one be sure of employment in the kind of special library for which one has trained? As to the salary, the employers of special librarians frequently do not wish to put too much money into what they regard as a new experiment, and to most business men a librarian is only a sort of clerk and book-keeper. Though there is a demand, it is not a certain one for the exact position for which the student may have specialized. The fault is not that of the existing library training agencies nor of the library school graduates. The entire situation is in a stage of transition. Special libraries are the sign of a further development of American libraries, and the ultimate demands of special libraries will exert great influence on the training and qualifications of the future librarian.

One of the most influential factors in moulding the course of professional training for librarianship in America has been the American Library Association which was and is the guiding spirit of the profession. The plan of the first American library school was presented by Dr. Melvil Dewey to the American Library Association in 1883. This plan was approved by the Association in spite of strong opposition on the part of several of its leading members. The actual operation of the first library school at Columbia College, New York City, in 1887, was followed, as we have already seen, by the establishment of other library schools, training classes, apprentice classes and summer
schools. The policies and the curricula of the library schools have always been influenced by those members of the American Library Association who have actually been engaged in library work. Their opinions have to a large extent been respected by the library schools.

In the earlier years of library schools, technical subjects were greatly emphasized because libraries at that time laid much emphasis on cataloguing, classification, and subject-headings. One needs only to turn to the reports and discussions of the conferences of the American Library Association to learn how absorbed in such matters the profession was.

In 1890 the first standing committee on training for librarianship was established by the Association. In 1903 Miss Mary W. Plummer, on behalf of the Committee, gave an exhaustive report. It summarizes reports from nine library schools, ten summer schools, thirty-three apprentice classes, fifteen college courses in bibliography, twelve normal school courses in library economy, and four correspondence courses. In view of the rapid growth of the library training agencies and in order to protect the professional standard of librarianship, the American Library Association established a Professional Training Section in 1909.

In the summer of 1919 at the tenth annual meeting of the Professional Training Section, several papers all of which stressed the importance of specialized library training
were read. There was a paper on "Advanced Library Training for Research Workers" by Mr. Andrew Keogh, Librarian of Yale University; Miss Sarah Bogle, then principal of the Carnegie Library School, Pittsburgh, Pa., presented a paper entitled "Training for High School Librarianship;" "Training for the Librarian of a Business Library or a Business Branch" was the subject of a paper by Mr. Frank K. Walter, then vice-director of the New York State Library School, Albany, New York; and Miss Mary E. Robbin gave a paper on "Training Teacher-Librarians in Normal Schools".

Regarding the subject of certification, Dr. C. C. Williamson, now with the Rockefeller Foundation, strongly urged the American Library Association at the Asbury Park Conference in 1919 to form an American Library Association Board with a permanent staff and a competent expert as its executive. This Board should have three main functions, he said, "(1) The formulation of a standard scheme of grading library positions which would necessarily resemble the best schemes of service now in use, but which would be so extended as to cover all kinds of professional library work, and possibly include also at least the higher grades of the clerical service, (2) Its second task would be, first to decide, with the advice and counsel of the whole profession, what should be the minimum standard of qualification in the way of training and experience for each grade; and then to issue certificates of the appropriate grade to all applicants who qualify, (3) The third task would relate to
training agencies. Having decided that library school training of a certain character constitutes the desirable minimum for one or more of the higher grades of library service, the board could proceed, as the Association of Library Schools does now, to examine and approve such schools as meet a reasonable standard. Graduates of these schools who have a minimum period of successful experience could be given a Training Board certificate of high grade without further question. Similarly, successful completion of an accredited training class course, combined with a minimum period of experience in a library approved for practice work, might almost automatically entitle one to a Training Board certificate of an appropriate grade." A Committee on National Certification and Library Training was appointed by the Association in 1930 to consider this problem carefully. Due to the uncertainty of post-war conditions and the duplication of duties and the powers of interlocking committees of the Association, the Committee on National Certification and Library Training recommended that a Library Training Board which should have powers wide enough to cover library training, library service, and library certification should be appointed. In May, 1923 the President on the authority of the executive board of the Association appointed

the Temporary Library Training Board. In the summer of 1924 the Board presented a thorough report with findings and recommendations including a recommendation for the formation of a permanent Board of Education for Librarianship. It was formed in July 1924 and Mr. Adam Strohm, Librarian of the Detroit Public Library, was appointed chairman. Since its establishment the Board has held four regular meetings, the first in July at Saratoga Springs immediately after its appointment; the second the following September in Chicago; the third December 30 and 31, 1924, in Chicago; and the fourth April 15 and 16, 1925, in Chicago. It has made a thorough investigation of the problems of library training in relation to other important library questions. The writer was invited by the Board to take part in the programme on the advisability of founding an advanced school of librarianship at the open meetings of December 31, 1924, and of April 16, 1925. As a student of the problem of library training and an active worker in and organizer of libraries for the last fifteen years, he is confident that the American Library Association will formulate before long a satisfactory programme of training for professional librarianship suited to various types of libraries and for various grades of library service. The rapid changes of American life and of American views in education after the close of the Great War have necessitated corresponding changes in library service and thus indirectly in the field of library training. "To exist is to change, to change is
to mature, to mature is to go on creating oneself endlessly," according to Bergson's philosophy of creative evolution. Does the same principle apply to the problem of library training and its final solution?

In summing up, the future American librarian will have a fine structure of professional training on the solid foundation of a liberal education. His administration will be cultured and scholarly. In work we know that he will be faithful; in scholarship he will be an earnest student, and in service he will be an inspiring as well as a helpful guide. The various types of libraries mentioned in the pages of this chapter are at present pressing library schools for graduates with some of these ideal qualifications. Can the existing library schools meet the challenge?

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CHAPTER X

American Library Schools

The first professional school of library economy was founded in the United States. Though Göttingen University, Germany, established a professional chair of library science in 1886, about six months earlier than the date of the formal opening of the library school at Columbia College, New York City, the American school is generally considered the first professional school of library science. The number of the subjects taught at Göttingen was by no means so extensive as those offered at the American School. The latter was a full-fledged professional school; the former was not even a department of a university. The founder of the first American library school, Dr. Melvil Dewey, has written about the matter in the following characteristic fashion. Simplified spelling has long been a passionate hobby of Dr. Dewey's. "We hav always supposed that the Columbia Library School was the 1st in the world. If anything had been done anywhere in that line it was in so small a way that it cud not count. Just as we say about starting the card catalog, or the loose leaf sistem. It is inevitabl that sumbody sumwhere had tied sheets together and had set card on ej, but those don't count any more than the experiments with the string and mustard boxes cud be counted as the invention of the telephone. The Albany school I think is universaly recog-
nized as the 1st real library school in the world.¹

In this age of speedy transportation and easy communication many foreign students come every year to the United States to take up various studies in American universities and schools and conversely many American students betake themselves to European countries. But in the field of library economy and technique, it is rather significant that though foreign students have very often come to American library schools to study, it has not yet proved worth while for any American student to go to any library school of any other country.

The following figures regarding the number of foreign students of different countries who have graduated from the New York State Library School, Albany, since 1887, are copied from a letter of Miss Edna M. Sanderson, vice-director of the school:²

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2. Sanderson, Edna M: The Number of Foreign Students Graduated from the New York State Library School, a Letter to T. C. Tai, April 14, 1925.
The other American library schools have had the same international atmosphere as a result of their foreign students. In the Report of the Pratt Institute School of Library Science for 1923-1924, Miss Josephine A. Rathbone, vice-director, comments, "The class, in the first place, was unusually large, containing, as it did, twenty-seven members, two more than our normal quota. It is a commonplace of the school that every person over the limit makes more trouble in adjustments and re-adjustments than any five people below it, but 1924 proved the exception to that rule, for the additional members, two scholarship holders from Europe, added so much to the interest and pleasure of us all that they more than repaid the extra efforts of the faculty and staff. In addition to the two continent
students, were two from Great Britain, so the class had a distinctly internationally flavour..." The Library School of the New York Public Library, the Library School of the University of Illinois, the Carnegie Library School of Pittsburgh and a few others have all been attended by foreign students.

The priority of the founding of the American library schools and the large percentage of students from the old world who attend them received due emphasis from Edwin H. Anderson, Director of the New York Public Library, in his address delivered before the Pennsylvania Library Club, at Atlantic City, May 2, 1924. "It strikes me as curious that in a survey of the library school situation in this country Dr. Williamson should not even mention the fact that the first library schools in the world were established here, and that we are still the recognized leaders in this field. Universities have had exemplars in Europe for a thousand years, but America was the first to wake up to the need for library schools; and that significant fact is entirely ignored. 'We were the first that ever burst into that silent sea' - and the fact that the first school here was established only thirty-seven years ago, and for a number of years occupied the field almost alone, explains many of the short-comings to which he calls

attention. Nor is there any mention of the significant fact that library science or technique is one of the few things for which Europe has come to school to us. Americans have always gone to Europe to study art; and practically all our art and architecture have come to us from across the sea. American students have flocked to the great universities of Europe; but who ever heard of an American librarian going to Europe to study library methods or technique? Almost from the beginning the library schools in this country have had a considerable portion of foreign students, and as one of the results, library schools have been established in several European countries, one even in Moscow, and another in China. A summer school was conducted in Paris last summer; and the American committee for Devastated France has provided the funds to maintain a full-fledged library school in France for the next two years, after which time it is hoped that the French may continue it on their own account. 4 Although the American library schools have led the world as to the methods and the technique of library training, yet in an allied field such as archives, and in the more scholarly sort of bibliographical study such as that dealing with incunabula, other countries have had much to contribute to library science as a whole.

The publication of Dr. C. C. Williamson's Report


on "Training for Library Service" by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, has shaken the equanimity of librarians and centered their attention on the American library schools and other training agencies. Mr. Frank K. Walter prefaces his review of the Report with a complimentary reference to the stimulating value of the special reports of the Carnegie Corporation. "Dr. Flexner's report on medical education in the United States practically revolutionized the medical curricula of the whole country. Redlich's report on Legal Education did not stampede the law schools but it did lead to the modification of the courses in many of them. Dr. Pritchett's comments on the cost and value of education, in his last published annual report caused many rejoinders, pro and con. In this respect Dr. Williamson's report will certainly run true to form. There is nothing sedative about it."

Opinion among American librarians on the quality of the professional training offered by American library schools is much divided. Some believe that the present educational agencies for librarianship are capable of training the type of librarians needed for the future and some think that if the American library schools do not effect a radical change in their faculties, curricula, entrance requirements and what not, they will hardly be able to maintain

their position of leadership in the realm of library training.

Current opinion including criticisms of the existing order and theories of what ought to be conveniently summarized under six main divisions.

1. Academic affiliation. - Library Schools lack general recognition and professional prestige, because their entrance requirements are not on a par with those of other professional schools; because their curricula include courses of too conglomerate a nature; and because their teaching staff has neither the size, nor the usual academic qualifications of instructors and professors, nor the quality of productive scholarship. In general the appearance, the nature of the work, and the entire make-up of library schools suggest those of vocational schools rather than those of professional schools of university grade. Hence some librarians prefer an academic atmosphere and to raise the standards of library schools to those of the professional schools of universities. This sentiment was well voiced by Edith M. Coulter in her paper presented at the college and reference section of the American Library Association Conference at Detroit, June, 1923: "Furthermore, library schools should be connected with institutions of higher learning. There is at present an encouraging tendency in this direction. The newer schools of librarianship are
connected with state universities, and it would seem a great advance if the present schools now under the administration of public libraries would affiliate with colleges and universities. In my opinion to have all professional training connected with recognized universities, together with the granting of uniform professional degrees would do more than anything else to make the library profession comparable to engineering, law, or medicine... University librarians and instructors in our library schools should be holders of such an advanced degree. It is certain that if our library schools connected with universities are to hold their place with other technical and professional schools, the instructors must hold a degree higher than that granted to graduates of the school."

Let us remember that we have seen that the American library schools were organized at a time when it was chiefly essential to master the details of library technique and methods rather than the broader theories and principles of library science.

The primary aim of the schools was to impart to the students the practical training necessary to meet the demands of the service in public libraries. At present it is still true that the majority of the library school graduates enter public library work. To attach all the existing agencies for training for librarianship to academic institutions at the expense of the practical training these agencies have heretofore been able to give their students for service in public libraries would be to lose touch with the reality of the situation as a whole. The public would suffer in consequence. Dr. Edwin H. Anderson says, "The dictum that library schools should be connected with universities and not with public libraries is, I think, entirely too sweeping. That depends upon local circumstances and conditions. If, for instance, the public library is a live institution, striving day in and day out to better its services to the public, while the college or university is slow in solving its own library problems, or is indifferent to library progress in general, certainly that public library is a better place for the school than the college or university." 7

2. Entrance requirements. - Great variation exists in
the entrance requirements of the present library
schools. Roughly tabulated these requirements
are as follows:

I. High School Diploma and Entrance Examinations
or Degree from an Approved College. In the
list below, any variation from this requirement
follows the name of the school in parentheses.

1. Library School of the Carnegie Library of
Atlanta.

2. Drexel Institute, School of Library Science
(beginning in the fall of 1925, will only
admit applicants with degree from an
approved College.)

3. Chautauqua School for Librarians (no entrance
examinations, but requires library position
or that student be under definite library
appointment.)

4. Library School of the New York Public Library.

5. Carnegie Library School of Pittsburgh (also
admits applicants having senior standing in
an affiliated college.)

8. American Library Association - Temporary Library Training
Board. Report. American Library Schools, Appendix H.

7. St. Louis Library School.

8. Syracuse University Library School (entrance examination may be waived, if applicant intends to be candidate for certificate, only on evidence of satisfactory ability.)

9. Library School of Western Reserve University (also admits applicants without examination who have had three years in College for Women of Western Reserve University if applicant is candidate for degree of that college.)

10. Library School of the University of Wisconsin (admits applicants who have had three years in the College of Letters and Science of the University of Wisconsin.)

II. Junior Standing or Two Years in an Approved College. Any variation of this requirement follows the name of the school in parentheses.

1. University of Buffalo, Course in Library Science.

2. Simmons College School of Library Science (applicant for the one year program should have a degree from an approved college or three years in an approved college.)

3. Riverside Library Service School (admits
applicants with two years college work and entrance examination.)
4. University of Texas, Department of Library Science (admits applicants with a degree from an approved college.)

III. Senior Standing or Degree from an Approved College. Any variation of this requirement follows the name of the school in parentheses.
1. Library School of the Los Angeles Public Library (admits applicants with satisfactory equivalents to entrance examination and library experience.)

IV. Degree from an Approved College.
1. University of California, Department of Library Science.
3. New York State Library School.

The entrance requirements for the above nineteen library schools can thus be roughly grouped under four main classes. No one can say that the library schools are not elastic enough in their entrance requirements to admit the exceptional person who may prove a real genius as a librarian but who lacks certain formal phases of preliminary academic training.

Dr. C. C. Williamson in his report to the
Carnegie Corporation regards the entrance requirements of the schools as too elastic and he feels that "Much can be said in favour of simplifying entrance requirements by specifying a full college course for all students in professional library schools and at least a high school course for admission to training classes. If desired, the school can call for the applicant's college record and accept only those whose work is of high grade. If classes must be further limited, other tests can be applied to applicants."  

The present writer feels that in the matter of entrance requirements the library schools had better specify a certain definite and uniform standard similar to that of other professional schools. The exceptional person or genius without the hallmark of a college degree might still be admitted upon sufficient evidence of his or her creditable experience and scholarship. Such a well-known educational institution as Yale University sometimes admits an exceptional person to the graduate school on probation. "It is part of Yale's general plan to admit to its graduate and professional courses all students who are adequately equipped. Each case is considered on

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its merits, and if the applicant is admitted, he is not enrolled at the beginning as a candidate for a higher degree, but as a so-called 'special student.' If his work should prove equal in quantity and quality to the regular students, he can take the final examinations and get his degree." Mr. Andrew Keogh, Librarian of Yale University, brought out this fact in his paper, "Advanced Library Training for Research Workers," read before the Professional Training Section of the American Library Association at Asbury Park, June 25, 1919.

The present entrance requirements of some of the library schools are rather anomalous. They stipulate that a high school graduate must pass an entrance examination but they admit a college graduate from an approved college without examination to the same course. This procedure is a frank admission that a four-years' college course is easily the equivalent of their entrance examination as a means of selecting qualified students for the school. It is not an assumption on the part of the library school that their entrance examination is the equivalent of

a four-years' college course. On the other hand, this procedure places college graduates on a par with high school graduates who have been successful in passing certain examinations and produces as a result an illogical grouping of students for professional training purposes.

The present writer doubts that examination questions can be made comprehensive enough to measure satisfactorily the unmistakable qualities of an exceptional person adaptable to library training. The result of admission by examination also is a mixture of students with widely varying cultural background. Such a grouping of students is not particularly stimulating mentally to the more intellectual type of college graduates. Furthermore it is difficult for an instructor to devise a course suited and interesting to such widely varying elements of a class. Surely it is much better for the schools to admit only either high school graduates or college graduates. The director or the principal of a library school might still have authority to admit the very exceptional person when he appears. The policy of the Yale graduate school should not be disregarded entirely. As for psychological tests as a means of limiting the number of candidates for library schools, it may be said there is much value in the psychological testing of many vocational
abilities, but the problem of constructing tests applicable to the library profession has not yet been solved by psychologists or others though investigations with that in view are in progress. If classes must be further limited, surely those who have had satisfactory practical experience in a library plus a college education are entitled to prior consideration for admission.

3. Curriculum. - The curricula of library schools have been hastily built as the different types of library work have happened to develop. They are not planned out as they ought to be. If subjected to careful critical analysis the average library school curriculum reveals glaring defects. The grouping of several closely related subjects under one course-heading is not followed and there is an unnecessary number of odds and ends. For instance returning books to their proper places on the shelves, shelf-reading, accessioning, alphabeting and book-numbering are all listed as separate subjects for professional library training, but in reality such subjects constitute but relatively insignificant phases of library routine. Strictly speaking such subjects should be taught only in the training class or under-graduate library schools. It is necessary for every trained librarian to have mastered such subjects, but they are not subjects appropriate in the curriculum of a
graduate, professional library school. They should be classified as pre-requisites for professional library studies in a graduate school. Any professional school has two principal purposes in planning a curriculum. One is that it should conform to the highest professional standards of the profession and the other is that it should stimulate the professional initiative of the student. The library school curriculum at present too often over-emphasizes the unprofessional aspects of library work and neglects the promotion of professional initiative in the student.

Improvements have been concretely suggested by Dr. Williamson: "While it manifestly would not be desirable to bring about strict uniformity in the content of the various courses in the curriculum, there seems to be need for a certain degree of standardization of both the major and minor courses given in the first year of professional library school study. Nomenclature should be standardized and standard courses worked out and officially adopted by the proper professional body. The term "book selection" means far different things in different schools, and terms used in presenting the subject do not have at all the same meaning everywhere. The situation is similar in other parts of the curriculum. It is impossible to tell what instruction a student
has had in book selection from the mere fact he had a course in that subject in an accredited library school. The fundamental courses in library schools, as in schools of law and engineering, should all have the same scope."

4. Instructional Staff. - The chapter on the Teaching Staff in Dr. Williamson's "Training for Library Service" is one of the most fault-finding portions of the entire report. In summing up, Dr. Williamson points out that: "Analysis of the training and experience of instructors in library schools indicates that many of them are not fitted to give instruction of high professional character to college graduates. The statistics show that:

(a) Only 52 per cent of the members of instructional staffs of the library schools in 1921 were college graduates:

(b) 43 per cent were teaching in the same library school in which they received their own training;

(c) 93 per cent of the instructors had no training in the science of teaching;

(d) 80 per cent had no experience in teaching before joining the library school staff;

(e) 32 per cent without adequate experience in practical library work."^{12}

The oldest library school in America has only been in existence 38 years. If we compare American professional schools of law, medicine, and theology, with those of the library schools, the comparison does reveal some tendency to mere apprenticeship training in the latter. As stated before, the training in the library schools has been chiefly aimed to meet the need of the public libraries. So long as the instructors were proficient in some phase of library technique they were considered capable teachers regardless of their educational background. In the days when technique and method only were emphasized, the college degree and teaching experience were not so essential for library school instructors.

On the other hand is it fair to measure the teachers of library schools with the same criteria by which we measure those of the other professional schools? Do the colleges as yet insist on ability to teach or training in the art of teaching for their faculties and do the other professional schools, even the older ones like law, medicine, and theology?

In realizing that instructors in library schools

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should be experts at teaching as well as experts in their respective fields. The library profession is a step ahead, it would seem, of some of its older professional colleagues. Dr. Williamson's criticism of the teachers of the present library schools was based on his ideal conception of a future professional library school.

If we take into consideration the unfavorable environment of the instructors of library schools in comparison with that of the instructors of colleges and universities, their achievement and success are worthy of praise. First, the salaries of library school instructors are very meagre. Secondly, they have practically no opportunity of meeting great scholars and authorities on certain subjects as the instructors of colleges and universities have. Their daily contact is either with library school students or with general readers of public libraries. Unconsciously their views become narrow and they fall into a mental rut. Thirdly, they have no long vacations or leaves of absence for study and improvement. Under such circumstances library schools are naturally often up against a real problem to secure competent instructors.

Besides increase of salary and the introduction of septennial furloughs for research and study, the present library schools should tentatively
engage qualified and promising persons from the library field and then give them an opportunity to prepare themselves in graduate schools of education. Such a policy would serve to build up a strong teaching staff. In nearly every university the young and prominent instructors always have the chance of completing their special and advanced studies in graduate schools, and at the same time they are allowed to teach the lower classes of under-graduates. Library schools which are not connected with universities ought to give their most capable instructors some similar opportunity for further education. The library school directors and the American Library Association should unite in the effort to secure an endowment fund for the use of training library school instructors. Otherwise there is no possibility of obtaining ideal library school instructors with library school training plus college education and training in the science and art of teaching.

5. Professional Education and Technical Training. - One of the most common criticisms of the methods of training in library schools is that there is no differentiation between professional education and technical training. Library schools have not done much to make their students grasp the broader principles and methods of library science but have been content to drill them in the routine processes of hand-work in
minute detail, and to force them to memorize arbitrary rules and forms of library technique. The over-emphasis on mere technical skill discourages the coming of many fine types of college men and women to library schools. On the other hand, many practical librarians hold the view that the technical training taught them in library school is the very thing which enables them successfully to direct their assistants. Library work includes a large amount of routine. It is necessary and desirable for every library school graduate to have mastered mere technical skill.

Library work necessarily involves both professional education and clerical routine. It is not easy nor always necessary to have a very definite distinction between them. Too much emphasis on the principles and methods of library science leads to speculative theories of professional education. It is also true that too much stress laid on technical skill and clerical efficiency reduces professional library training to the level of a trade school. Over-emphasis of one and negligence of the other and vice-versa will surely result in injury to the library profession. William E. Henry, Director of the Library and the Library School of the University of Washington, Seattle, comments as follows on Dr. C. C. Williamson's Report. "His distinction of the types
of training - professional and clerical - is one that the library schools cannot longer afford to disregard. We cannot make a profession out of high school graduates by nine or ten months training - not education - in clerical details. Such meagre educational equipment does not prepare for educational leadership. We might as well admit it first as last. The strongest man and woman will not compete in such a race. The cheaper drives out the better values, and salaries remain low in perfect justice." The existing library schools may have committed the mistake of overstressing mere technical skill.

6. Standardization of Library Training Agencies. - A study of the history of library training for the past thirty-eight years reveals development of training agencies in various localities. Their work and growth have been in accordance with their environments. In consequence great variations exist in their standards of entrance requirements, curricula, facilities and aims. Variations in the terminology of library training likewise exist which have been no less a puzzle to librarians than to laymen. Dr. Williamson remarks, "The term 'book selection' means

far different things in different schools, and terms
used in presenting the subject do not have at all the
same meaning everywhere... The fundamental courses in
library schools, as in schools of law and engineering,
should all have the same scope.14 In view of such
widely varying conditions, the Temporary Library
Training Board recommended twelve measures to be
new carried out by the Board of Education for Librarian­
ship with the consent of the library training agencies.
It was specifically recommended that the Board of
Education for Librarianship:
1. Study library service and its changing needs and
promote the further development of education for
librarianship;
2. Investigate the extent to which existing agencies
meet the needs of the profession;
3. Formulate for the approval of the Council standards
for library schools, for summer library courses,
for courses on school library work in normal
schools and teachers' colleges for training and
apprentice classes, for correspondence and ex-
tension courses, and for such other educational
agencies as may arise;
4. Classify these agencies in accordance with the

York. 1923. p. 23.
standards thus adopted;

5. Publish annually a list of the accredited agencies;

6. Plan for the correlation of the work offered by the agencies; so that a unified system of education for librarianship may be developed;

7. Establish throughout the different agencies a uniform system of credits consistent with collegiate practice;

8. Assign to the technical terms used in library education meanings which will promote accurate and uniform application;

9. Establish close relations with other bodies having similar purposes;

10. Serve in an advisory capacity in regard to grants of funds for library education;

11. Serve in any other matters which would fall logically within the functions of the Board;


While the existing library training agencies are at present too little standardized, the Board of Education for Librarianship must guard itself against

swinging the pendulum of standardization to the other extreme. Over-standardization inevitably destroys initiative and reduces to rule of thumb methods. The introduction of certain minimum standards for the existing training agencies, the adoption of a uniform nomenclature, and the enforcement of all the standards agreed upon, are the important problems for the Board of Education for Librarianship to solve.

In reviewing the current criticisms and theories concerning library training agencies, many of the short-comings appear to be due to lack of system rather than bad management. The schools attempt to train their students to give all sorts of service in all sorts of libraries. It is too ambitious a policy in this age of specialization. As a result an overcrowded curriculum is unavoidable and thoroughness in certain subjects has to be sacrificed. In the near future the demand for specialization in library service will grow, and at the same time the general and mechanical work in libraries will proportionately increase. It is bad economy for any library administration to have highly trained assistants in library science doing most of the routine work, therefore the different grades of library work will sooner or later have to be definitely recognized. This is the right time for the existing library training agencies to formulate and to agree upon their classification.
Each school should then adhere to its scope and do its best to promote the full development of the library profession.

The provisional scheme for accrediting the agencies which offer education for librarianship has been outlined by the American Library Association Temporary Library Training Board as follows:

1. Library Courses, Correspondence and Extension.
2. Courses in Normal Schools and teachers' Colleges for School Librarians.
3. Library Apprentice Classes.
4. Library Training Classes.
5. Summer Library Courses.
7. Senior Under-graduate Library School.
8. Graduate Library School.

As to the length of curriculum; entrance requirements; credits; certificate; qualifications and number of the instructional staff; and library facilities, quarters and equipment, there seems to have been a general agreement among the librarians and the authorities of the library training agencies listed above from 1 to 5. The schools classed under 6 to 8 are still in the

stage of discussion and formulation by the Board of Education for Librarianship, especially a new type of advanced graduate library school in connection with some university which so far is hardly beyond the embryonic stage. Whether an undergraduate library school, or a graduate library school, or both, should be connected with a university will be fully discussed in the next chapter.

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Part III

A PROPOSED SCHEME OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR
LIBRARIANSHIP.

Chapter XI. The Library School as a School
of a University

Chapter XII. A Proposed School for the State
University of Iowa

Chapter XIII. Requirements for Admission,
Degrees and Curriculum for a
Library School
CHAPTER XI

The Library School as a School of a University.

The organization of another type of library school is a live question among American librarians. The close affiliation of any new library school with some university will be advisable for the library profession, in the opinion of the writer, but there are those who do not share this opinion.

The existing schools in connection with public libraries have performed and are performing vital work in training librarians. They have the equipment, facilities, and quarters in most cases the equal of other standard library schools. The curricula as they stand at present require much demonstration work in all types of library routine. The well-organized public libraries offer excellently equipped laboratories for library school students. In general the public library in America is better organized and more adequately supported than the university library. Considering such conditions, an affiliation with a university may seem unnecessary.

Some librarians who favor the affiliation of library schools with universities reason that the money appropriated for public library service should not be diverted to support a professional library school. To these men and women the training of professional librarians appears a task for educational institutions. The equipment and facilities of the public libraries for library school
students need not be wasted if the library schools be located in universities not too far distant. It could be managed similarly to the way in which the medical school students of a university use nearby hospital facilities. The primary duty of a municipal public library is to provide library service to the city tax-payers and not to maintain a professional school for librarianship.

It has been the tendency of professional education to center in universities. For example, medical schools before conducted as adjuncts to medical practice or hospital service have now been organized as integral parts of universities. Education for the law has long been primarily under university control. The majority of law schools offer a full-time professional training of three years based on a preliminary education of two years of college work, in some instances requiring a college degree for admission.

The same university affiliations exist in regard to engineering education and pharmaceutical training. Table No. 23 of the "Biennial Survey of Education 1913 - 1920," published by the U. S. Bureau of Education, lists some 124 schools of engineering of which 88 are professional engineering schools in universities, and 29 are attached to colleges, either state or private; and only the remaining 7 are separate technical schools. The same Table No. 23 includes 47 schools of pharmacy. Thirty-eight are departments or schools in universities, six are with state and private colleges, and only three are separate
and independent schools.¹

The same tendency in the direction of affiliation with universities prevails in the preparation for all the other professions. No one can fail to note that education, dentistry, journalism, architecture, and business administration have also become members of the university family. The Temporary Library Training Board has listed 19 library schools. Ten of them connect with universities and colleges, two with institutes, one with an agency for educational extension, and six with public libraries.² Ten out of nineteen library schools are either a department or a school in a university or a college, but unfortunately most of the library schools are not operated on the same basis as the other professional schools of engineering, law, medicine, agriculture, etc. Therefore, in general, librarians as well as laymen have a hazy impression that library schools are connected with public libraries and that some are independent schools, not connected with universities. Such a wrong impression is frequently augmented by the small size of the library school, the paucity of productive scholar-


ship from the instructional staff, and the inferior rank of
the instructional staff in the faculty hierarchy. The
personality of the library school or the department of
library science is often markedly unimpressive to the general
faculty and students, when it should rank with the other
professional schools in the same institution. Local insti-
tutional comment on existing library schools connected with
universities may not directly reveal this fact but it is
made apparent when university administrative councils are
asked officially to allow graduate school credit for
professional library school courses.

The tendency of professional education to center
under university control is, without doubt, correct. Pro-
fessor Robert J. Leonard has exhaustively treated this sub-
ject in his "Trends in Professional Education," an address
delivered at the opening Convocation of Columbia University,
September 24, 1924. As to the reasons for university
affiliation, he says: "Professional schools of yesterday
and to-day have little in common. In the main, professional
schools of yesterday were isolated from all other educational
institutions, under proprietary or commercial control, and,
perforce, colored or dominated by monetary considerations.
In the main, professional schools of to-day are either a
part of, or associated with, our great universities, and
removed thereby from commercial influence...
"What has the development of professional schools within universities meant to the professional schools themselves?

"It has heightened the ideals of professional training and service. It has given impetus to research, without which professional schools soon degenerate into technical schools. It has led to the adoption of curricula of appropriate length, resting upon a sound general education in which the deferred as well as the immediate values are recognized. It has made possible the attraction of scholarly men as instructors. It has attracted students of high intelligence with extensive preparation, who are willing to invest in themselves sufficient time and money for adequate training.

"And so, the university has provided the environment necessary for professional schools to achieve the well-rounded development of which the leaders in each of the professions have dreamed.

"To the universities, the professional schools have made worthy contributions. They have added to the vitality and strength which characterize modern institutions. They have contributed to the assemblage of students thousands of mature men and women of driving purpose and varying interests. Complacency and provincialism have been prevented and broad tolerance and mutual respect developed among student groups. Vital contacts with the current problems of the day have been made possible and productive research
has been fostered. The public belief in higher education has been strengthened greatly ...

"Each decade brings a fuller participation of universities in professional education. The trend is unmistakably toward incorporating within the systems of higher education facilities for education for all professions necessary for the public good. By responding to this trend, our universities are adding new chapters to their usefulness. They have placed culture and professionalism in a co-operative rather than a competitive relation."  

Under the present era of high specialization, library service will also grow more and more highly specialized. In discussing the modern library movement in one of the previous chapters, the tendency for special libraries and special departments of public libraries to develop has been seen to be very strong. In the practice of other professions, specialization in actual work is promptly followed by a similar specialization in the schools for professional education. For instance specialization in medical work has forced medical schools to provide specialized courses. No intelligent patient with appendicitis is willing to have his appendix removed by a general physician. The service of a skilled surgeon is sought. It will be the same sooner or later in library service.

therefore adequate provision for specialized library training should be provided.

Specialized training under any high standard of professional education involves two pre-requisites, broad cultural education and general professional training. Although two of the existing library schools admit only college graduates and give a two year general course, yet it is quite evident that under their present organization they are financially or otherwise unable to handle the problem of training librarians primarily for special libraries.

Let us take the comparatively simple problem of training qualified high school librarians. According to the qualifications outlined in the Report of the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

"The standard requirements for future appointments of librarians in high schools should be a college or university degree with major studies in literature, history, sociology, education, or other subjects appropriate to any special demands, as, for example, those of the technical high school, upon the library. In addition the librarian should have at least one year of post graduate library training in an approved library school and one year's successful library experience in work with young people in a library of
This standard appears high in the light of the fact that at the present time most of the library schools only require that their students be graduates of high schools who can pass entrance examinations, yet it falls below Dr. C. C. Williamson's specifications.

Dr. Williamson emphatically says, "In states that have the best educational standards the high school librarian must have the qualifications of a high school teacher — which means a college degree with special training in education and some graduate study — in addition to a certain amount of professional library training. A college education and one year's study in a library school do not give adequate preparation for high school librarianship. A second year of special preparation is coming to be essential, the course to consist of three elements: (1) special study of high school library problems, supplementing and adapting the general course; (2) special study and training in educational subjects: history of education, educational psychology, and the high school curriculum; (3) extensive field practice, consisting of quite long periods devoted to actual service in well-organized high school libraries under the close supervision and direction of able and experienced

high school librarians. At the end of this second year's work the student would be much better equipped to organize and administer a high school library than he can be at the end of the second year's work in one of the two-year schools at the present time."  

The second year as suggested by Dr. Williamson for the training of high school librarians cannot be had by any student in the existing library schools, for under the present organization these schools have no arrangement which will allow students to major in library training and minor in any study offered by a standard university. Library training in America has reached a place where the entire system requires a re-adjustment. Supposing that a big banking library or a big education library wishes to have an assistant, well versed in library science as well as in some knowledge of banking or of education. To which library can that special library write for such an assistant?  

A person graduated from a special school of a university might go to a graduate library school for one or two and years' study, then be well equipped to fill a position in a special library. It is a possible case, but a very rare one. For, in the first place, any successful graduate of a professional school of a university is not likely to change his profession. In the second place the further investment

in one or two years' additional library training will probably not give him a better financial return after his later graduation from the library school. In the third place if he is not capable of being successful in his special line of work, the present graduate library schools will discourage him from taking up librarianship. Taking all these difficulties into consideration, very few desirable persons who graduate from a professional school of a university will enter a library school, even if there is a great demand for specialized librarians. Furthermore the salary of a librarian of a special library has no particular attraction to many young ambitious persons who already have some professional knowledge of another special calling.

In the main, a person who has already inclined to a certain profession and who has been well grounded in a professional school of a university by years of training will not make a good special librarian. He is apt to be a specialist rather than a special librarian. At the Special Library Association Conference at Ottawa, Canada, June 27, 1912, Mr. A. G. S. Josephson led a discussion as to whether the proper method of making a special librarian is to take a person already a trained librarian and give him the knowledge of a special subject, or to take a specialist on a subject and give him library training, saying at that time:

"It has been said that the librarian of a special library must be a specialist first of all, and only second-
arily a librarian. To this I cannot agree... A librarian must first of all be a librarian. Some persons seem to think that all there is to a librarian is technique, knowledge of the rules and practices that have grown up among libraries and are taught in library schools. This is the very smallest part of a librarian's equipment. No librarian was yet made in the library school alone.

"Take an engineer, or a minister, or a professor of history, let him take a special course in library 'science,' and he will never become anything but an engineer, or a minister, or a professor, any more than a course in a business college would make him an expert accountant unless he possesses the inborn feeling for books, the real scent of the bibliographer."

It seems wisest to the writer neither to take an already trained librarian and give him one or two years' study in a professional school of a special subject, nor to take a specialist on a subject and give him one or two years' library training. As the best solution of the problem and the most satisfactory from both the economic and educational points of view it is proposed to train special librarians in a professional university library school offering both graduate and under-graduate professional courses with an opportunity for further collater-

al study of other special subjects. The accepted applicants of such a school should show adequate pre-requisites in library subjects, general cultural subjects, and a few special subjects, in their four years' under-graduate studies. The curriculum of the graduate year should consist of approximately ten hours of library subjects and five hours of special subjects per week. Under the present organization of the library schools, without closer university affiliation, such an arrangement is impossible.

Some may argue that the schools without university affiliation at all would be able to train special librarians by engaging part-time professors of special subjects. It is a feasible scheme, provided that the library schools are ready to incur the almost prohibitive expense and to establish an educational policy not commonly recognized.

Any one who reads Dr. C. C. Williamson's Report on "Training for Library Service" and the multitudinous comments on it by library school directors and librarians will notice the consensus of opinion that the library schools are in a condition of extreme poverty. The salaries of vice-principals and full-time instructors are so low that teaching positions in a library school have no appeal to ambitious librarians. Consequently the library profession has a constant shortage of able instructors. Therefore the argument for existing library schools to engage part-time specialists to teach certain special subjects is financially an impracticable one.
To have special professors teaching in library schools is logically unsound from an educational viewpoint. Any professional school which attempts to branch out into the unrelated subjects of other professional studies is trying to build a miniature university within its curriculum. Therefore a plan of giving instruction in special subjects by co-operating with educational institutions in the same locality will be much more feasible, though it is inferior to the scheme of close university affiliation.

When a re-adjustment of library schools comes into operation, we will have to take the complex occupational situation and the opportunity for advanced research work into careful consideration. Professor R. J. Leonard said, "Professions, formerly complete units, have been divided, re-divided, and divided again. Each new fractional part of the unit profession has become as extensive and exacting as the profession from whence it originated. As illustrated by the field of dentistry, the development of levels has accompanied this process of division. Dentistry was a unit profession only thirty years ago. Now it embraces at least fifteen different callings representing at least two distinct levels. In the highest level, there is the dentist, the orthodontist, the research dentist, and the dental surgeon. The other level, which may be characterized as the middle level, includes the dental nurse, the dental mechanic, and the dental hygienist.

The same process of subdivision, and the develop-
ment of levels, has occurred in medicine, law, engineering, business administration, and education; in fact, in all the professions...

"We dwell upon these developments because professional schools frequently do not recognize the differentiation between the middle and the higher levels. The failure to recognize this differentiation is one of the gravest problems in professional education. An illustration may be helpful. There is almost universal dissatisfaction with the colleges of agriculture, engineering, and commerce, particularly as found in our state-supported universities. Farmers condemn colleges of agriculture as being too theoretical, and agriculturalists condemn them as too practical. Some engineers condemn colleges of engineering as being too theoretical, others as being too practical. The same criticisms are made of colleges of commerce and business administration. Both types of criticisms should be heeded."

It is equally true in the library profession. Some librarians who condemn the advanced studies of library schools as being useless and theoretical are thinking of the "middle-level occupational groups," chiefly characterized by the need of technical efficiency. Those who criticize the library school graduates as being too mechanic-

al are thinking of the "highest-level professional groups," chiefly characterized by the need of cultural, bibliographical and research studies.

The existing library schools are open to these criticisms, because they have attempted to train both levels, i.e. the "middle-level occupational group" and the "highest-level professional group." In so doing they have struck the average between these two groups and have been unable to fulfill the requirements of either level.

Whenever the re-adjustment of the organization of the present library schools takes place, a clear differentiation between the requirements for these two levels should be made. The graduate library schools in universities should confine their efforts entirely to professional studies of library science and certain specialized subjects, or to advanced research work. To train the librarians of the "middle-level occupational group" is a task for the under-graduate library schools.

That the proper standard of the library profession be advanced, there must be graduate library schools in universities to train for leadership in administration as well as research workers and library school professors. Any profession that lacks the opportunity and facility of training the highest type of practitioners and research workers is bound to sink to the level of a vocation. Comparatively speaking, in research work and professional training, a standard university has a more inspiring atmosphere, better
facilities, and richer opportunities to rub shoulders with various scholars than an isolated professional school. The training for leadership in a profession requires something more than the mere "dishing out" of intensive instruction in the professional technicalities. It requires that the students be given a vision of great usefulness and an appreciation of those humanistic principles which deepen human sympathies. The university professional school is able to impart the broader ideals essential for really advanced professional training much more satisfactorily than the isolated professional school.

This general plea for a university professional school of library training with graduate studies is not new. Mr. W. P. Cutter, Librarian of Arthur D. Little Chemistry Library, Boston, Massachusetts, urged a graduate school for librarians about 20 years ago. He said about a year ago: "I wish to repeat the suggestion which I made in a little leaflet published twenty years ago. I was then giving rather desultory instruction in library work in evening classes at the Library of Congress, with the cordial consent of the Librarian of Congress, and under the nominal auspices of the Columbian (now the George Washington) University. The leaflet in question was prepared at the suggestion of President Whitman of that institution, to summarize the advantages of Washington as a place where
advanced library instruction should be carried on."

In 1910 Miss Mary W. Plummer thought of formulating a university professional school in library training. Her article, "Forecast of the Next Twenty-five Years for Library Schools," seems to have been written to-day and not fifteen years ago. She believed that the level of the library profession would have been perceptibly raised, if it had held certain attractions for mature and cultivated persons who at that time turned to what then seemed to them more scholarly pursuits. She placed her finger on the weak spot of the library schools at that time and suggested a thorough re-adjustment on a larger scale than anything the librarians had tried.

"There are two things that will probably serve as factors to determine the line of development of library schools in this country.... One is, the American tendency toward organization and system, and the other the less distinctively American tendency to supply a state demand.

"Both tendencies are affecting the school-problem to-day, as the demand for specialization grows in extent and intensity. The more intense the need and demand, the greater the pressure on the schools to supply it and the greater their effort to do so; while the greater the variety of demand, the greater the necessity of systematization.

So that, the demand being what it is, the two tendencies work together to meet it.

"Law is law and medicine is medicine, but librarianship is called upon to cover the entire field of knowledge. The medical society wants its librarians used to some extent in medicine; and trained to apply the general principles of librarianship to the medical library; the bar asks for legal knowledge and the same application of principles to the law library. State and city governments are forming their libraries and calling for the application of librarianship to civics and economics. Large manufacturing concerns, laboratories, daily papers, are realizing the necessity of the special library for their needs and demanding trained administrators who shall be also specialists, potential if not actual..."  

Her solution for this dilemma was as follows: "Let the general courses continue for the younger people, for the general work, always having in view the discovery of talents and aptitudes for specializing, and let there be two or three schools in the country, connected with universities and an integral part of them, in which the study of technique and administration may be connected with an outline course in medicine, law, theology, science, pure and applied, civics, child study or whatever other speci-

ality calls for training. A university frequently carries on a course followed by one or two students only, so that a paucity of applicants in any one division of the work would not mean discouragement or bankruptcy."

The discussion in the preceding pages of this chapter tries to bring out the need for professional library schools in connection with universities. In order to re-adjust the existing library schools to the tendencies and needs of the time, closer affiliations of independent library schools with universities have been suggested. Those which have some nominal connections with universities should improve their relations.

This suggestion of affiliation involves practical difficulties. Whether any university wishes to shoulder the responsibility of adopting an existing library school, or conversely whether any existing library school is willing to be a member of a university, is a practical problem. In this respect the board of Education for Librarianship and the Association of American Library Schools can cooperatively exert great influence on the universities as well as on the library schools, provided that the two boards are in agreement as to the principles on which the university professional schools are now organized.

Perhaps some of the existing library schools prefer to be connected with public libraries or with any other agency except a college or university. They can be so connected, provided that they conform to the minimum re-
quirements outlined by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association. Nothing can ruin the standing of a profession so much as to have every school of that profession have its own standards, entrance requirements, and nomenclature. Certain minimum standards outlined and enforced by a professional association and willingly followed by all the professional schools form one of the best guarantees against the development of spurious schools and one of the surest ways of upholding the standard of professional education. For instance the standardization of medical education at the hands of the American Medical Association has been very successful in improving the general standard of the medical profession.

The Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association has formulated provisional minimum standards for four grades of library schools, namely, Junior Under-graduate Library school, Senior Under-graduate Library School, Professional Library School, and Graduate School of Librarianship. This division of the library schools into four classes is somewhat unnatural in scope and confusing in terminology.

Since these provisional minimum standards for library schools have not yet been adopted and are still in the discussion stage, it may not be too late to suggest an alternative scheme. The plan is to change the arbitrary divisions of library schools from four grades into two, namely, Under-graduate Library Schools and Graduate Library
Schools. Both the schools are to be regarded as two distinctive functions of a single unit, under the common name of a library school within the jurisdiction of a university. The status should be like any of the other professional schools of education, business administration, engineering, dentistry, pharmacy, et cetera.

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CHAPTER XII

A Proposed Library School for the
State University of Iowa.

The distribution of professional library schools
in America is more uneven than that of other professional
schools. The eighteen library schools offering not less
than one full academic year of library training are
roughly scattered in five regions. (1) The Pacific coast
has four library schools. (2) The southern states two;
Texas and Georgia have one library school each. (3) The
states around the Great Lakes, Wisconsin, Illinois, and
Ohio have three library schools. (4) The north-eastern
states, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts, take
the lead, having eight library schools. (5) The Missis­
issippi Valley and the great west extending to the Rocky
Mountains have only one library school, which is con­
nected with the St. Louis Public Library, Missouri.

In order to divide the task of training pro­
fessional librarians more evenly, the States between the
Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains should have more
library schools of a high standard. In training for pro­
fessional librarianship this great region is certainly be­
hind the States along the Pacific coast or those along the
northern coast of the Atlantic. Furthermore, local needs
and conditions are important considerations in library
service. For example, many administrative problems of a
medium sized library in the mid-west are different from
those of a library of the same size in the east. Occupations and the environment, which characterize the life of the community are most significant factors in conducting a public library.

The University of Minnesota has seen the need of special librarians for special libraries and has recently established a library school to train librarians for hospital library service. Visits to the principal libraries in Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, and Wisconsin, and the information obtained from several of the prominent librarians of these states, have lead to the conclusion that the States in the Mississippi Valley have need not only of special librarians but also a larger number of "unspecialized" but well-trained librarians. The 1924 reports of the library schools all expressed regret that their facilities, equipment, and quarters did not permit them to take more applicants.

The writer was once asked to give an address at the Des Moines Library Club. After the talk he had the opportunity of meeting many Iowa librarians. During the course of conversation on library conditions of the State, and during the visit to the headquarters of the travelling libraries conducted by the Iowa Library Commission, he was informed that the demand for trained librarians in all types of library work exceeds the supply.

This fact has been further substantiated during recent years by the increasing number of applicants seeking
admission to the summer courses in library training under the auspices of the State University of Iowa. Every summer many universities in America conduct summer schools in library training and all of them are well attended by active and prospective library workers as well as by college students. The new Bulletin of the State University of Iowa on "Summer Courses in Library Training" tells us of the great demand for trained librarians in this part of the country:

"To-day the demand for trained librarians is constantly greater than the supply. Especially opportune is the time for training. The librarian of the old school was a fine scholarly type, more or less - often less - willing to share his treasures with a few like-minded souls. The modern librarian finds himself charged with the responsibilities of an executive, an administrator, and an educator as well as those of a scholar. Trained minds are needed to apply the suggestions being made by those studying the question of the significance of the public library in the new program of adult education. By a wiser choice of material, by dignified publicity, by improved methods of distribution the librarian of to-day endeavors to bring his world of print to the very doors of the public. He is a propagandist for learning and culture."1

1. University of Iowa: Summer Courses in Library Training. Iowa City, April 23, 1925. (Bulletin N.S. no. 317.)
The spring semester of 1925, the University of Iowa offered a new one-hour, one-credit course in "Instruction in the Use of Books and Library Methods" known as Library 2. Immediately after the tentative announcement of this course from the office of the Registrar, 25 students registered in spite of the already crowded schedule of courses offered to under-graduate students of the Liberal Arts College. The registrants were assigned to two sections and were given ample facilities to solve practical problems in this elementary library course. This and the popularity of similar courses elsewhere are illustrations of the fact that college students are beginning to be interested in the comparatively new subject of library science.

Quite evidently the trend is such that the professional library school will be the next addition to the university family in America. Formerly the conception of a university education was limited to the Seven Liberal Arts and it was thought below the dignity of any university to train students in the practical callings of every-day life. This barrier between the academic and the practical has been broken down. To-day educators are realizing that cultural education and professional training in no way conflict with each other, but are two phases of preparation for the same thing - life.

This new movement of harmonizing the academic and the practical in university education has been carried out
in America chiefly by the state universities. It is only in recent years that nearly all universities in this country, including such historical institutions of cultural learning as Harvard and Yale, have extended their curricula to include such subjects as pharmacy, dentistry, business administration, and engineering. In this age of combining professional instruction with cultural studies in universities, no profession fits into the trend of the new movement better than the library profession.

Within this generation the university that is fully conscious of its obligations and of the best educational thought of the time will gladly take the responsibility of training future librarians. Dr. W. N. C. Carlton, the Librarian of Williams College feels that professional library education should most certainly be taught by a university library school. He has expressed the matter thus: "The isolated library school and the library apprentice class, necessary as they have been and still are to meet pressing immediate needs, should eventually become things of the past. Universities should be just as much the cradles and nurseries of librarians as they are of teachers, clergymen, physicians, and lawyers. If the university prepares and equips men and women for positions as principals of city high schools and for the headship of the physics, chemistry, history, mathematics, ancient or modern language departments of such schools, it ought also to prepare the librarian and the chief assistants of the municipal library. We are
rapidly passing out of the pioneer period, the self-taught stage of American librarianship. In the future we shall turn increasingly to the universities for the men and women best qualified to meet the ever widening and always exacting demands made upon our libraries."

No educational institution in the State of Iowa can discharge the responsibility of training professional librarians more adequately than the State University. Besides the reasons discussed in the preceding paragraphs of this chapter, this institution already has the practical facilities, specialized equipment, and in part the personnel for carrying on the work of a professional library school. Its nine colleges, four schools, research station, and extension division, providing training in every major profession and offering the opportunity for research work in all fields makes it able to give the fullest range of training for both general and special librarians. The general library and its many departments already possess a workable collection of general and special reference books, national and subject bibliographies, and books on library science in all its aspects. If the present professional staff of the library were supplemented by an instructional staff with at least one professor, one assistant professor, and three full-time instructors, and should have the co-

operation of the faculties of the other colleges and schools, a full-fledged professional library school with fifty students could be started without difficulty.

Let us assume that a library school is going to be started in this University in September, 1926. The time from September 1925 to the summer of 1926 can be profitably utilized in re-organizing facilities so as to provide a proper seminar room for students, teachers' offices, and class-rooms. A concentrated effort should be made to secure the most competent teachers available anywhere in the country.

The organization, the administration, the qualifications of the instructional staff, the requirements for admission, the courses of studies, and the degrees of the coming library school will be outlined. Certain important financial points involved will be discussed. The various topics will be treated in the form of a general discussion rather than by precise statements, such as are usually seen in the catalogues of colleges and universities. Whenever the writer's opinion is at variance with some of his professional colleagues, reasons for the difference are given.

It has already been argued that any new library school should be connected with an approved degree-conferring institution, preferably with a university which is a member of the Association of American Universities. As regards the detailed organization of a degree-conferring
institution or a university, the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association to which the profession is now looking for advice in these matters will probably feel that it should not specify, because every individual institution has its own characteristics. It is naturally advisable to let a library school be administered in accordance with the general policy of that institution.

A library school can be organized in the State University of Iowa with three purposes; (1) to train students to be administrators of small libraries and assistants of medium size and large libraries; (2) to train students to be special librarians and bibliographers, such as high school librarians, hospital librarians, medical librarians, etc.; (3) to train instructors for library schools. The courses designed for the first and the second purpose will be given respectively to students with standing in the third and the fourth year of the College of Liberal Arts and in the Graduate College. For the third purpose the curriculum should include work in both the undergraduate and the graduate department with parallel courses in the College of Education. This suggested division of the studies of the library school into under-graduate and graduate is more common and simpler than the scheme of four grades outlined by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association. The objections to the scheme of four grades will be discussed elsewhere in connection with the requirements for admission, in the last
chapter.

The chief executive officer of the university library school should be the director of the university library. Some librarians may object to this practice on account of the numerous duties and responsibilities already attached to the office of a university librarian. In case he has also the duties and responsibilities of the head of a library school, it is felt by some that he may not be able to discharge both his duties with thoroughness.

The weakness in this apparently reasonable argument lies in a vagueness as to the meaning of the word, "thoroughness." Does the thoroughness in question mean that the chief executive officer should be thorough in handling every detail of his library, or simply mean that he should be thorough in the main aspects of administration? Every experienced administrator will agree with the meaning of thoroughness as to important functions. The chief duty of the administrator of a department is similar to that of a chief engineer responsible at all times for the proper functioning of the machinery as a result of the expert and intimate contact with its detailed parts by a corps of cooperating expert workmen. The more detailed duties of the director of a university library can well be delegated to an assistant director or an executive secretary, and the more detailed work of a library school can also be taken care of by a secretary. If the staffs of both the university library and the library school are well organized,
the director can discharge all the important functions of both library and school with thoroughness.

Friction and failure in administration frequently result when two or three heads with equal powers and divided responsibilities are filling two or three closely related positions in the same institution. Can any university hope to find a head of a library school and a director of the university library always sure to agree upon theories, policies, and practices in these two necessarily closely co-operating undertakings? An unpleasant result is almost certain to be the outcome of a dual administration of two intimately related units in a university. In fact the university library is the laboratory of a university library school and the actual operation of the former is a demonstration lesson in library administration to the students of the latter. Therefore the director of a university library concurrently holding the office of the head of a university library school will eliminate all possible friction of administration between these two separate yet closely related units of a university.

Some administrative difficulties as to proper relationships between the teaching staff of a university library school and the professional staff of a university library will undoubtedly be experienced. The main difficulty involved is the problem of salary. At present the instructional staff of a university is paid according to a scale which in general is not applied to the professional
staff of a university. Other difficulties are the length of working hours and the privilege of vacations and furloughs.

In most universities departmental heads in the library are treated on the same basis as other members of the administrative staff. Dr. Walter Lichtenstein, formerly librarian of Northwestern University, has remarked on the unequal treatment of professionally trained library assistants in comparison with trained assistants on the teaching staff of universities. "In general, it is not an exaggeration to say that very few library assistants in a university library occupy in reality, whatever it may be on paper, a position at all comparable to that of even the lowest rank of university teachers. In every way they are made to feel the difference. They are tied down to fixed hours, they have shorter vacations, often they do not receive complimentary tickets to university functions as do the university teachers, etc. In short the library assistants are regarded in the same light as are the stenographers, book-keepers, etc., employed by the university, tho the academic training required of the former is far in excess of that required of the usual office employee. The reason for this is not hard to discover. The university teacher is, or wishes to be regarded, as a specialist and as an expert in some field of human knowledge, and he does not regard highly those who have merely a general knowledge and training to offer. Specialization in mechanical and administrative work will not be accepted as a substitute. This may not be right, but we
are not concerned with the question of right or wrong, but with the actual state of affairs, whether right or wrong. The result then is that those who have the necessary qualifications as specialists will seek for those positions which will place them on a pedestal in their communities and where they will have long vacations, easy hours, title and rank, and compared to the salaries in libraries, a good salary."

In case both the library school and the university library are under the administration of one director, it is impossible for him to run his administration successfully on two bases of salaries and other privileges, one for the teaching staff of the library school and the other for the professional staff of the library. The former will be treated as on a par with the instructional staff of the university and the latter will be classed with the general administrative staff in spite of their professional training and experience.

Some suggest that the teaching in the university library school can be solely carried on by the university library staff. To this suggestion, though it is worthy of consideration, there are several objections. Generally the professional staff of a university library is not large enough to teach the various subjects in the curriculum of a

library school including both under-graduate and graduate studies. Some of the professional assistants of a university library may know their work well, but will not necessarily have the ability to teach.

Instruction given by professional assistants of a university library will have the value of theoretical teaching combined with practical experience. But after balancing up the defects and advantages, the writer feels that it is for a university library school to have a separate instructional staff whose qualifications, experiences, and abilities for scholarly work are on a par with the instructional staff of other professional schools. The professional assistants of the university library can be asked to give lectures on special topics and to supervise the students' practice work, but should not act as regular instructors and professors of the library school.

As regards the salary problem and the question of privileges for the professional assistants of a university library and the teachers of a university library school, an equitable solution may be worked out from the present anomalous situation by introducing a new salary schedule. It should be in such a form that it is applicable to both teachers of the library school and professional assistants of the university library. What types of service the trained librarians can render should not be considered as the primary factor in framing a salary schedule. For example it is a poor and unjust policy to pay an instructor in the
university library school more than the reference librarian of the university library. The salary schedule for trained librarians should be framed in accordance with the amount of exact qualifications in the way of liberal and professional training received, the length of successful experience in library service, and a certain amount of recognition accorded to meritorious work. In case a highly specialized librarian with very broad educational background and experience is needed as a reference librarian of a university departmental library, his salary should not be that of an ordinary departmental librarian, but that of a professor of a special subject. In short the exact qualifications of an individual should determine his rank and the amount of salary he is to receive, and it is not the type of position that should determine how much a person should be given. Of course it is understood that the qualifications needed for every important position should be definitely defined. For instance, if the position of a university reference librarian requires higher qualifications in training, experience and meritorious work than those of an assistant professor of a university library school, the salary for the former should be larger than that of the latter. This method may be able to eliminate the existing difficulties of the salary problem between the instructional staff of a university library school and the professional staff of a university library.

The number of working hours and the length of vacations sometimes constitute another source of friction
between the instructional staff of a library school and the professional staff of a university library though in certain instances the inequalities are more apparent than real. There is a big difference between the forty to forty-four hours weekly schedule of the professional library staff in comparison with the twelve to fifteen hours' class-work per week of a library school instructor.

One month's annual vacation for the former and three months' annual vacation for the latter add another issue to the debate over the unequal treatment of the trained professional assistants of a library in comparison with library school teachers.

On the other hand a full-time instructor sometimes has to spend more than forty hours per week in preparation for his teaching. Generally one hour's class-room lecture with preparation is considered at least the equivalent of two hours. Therefore fifteen hours' class-room work per week will amount to about thirty hours. If we include time spent in individual conferences with students and in revising students' work, an instructor will probably devote more than forty hours per week to his teaching. But to a certain extent it is true that a teacher is freer in arranging his hours. A zealous teacher may devote much time and energy to conferring with his students and have great interest in watching their progress in a subject. He is not only a teacher in a professional subject but an example and adviser to the students in their conduct, thought and
life. Therefore a teacher's * time cannot be quantitatively measured.

Regarding the annual vacation, it is a matter of insignificant difference. Some universities only pay their instructional staff ten months' salary for nine months' instructional service. The administrative staff of professional grade receives twelve months' salary for eleven months' work. Under such practice there is no injustice between the instructional staff of a university library school and the professional staff of a university library. In case the instructional staff of a university library school receives twelve months' salary for nine months' work, the professional staff of a university library should be remunerated accordingly.

In the matter of leaves of absence and other privileges there should be the same treatment for the instructional staff of a library school and the professional staff of a library. Although the question of salary, the number of office hours, vacation, and leave of absence are significant topics in view of the important mission and service of each professionally trained librarian in an educational institution, yet these small things are often very provoking. Therefore an administrator on the one hand should attempt to eliminate as completely as possible such * his causes of irritation in an organization, and on the other hand should try to develop the esprit de corps of the professional staff of his library and of the instructional staff of his
library school so that inevitable differences will cause a minimum of irritation.

The qualifications of the instructional staff of the library school at the State University of Iowa should at least be on a par with those of the other professional schools of the institution, if a library school is to be established here. The emphasis should be laid upon academic and professional training, practical experience, and ability to teach and to do research work. To be specific, the minimum qualifications of an instructor of a library school should be that he is a graduate of a standard university; a graduate from an approved graduate library school offering two years' professional library training; that he has had three years' successful experience in at least a medium sized library; and done some creative work, either literary or bibliographical. The success of a library school depends upon the quality of the instructional staff. The responsibility of a teacher in a professional library school is great, for he must teach not only the mastery of professional technique but also the true meaning of library service so that the library school graduate can take his proper place in that group of professional workers which Dr. Learned has ingeniously characterized as "the new clergy of the mind," the "community's intelligence service."
Selected Bibliography


University of the State of Iowa: Summer Courses in Library Training. Iowa City, April 23, 1925. (Bulletin N. S. no. 317 )


CHAPTER XIII

Requirements for Admission, Degrees and Curriculum for a Library School.

A number of prominent librarians present at the meeting of the Board of Education for Librarianship in Chicago on April 16, 1935, favored a scheme proposing four grades of library schools. The requirements for admission to the first grade, "Junior Under-graduate Library School,"¹ would be (1) a year's acceptable freshman studies in an approved college or university, (2) at least two months of satisfactory general experience in an approved library, or its equivalent, and (3) an aptitude and personal qualification for library work. The second grade of school, "Senior Under-graduate Library School," would require items (2) and (3) of the "Junior Under-graduate Library School," but item (1) concerning college education, would be raised to three years of acceptable work in an approved college or university instead of one year of freshman studies.

Both the Junior and the Senior Under-graduate Library Schools would have the same one-year curriculum in

¹. American Library Association: Provisional Minimum Standards for Library Schools. (mimeographed by the Board of Education for Librarianship.) This provisional document is not to be printed, and was distributed only for discussion by the members who were present at the meeting of April 16, 1925.
library science. After the satisfactory completion of the professional studies of the year, the graduates of the "Junior Under-graduate Library School" would be given a certificate and the graduates of the "Senior Under-graduate Library School" a degree of A.B. or B.S. They would probably not lack employment by libraries and we assume that their remuneration would be in accordance with their academic standing, whether certificate-holders or diploma-holders.

This division of the under-graduate library school into the grades of junior and senior involves, perhaps, slightly ambiguous nomenclature. The ordinary academic use of "junior" is in reference to a student in the third year's college work, and the word is much less frequently applied to a college offering only two years' collegiate work (junior college.) The "Junior Under-graduate Library School" requires only one year of freshman work and another year of professional studies in library science. This much-discussed standard for a new professional senior under-graduate library school, then, does not much improve the standard of the existing one-year library schools. The only difference from the existing one-year "accredited" library schools is that it will not admit the mere high school graduate. According to the current reports of the existing "accredited" schools, high school graduates who are able to pass the entrance examinations successfully constitute only a small percentage among entering students.
The weakness of the new scheme lies in having no differentiation in professional education between the students of the Junior and the Senior Under-graduate Library Schools. If the libraries recognize the distinction and pay the salary of a diploma-holder and of a certificate-holder on a different basis, will the two years of college education make so great a difference in the quality of professional work that any administrator will be justified in distinguishing quite materially in matters of salary and rank between the two grades of graduates? If the graduates of the "Senior Under-graduate Library School" do not show decided superiority in professional work, a fair administrator will hesitate to make any distinction in salary and rank between the graduates of the Junior and the "Senior School. This will eventually lead more students having one year of college work to enter the "Junior School" and will discourage ambitious students of senior standing from entering the "Senior School." It will not be felt that two extra years of college education will yield a bigger financial return in the practice of the library profession. Furthermore we must remember that most of the professional schools in universities recruit students of junior that is, third-year standing. And it would place the "Senior School" in a disadvantageous position in recruiting students if the "Junior School" were to offer exactly the same curriculum of professional studies.

A scheme for an under-graduate library school of
two years at the State University of Iowa was proposed in
the last chapter. The requirements for admission are as
follows: (1) Two years of the standard course in liberal
arts of an approved college or university, evidenced by a
transcript of the college record, (2) Two months of satis-
factory experience in a medium-sized library, or its
equivalent, (3) A reading knowledge of two foreign languages,
(4) Ability to use a typewriter.

In exceptional cases, applicants over twenty-five
years of age who are high school graduates and have been
successful library assistants in medium-sized libraries for
five or more years, but who are unable to meet the full re-
quirements of the first two years' college work, may be
admitted by special permission of the faculty of the
Library School and of the College of Liberal Arts upon pre-
senting sufficient evidence of exceptional ability to justi-
fy such action. Applicants so admitted should have a
probational period of one academic year. If the work and
ability of such applicants at the end of the probational
period prove to be above the average, they might then be per-
mitted to carry on the work of the senior year. Applicants
for admission under these conditions should be discouraged,
as the requirement of two years of college education is based
on the belief that this is for the best interests of the
students as well as for the standards of the library pro-
fession. Therefore all prospective applicants for the
Library School are urged to equip themselves with the two
years of preliminary education.

The degree of Bachelor of Arts of Bachelor of Science in Library Science is conferred upon the satisfactory completion of one hundred and twenty semester hours, exclusive of credits gained for military and physical training and for freshman lectures. In addition to the requirements of the freshman and sophomore years, the candidate must fulfill the specific requirements of thirty-four semester hours of the Library School Course. (See suggested curricula in Appendix I.) The twenty-eight semester hours for the junior and senior years may be elected, by arrangement, from courses of the College of Liberal Arts or of any of the other colleges and schools in this University, subject to the approval of the students' adviser in the Library School.

The Graduate School for librarianship, should require for admission (1) Graduation with an A.B. or B.S. degree in library science from an approved library school, (2) At least one year of first-class library experience. In exceptional cases candidates without the degree from an approved library school may be admitted for an advanced degree. This exception is provided in order not to close the doors of professional library education to the "original genius" type. Any exceptional candidate without the preliminary degree admitted to the Graduate Library School must amply substantiate his admittance by the excellence of his work.

If any experienced and prominent librarian with or
without the first degree of an approved library school, does not desire to work for a degree, he may be admitted to elect any advanced courses for which he is prepared, and will be classified as a special student and not as a candidate for a degree.

In all the above cases, the head and the instructional staff of the Library School are held responsible for the arrangement and approval of the study-schedules of all the candidates admitted to the Graduate Library School. The head must study the qualifications of every individual student, observe the progress of his work in major and minor studies, and confer with him from time to time about his specialization and research.

Every candidate for the degree of M.A. or M.S. in library science shall satisfactorily complete twenty semester hours in professional library courses as his major and ten semester hours of other special and professional courses as his minor. For instance, one who desires to be a high school librarian can register his ten semester hours in the College of Education as his minor, in addition to his major studies in library science. A thesis or a bibliography showing independent scholarship, creative thought, and intensive study of a special topic in the realm of library science, shall be submitted. After passing successfully both written and oral final examinations and after the acceptance of the thesis by the graduate faculty, the degree of M.A. or M.S. in library science will be granted to the
candidate.

The degree of Doctor of Philosophy will be open to the graduate students of the Library School. A student shall choose a programme of study, subject to faculty approval, along the line of his special interest. He shall have a thorough knowledge of a special subject and also a marked capacity for research. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy shall be conferred upon a graduate student of the Library School in accordance with all the requirements and regulations of the Graduate College of this University governing the granting of this degree.

In studying the "Provisional Minimum Standards for Junior Under-graduate Library School, Senior Under-graduate Library School, Professional Library School and Graduate School of Librarianship" outlined by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association, we have seen that divisions of the first two grades of Library schools are somewhat ambiguously named and that the standards suggested are open to question. It may not be out of place to continue with a few remarks about the name and the standards suggested for the "Professional Library School" in connection with our present discussion of requirements and degrees for a graduate library school.

The requirements for admission to the "Professional
Library School require (1) graduation from an approved college or university, (2) at least two months of satisfactory general experience in an approved library or its equivalent, and (3) aptitude and personal qualifications for library work, and demonstrated ability to pursue profitably the curriculum. Items (2) and (3) are the same as the requirements for admission to the Junior and the Senior Under-graduate Library Schools. After the satisfactory completion of the professional study of the first year a certificate will be given to the candidate, and at the end of the second year a degree of Master of Arts or Master of Science will be granted.

The name "Professional Library School" is ambiguous. The word "Professional" is a generic name and its range should include under-graduate as well as graduate library school. It is not for this particular grade of library training to monopolize the name "Professional," otherwise the Junior and the Senior Under-graduate Library Schools might be appropriately designated as sub-professional library schools, and the Graduate School for Librarianship for discussion by the members who were present at the meeting of April 16, 1925.

2. American Library Association: Provisional Minimum Standards for Library Schools. (mimeographed by the Board of Education for Librarianship) This provisional document is not to be printed and was distributed only for discussion by the members who were present at the
might be spoken of as a super-professional library school.

If the "Professional Library School" is graduate in character, the curriculum of the first year should not be practically the same as that of the under-graduate library schools; but such work could better be a pre-requisite. Only candidates who are graduates from the standard library schools with A.B. or B.S. degrees in library science who have this pre-requisite should be admitted to carry on another year's study in advanced library courses and some specialized courses in other professional schools of a standard university. After the satisfactory completion of a year's specialized studies and the acceptance of a thesis or of a bibliography by the faculty, the degree of M.A. or M.S. in library science might be granted to the candidates.

The "Provisional Minimum Standard" for the "Professional Library School" which demands one more year for the degree of M.A. or M.S. than the other graduate schools of American universities will prove most disadvantageous in recruiting graduate students. The curriculum of the first year has no more advanced quality and character than that of the under-graduate library schools. Prospective candidates for the degree of M.A. or M.S. will have the impression that the school is trying to raise its standard to that of a professional graduate school merely by incorporating an extra year's work.

The second item in the requirements for admission to the "Professional Library School" lays too little stress
on practical experience. A year of general experience in a medium-sized or a large library should be required of every candidate who desires to enroll in a professional graduate library school for an advanced degree.

The entire scheme lacks any ascending features in the courses offered in the Junior and the Senior Undergraduate Library Schools and the first year of the Professional Library School. The same professional curriculum of one year will be studied in three different schools supposed to provide three different grades of professional knowledge.

One of the main criticisms against the existing library schools of one year is that they put college graduates, college students, and high school graduates in the same class-room to pursue the same library studies. Now, the provisional scheme outlined by the Board of Education for Librarianship puts students of sophomore standing in the "Junior Undergraduate Library School," students of senior standing in the "Senior Undergraduate Library School," and college graduates in the "Professional Library School," but although these students with different educational background are separated, in three different schools, yet they study the same professional library course, for which they will receive different credentials namely, "Junior Undergraduate Library School" certificate, "Senior Undergraduate Library School" diploma of A.B. or B.S. in Library Science, and "Professional Library School" first year certificate.
The library profession needs to have a co-ordinated system of ascending character in professional education. The standards of the outstanding professional schools of law, medicine, engineering, teaching, and others are fixed according to the major factor of quality and scope of the professional studies given in the schools and the minor or auxiliary factor of general and cultural education involved in the system. Therefore in formulating the standards of the two types of professional library schools, the successful principles followed by the other professional schools are worthy to be taken into careful consideration.

The writer has the belief that the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association is going to have a thorough revision of the provisional scheme outlined in the discussion by the librarians and educational experts at the meeting of April 16, 1925 at Chicago. Such experienced and scholarly educators as Dean Russell of Columbia University and such experts in curriculum construction as Professor W. W. Charters of the University of Pittsburgh are now asked to serve on the Board of Education for Librarianship as expert-advisers. So a workable scheme for library education in America may be anticipated. May the final scheme of the Board of Education for Librarianship form a solid foundation for professional library education for the future!

The curriculum of a library school - in fact any professional school - should be constructed with three
fundamental aims, specialized knowledge, technical skill and high ideals. Dean James Earl Russell of Columbia University emphasized the fundamental requisites of a curriculum for a professional school in his address delivered at the inauguration of Dr. Lotus D. Coffman as president of the University of Minnesota: "In its curriculum it should strive to organize and systematize the knowledge available in its particular field so that its students may get the essential facts needed at the beginning of their career; in its teaching it should give inspiration to creative effort and altruistic service; and at some stage of its training provision must be made for gaining technical skill. The pedagogical problems of all professional schools grow out of these three fundamental requisites. These factors, however, are all variable quantities. A professional school may be acceptable in general and yet be weak in one or more of these essentials. The ideals that guide the faculty may be rightly conceived, and yet fail to function in the lives of students and graduates. The knowledge gained in course may be defective because of lack of scholarship on the part of instructors, want of intelligence in students, or through bad teaching. Technical skill may be purchased at too great a cost, or neglected to the point of leaving graduates helpless on entering their vocational employment. Right proportion in the adjustment of these essentials is the crux of
administration in every type of professional school."  

The specialized knowledge of the library profession should be so organized and systematized that, within the minimum period of time, the maximum amount of the essential knowledge of the profession can be mastered. This means two definite things in the making of a curriculum, namely, (1) that it be not crowded with non-essential courses in professional subjects, (2) that emphasis be put upon the completion of pre-requisite courses for any advanced work. For example, a student in a graduate library school wishing to specialize in bibliographical cataloguing should have a thorough knowledge of general cataloguing as a pre-requisite.

As to technical skill we all know that every profession demands a certain amount of either manual or clerical work. For instance, in medicine, a skilled surgeon knows how to place a bandage when the interne or the nurse is not around. When and how much the teaching of technical skill should be introduced in the curriculum of a professional school is the keynote of the question.

The length of time spent on it, the nature of it, and the method of teaching technical skill vary in various professional schools. For instance, schools of law,

medicine, and engineering give their students competent instruction in professional subjects and some instruction in technical skill, but leave them to acquire thorough technical skill in an office, a hospital or a machine-shop under the guidance and instruction of a skilled master. In other professions such as teaching, agriculture and social work, the graduates of the schools must make good the first day on the job. The writer feels that the library profession is similar to that of teaching, agriculture, and social work. Every library employing a library school graduate expects that he or she possess technical skill as well as specialized knowledge. Instruction imparting a certain amount of technical skill should surely be provided in the curriculum of a professional library school.

To build the curriculum of a professional school and include only the minimum essentials of specialized knowledge and technical skill without consideration of any of the interpretative subjects necessary for the cultivation of high ideals, is surely undesirable. Certain cultural subjects which will broaden the vision and stimulate ideals in human relationships should be included in the curriculum of a professional library school.

The importance of having cultural subjects in the curriculum of professional schools has been strongly emphasized by Professor V. T. Thayer of Ohio State University and Professor R. J. Leonard of Columbia. In his article "Training Teachers for the Profession of Teaching,"
Professor Thayer remarks, "Democracy is not opposed to specialization except as the latter is specialization and nothing else. Democratic education involves knowing and doing one thing well, but with a full appreciation of its intimate implications in a larger context. So a democratic system of teacher training involves that type of procedure which leads the teacher to specialize in her tasks but to bring into this specialization an enriched background. Thus will her daily duties continually take on new meaning and significance and her intellectual horizon constantly expand."  

Professor R. J. Leonard gives a special name to the group of cultural subjects in the curriculum of a professional school. He calls them "Marginal responsibilities" in his article "Trends in Professional Education." He says: "To be appropriate for the professions, occupational analyses must include what may be characterized as marginal responsibilities. By way of contrast with technical responsibilities they are of a higher order, more remote and less concrete. But it is obvious that they have meaning and reality, and they are present in every profession. In the medical profession, they may be illustrated by the physician's responsibility to combat quackery.

and public exploitation by those improperly prepared, to promote social hygiene, sex education, and community health and recreation, and to use his matchless opportunities to foster home and family integrity. In business administration, we may mention business ethics, problems growing out of the increasing jurisdiction of state and nation in private enterprise, and questions arising from complex and involved international relations. In addition to these marginal responsibilities in all the professions there are the common problems of civic leadership which society has a right to expect from all graduates of professional schools."

Those librarians, who are interested in the movement to reorganize professional library schools according to the principles which have successfully governed the development of some of the other professional schools, are naturally anxious to be certain as to the most essential specialized courses in library science, the irreducible minimum of technical skill, and the indispensable "marginal responsibilities" for cultural subjects, to be included in the ideal professional library school. About a decade ago, library school instructors and experienced librarians would probably have talked through a whole day's meeting and eloquently presented subject after subject. Everyone would

Teachers College Record. 26:182-183. Nov. 1924.
have felt that his proposed subject was the most important and the most useful study for the student. Those who would have argued most convincingly would have been successful in having their proposed subjects adopted by the meeting. There was danger of this becoming the general practice in building up curricula of professional schools in former days. In 1925, however, experienced librarians and library school instructors can present their experiences and views to be considered as factors to determine "the functional point of view" of a curriculum, as Professor W. W. Charters acutely emphasized it in his talk, "Formulating Curricula standards for Library Schools," at the April meeting of the Board of Education for Librarianship already mentioned.

The essential element in determining "the functional point of view" of the professional subjects of library schools is to collect and to study facts and ideals. Then the functions of the subjects can be determined and the studies which will tend to realize the functions can be formulated. These methods of "job specifications" can even be carried into neighboring fields of cultural subjects. Professor Charters illuminates this point thus: "In the absence of definite methods for prescribing the extra-vocational material the tendency is to fall back upon those traditional subjects which appeal to any particular faculty. The difficulty is very well illustrated by the inquiry from a professional faculty as follows: 'We have arranged for all our
professional curriculum except nine hours, which we have left for cultural subjects, and we should like to know what these should be.' In this case consensus of opinion was used. But it is generally much better to analyze extra-vocational activities, and make eventual selection on the ground not of how many or how few hours a subject will require, but rather of how much it will be in the students' extra-vocational life.  

In spite of knowing the superior advantages in formulating curricula for library schools strictly in accordance with the scientifically objective method of occupational analysis, the writer feels compelled to follow the older traditional method and to formulate two curricula for a professional library school, including under-graduate and graduate studies, in the State University of Iowa. It is hoped that these curricula, which are the representative expression of only one man's training, experience, and study of the problems of training for professional librarianship, may be of some slight assistance to the specialists who are going to collect the occupational facts and ideals of library service and to interpret them in terms of the functional theory of scientific curriculum construction for a professional library school.

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   of the Professional Training Section at the Forty-
   Sixth Annual Conference of American Library Associ-
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Appendix I. Suggested Curricula for both Graduate and Under-graduate Work in the Library School

Appendix II. A Proposed Budget
Suggested Curriculum for the Proposed Library School at the State University of Iowa.


1. Each junior student must earn 32 semester hours credits in the junior year. Of these 18 semester hours must be in the Library School and 14 semester hours may be earned in any of the under-graduate courses of any of the colleges of the University for which the student is qualified.

2. Each senior student must earn 30 to 32 semester hours credits in the senior year. Credits of 16 to 18 semester hours must be gained in the Library School and credits of 14 semester hours may be earned in any of the under-graduate courses of any of the colleges of the University for which the student is qualified.

3. The courses other than library school courses elected from other Colleges of the University should be subject to the approval of the faculty advisers of the Library School.

**Junior Year**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library Courses:</th>
<th>Credit Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Lib.1 Classification</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.3 Cataloguing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.5 Reference</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.7 Library Technique</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Non-Professional Courses:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Modern language</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Electives from other Colleges</td>
<td>5</td>
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### I Library Courses:

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.(4)Cataloguing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.(6)Reference</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.12 Field Work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.14* American Library Movement 2 hrs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.16* Selection of Books</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.18* Library Administration</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(2 semester hours must be elected from this group)</em></td>
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### II Non-Professional Courses:

<table>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Electives from other Colleges</td>
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**Senior Year**

**Credit Hours**

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<td>Lib.31 Bibliography</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.33 Field Work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.35* Classification</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.37* Reference</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.39* Selection of Books</td>
<td>3 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.41* Work with Children</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lib.43* Cataloguing</td>
<td>2 hrs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Courses marked with an asterisk are electives.*
II Non-Professional Courses
3 electives from other colleges 7

15 - 16

Suggested Curriculum: B - for Graduates
1. Candidates for the advanced degree of M.A. or M.S. in Library Science should fulfill all the requirements of the Graduate College and present credits of 30 semester hours. Credits of 20 semester hours must be earned in the graduate department of the Library School and credits of 10 semester hours may be earned in any graduate department of the University.

* Courses marked with an asterisk are electives.
3. Candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy are re­quired to take at least 60 semester hours after receiving the advanced degree of M.A. or M.S. in Library Science. Credits to the amount of 40 semester hours should be gained in the graduate department of the Library School and credits to the amount of 20 semester hours may be gained in any graduate department of the University. Approximately one­ third to one­half of the 40 semester hours in the Library School may be devoted to work on a dissertation, or a complete or select bibliography of a particular subject or author. The bibliography should involve work comparable to that involved in preparing a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. As to the other re­quirements and conditions for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, see the detailed regulations of the graduate College.

3. The minors elected from other departments of the University should be subject to the approval of the faculty advisers of the Library School.

Outlines of Courses for Graduates

I  Library Courses:

Lib.201 (202) Advanced Library Administration,

Individual Instruction  2 – 30 hrs

1. Large Public Libraries and County Libraries
2. High School Libraries
3. College and University Libraries
4. Business Libraries

5. Special Libraries (a) Medical, (b) Hospital, (c) Law, (d) Engineering, (e) Scientific, (f) Educational

Lib.203 (204) Special Subject Bibliography

Individual Instruction 2 hrs

Lib.205 (206) Prints and Book Illustration 3 hrs

Lib.207 (216) History of Scholarship 3 hrs
Lib.207 (216) Palaeography and Diplomatic 3 hrs
Lib.211 (216) Advanced Cataloguing 2 hrs

Lib.213 (214) Library School Teaching 3 hrs

Lib.215 (216) Bibliographical Problems 2 hrs

Description of Courses

Lib. 1 Classification  Junior. 1st semester  2 hrs

Lib.35 Classification  Senior. 1st semester  3 hrs
A hasty review of the principles underlying Decimal Classification will be given at the beginning of the course. Comparative study of different systems of book classification and their schemes of notation will be discussed. Special emphasis laid on the system of the Library of Congress, The Brussels Insti-
tute, on Cutter's Expansive Classification and on Brown's Subject Classification. During the course the necessary differences between a classification for books in libraries and a theoretical classification of all knowledge will be discussed.

Lib. 3 (4) cataloguing  Junior. 1st semester  3 hrs
                    "  2nd  "    2 hrs
Lectures, problems and practice work confined to the making of a dictionary catalogue. Assigning subject headings and the use of cross references studied as problems of cataloguing. Using and ordering Library of Congress printed catalogue cards and shelf-listing are included. Each student is required to make a sample dictionary catalogue of 200 books.

Lib. 43 (44) Cataloguing  Senior. 1st and 2nd semester  2 hrs
Lectures, problems and practice work giving consideration to the classed catalogue; followed by the cataloguing of federal and municipal documents, pamphlets and sheet music. Students who elect this course must have as a pre-requisite Cataloguing Lib. 3 (4)

Lib. 5 (6) Reference  Junior. 1st and 2nd semester  2 hrs
A study of general and special encyclopaedias, dictionaries, annuals, year-books, atlases and indexes to periodicals. Familiarity in using general and special reference books and a knowledge of their relative importance are emphasized. Exercises in the
use of reference books follow each lecture.

Lib.37 (38) **Reference** Senior. 1st and 2nd semester 2 hrs
This course is to prepare students especially for the problems of the reference departments of college, university and large public libraries. It includes a study of publications of learned societies, dissertations, indexes to foreign periodicals and government publications. Administration of a reference department and the compilation of reference lists and bibliographies are discussed in detail.

Lib. 7 **Library Technique** Junior. 1st semester 2 hrs
Principal topics: Alphabeting, loan systems, inventory, checking of periodicals, care of pamphlets and clippings, order and accession work and library labor-saving devices.

Lib.12, 33 **Field Work** Junior. 2nd semester 1 hr
Senior. 1st semester 1 hr
Carefully graded and closely supervised field work will be assigned to the junior and senior students in every department of the University libraries and the City Public Library. Three hours' field work per week throughout a semester is equivalent to one semester hour's credit.

Lib.10 **Bibliography** Junior. 2nd semester 2 hrs
Lectures and Problems on American, English, French, Italian, German, and Scandinavian national and trade bibliography. Students are required to compile a
selected list of bibliographies for a medium sized public library.

Lib.31 **Bibliography** Senior. 1st semester 3 hrs
Lectures and problems on subject bibliographies of the scholarly, monumental type. Scope, limitations, and utility of subject bibliography are fully discussed.

Lib.14 **American Library Movement** Junior. 2nd semester 3 hrs
A study of the development, organization, personnel, characteristics and tendencies of library work in the United States. Includes a bird's-eye view of different types of libraries, library associations, library commissions and library training agencies.

Lib.16 **Selection of Books** Junior. 2nd semester 3 hrs
Aims to cultivate students' power of judging books as to their value and adaptability to various types of libraries and readers. Comparison of translations of the classics and foreign fiction, series and editions. The writing of book-notes and book reviews required. Careful examination and rapid reading of books on a wide range of subjects emphasized.

Lib.39 **Selection of Books** Senior. 1st semester 3 hrs
Similar to Selection of Books Lib.16. An analytical survey of modern and contemporary drama, poetry, fiction, essays, science, technology and philosophy, from the viewpoint of selecting books for libraries. Checking Publishers' Weekly, Publishers' Circular,
Booklist, Book Review Digest and second-hand and bargain catalogues of book-dealers required as a demonstration work in the problems of selecting books for different types of libraries.

Lib.18 **Library Administration** Junior and Senior.

2nd semester 2 hrs

Lectures, problems and required reading. Principal topics: Library buildings, Library budget, accounts and book-keeping, personnel problems, publicity, library and community, library supplies, statistics, annual reports, boards of trustees and other administrative problems.

Lib.41 (42) **Work with Children** Senior. 1st and 2nd semester 2 hrs

Lib.46  **History of Libraries**  Senior. 2nd semester  3 hrs
Lectures and required reading. This extensive course includes ancient, medieval and modern libraries with special attention to their collectors and keepers, and to their management and buildings.

Lib.48  **Printing and Binding.**  Senior. 2nd semester  2 hrs
This course has two parts. Part I. Printing, including technical terms, hand and machine composition, specifications, paper, design, illustration and proof-reading. Aims to make students understand intelligently the processes of printing. Lectures, problems, and required reading, are supplemented by inspections of printing plants. Part II. Binding, including technical processes, binding materials, rebinding, mending, binding records, appearance and cost. Lectures and required readings are supplemented by visits to a bindery.

Lib.50  **Library Extension**  Senior. 2nd semester  1 hr
Study of methods and problems of branch libraries, deposit stations, rural libraries, travelling libraries, rural delivery by book automobile, and smaller agencies. Lectures, discussions and required reading.

Lib.201 (202)  **Advanced Library Administration. Individual Instruction**  graduates. 1st and 2nd semester  2-30 hrs
This course is designed to give prospective library administrators as much training as their time and
ability permit. Any student may study intensively any type of library administration by individual instruction in the following types:
1. Large Public Libraries and County Libraries
2. High School Libraries
3. College and University Libraries
4. Business Libraries including industrial libraries
5. Special Libraries including
   (a) Medical libraries
   (b) Hospital libraries
   (c) Law libraries
   (d) Engineering libraries
   (e) Scientific libraries
   (f) Educational libraries

Lib.203 (204) Special Subject Bibliography, Individual Instruction
Graduates. 1st and 2nd semester 2 hrs
This course is planned to train the student through familiarity with the important sources of information on any subject or subjects which are closely connected with the type of advanced library administration in which he specializes. Every individual case will be specially arranged by the head of the library school with the deans and heads of other departments. It may be taken preferably in connection with a subject given by a professional college or a school of the University.
Lib.205 (206) **Prints and Book-Illustration**  Graduates, 1st and 2nd semester  3 hrs

This course has three distinctive parts. Part I. Lectures and discussions on the early history and development of writing materials such as papyrus and vellum, and paper making. Part II. A study of block books, movable type and the evolution of the printed book from manuscript forms. Lectures and required reading on the spread of printing in Germany, Italy, France, Holland, Spain and England with emphasis on the great printers of different periods. Part III. An extensive study covering early woodcuts, engravings, etchings, mezzotint, line engraving and lithography for book illustration. The lives of the leading illustrators are also included.

Lib.207 (208) **History of Scholarship.**  Graduates. 1st and 2nd semester  3 hrs

This extensive course is designed to train students through familiarity with the history of scholarship of six different groups: Latin, Greek, Biblical, Teutonic, Celtic and Romance Scholarship. Lectures and required readings.

Lib.209 (210) **Paleography and Diplomatics**  Graduates 1st and 2nd semester  3 hrs

This course is designed to meet the needs of those
who wish to study problems in the origin and
classification of writing, manuscripts, technical
chronology, numismatics, sigillography and
mediaeval linguistics.

Lib. 311 (212) Advanced Cataloguing Graduates 1st and
2nd semester 2 hrs
Comparative study of cataloguing rules and methods.
Administrative problems of a large catalogue
department. Cataloguing incunabula, collections
of coins, pottery, bronze, pictures, jewelry and
other miscellaneous objects and curios, is the main
practice work. No regular library school student
is permitted to elect this course, unless he has
as pre-requisites Cataloguing Lib. 3 (4) and Lib.
43 (44).

Lib. 313 (214) Library School Teaching Graduates 1st and
2nd semester 3 hrs
This course aims to train students to be library
school instructors. Emphasis is laid upon (1)
methods and preparation of subject-matter, (2)
selection and organization of the content to be
taught, (3) testing or measuring results, (4)
principles of teaching chiefly applied to library
schools. Any library school graduate student
who aims to be a library school teacher is re-
quired to take his minor in the College of Edu-
cation.
Lib.215 (216) Bibliographic Problems Graduates 1st and 2nd semester 2 hrs

A complete or select bibliography of a particular subject or author. The result should be comparable to a master's thesis. The mere fulfillment of two credit hours throughout the year spent in its preparation is not the primary basis for acceptance. It is required of any candidate for an advanced degree of M.A. or M.S. in library science who does not elect to prepare a thesis as an alternative. The subject chosen should be subject to the approval of the head of the Library School.

The non-professional and professional courses of other colleges, schools and departments of the University, see the Catalogue of the University of Iowa.
APPENDIX II

A Budget for the Proposed Library School at the University of Iowa

The proposed budget consists of two divisions. Division A, with its four main sub-divisions, is an annual budget. Division B is a budget estimate for initial outlay.

The proposal for salaries for the administrative and instructional staff suggests the minimum and maximum in each case but no suggestion is made for an automatic or regular yearly increase.

In Division B the proposal for initial capital outlay assumes that the Library School will have all new equipment except the present collection of books on library science. Were the furniture already available, the amount for initial capital outlay would be correspondingly reduced. The number of chairs, desks, and other equipment is based on an estimate of fifty students and about six full-time and seven part-time members of the instructional and administrative staff.
APPENDIX II

A Proposed Budget for the Suggested Library School at the State University of Iowa.

A: Proposed Annual Budget

I. Personnel Service - Salaries

1. Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Salary Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>$2,000 - 3,000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Executive Secretary</td>
<td>1,800 - 2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Stenographer and Clerk</td>
<td>1,020 - 1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other assistance</td>
<td>600 - 1,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-total $ 5,420 - 8,200

2. Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Salary Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Associate Professor</td>
<td>3,000 - 4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Assistant Professor</td>
<td>2,400 - 3,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Instructors ($2,000-3,800) x 2</td>
<td>4,000 - 5,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Part-time Instructors ($900 - 1,100) x 4</td>
<td>3,800 - 4,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>1,000 - 1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Part-time Revisers, ($960 - 1,200) x 3</td>
<td>1,920 - 2,400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sub-total $ 15,920 -21,000

II. Service other than Personnel

1. Transportation (for lecturers, trips for investigation, attending conferences, etc. ) $2,000

* The Director of the University Library concurrently acts as the Director of the Library School and gets an additional minimum salary of $2,000 a year from the Library School budget.
2. Telegraph $ 100
3. Telephone 100
4. Postage 200
5. Printing 200
6. Binding theses, reports, etc. 200
7. Other expenses 500

Sub-total $ 3,300

III. Equipment
1. Books $ 1,500
2. Periodicals, including
   binding 150
3. Other expenses 500

Sub-total $ 2,150

IV. Supplies
1. Office stationery $ 800
2. Other expenses 200

Sub-total $ 1,000

B: Budget Estimates for Initial Capital Outlay

70 Office desks $ 2,800
70 Desk-chairs 900
24 Chairs 170
70 3 section bookshelves (3'x 3.5') 800
10 6 "  " (3' x 7') 200
20 Typewriters 2,100
1 Adding machine with stand 420
10 Steel vertical filing cabinets 780
10 dozen pasteboard pamphlet boxes $30
Additional books and periodicals of bibliography and library science 2,000
Other equipment 1,000

Total $11,200

SUMMARY

A: Proposed Annual Budget
I. Personnel Service - Salaries
   1. Administration Sub-total $5,420 - 8,200
   2. Instruction " " 15,920 - 21,000
II. Services other than Personnel 3,300 - 3,300
III. Equipment Sub-total 2,150 - 2,150
IV. Supplies " " 1,000 - 1,000

Total $27,790 - 35,650

B: Budget Estimates for Initial Capital
Outlay 11,200 11,200

Grand Total $38,990 - 46,850