

The American Public Library as a Multicultural Force: A Half-Century of Federal Funding to Promote Multiculturalism in Public Libraries, 1956-2006

A close examination of the impact of federal funding for public libraries and the supporting role of the American Library Association (ALA) reveals a symbiotic relationship toward making the American public library a multicultural force in American society. In 1876, with the founding of the ALA, public libraries began to collect materials in languages other than English that reflected the needs of the ethnic and national groups presented in their respective communities. But this practice was considered controversial since the practice could hinder immigrants' assimilation, and therefore was not a universal practice throughout the country.

Progress toward the goal of supporting multiculturalism in American public libraries was not made a priority until after World War I with the establishment of the ALA Committee on Work with the Foreign Born (CWFB). The CWFB's charge was to help immigrants to learn to speak and read English and to prepare them for taking the naturalization exam to become naturalized citizens. Beginning in 1918 and functioning through the end of World War II in 1948, the CWFB

was the first organization within the ALA to focus on the provision of library services to immigrants. After 1948, the ALA CWFB disbanded due to lack of adequate funding from the ALA and a general waning of interest in the postwar years. In 1951, however, the U.S. Congress began to debate ways to help public libraries to serve the needs of all Americans, those born here and those born in other countries.¹

Library Services Act of 1956

The Library Services Act (LSA) was introduced in 1951 and then debated for five years before the bill passed both houses of Congress and was signed into law on 19 July 1956 by President Dwight D. Eisenhower. The LSA, the first major federal legislation passed for the support of public libraries, provided for the extension and improvement of rural public library services in the fifty states and Puerto Rico, and later Guam, American Samoa, and other U.S. territories. The act called for state control of funds, with states being required to submit plans to the U.S. Office of Education for approval. The legislation specified \$7.5

million dollars per year, but only \$2 million dollars were appropriated in fiscal year 1957, \$5 million in fiscal year 1958, \$6 million in fiscal year 1959, and the full amount in fiscal year 1960. The LSA provided federal grants to aid states in serving the estimated twenty-seven million rural residents without access to local public library services, and the five and a half million others to whom services were inadequate.²

Many public library systems in the United States trace their origins to LSA funding. The availability of LSA grants prompted the development and implementation of a great variety of public library outreach services and services to the disadvantaged, defined as those with a need for special library services resulting from poverty, neglect, delinquency, and/or from cultural, linguistic, or other isolation from the community at large, clearly including African Americans and American Indians as eligible disadvantaged populations. Federal funds were channeled through state library agencies, which were, in turn, strengthened by the infusion of federal funds for planning and implementation of state-wide library programs.³

¹ Plummer Alston Jones, Jr., The ALA Committee on Work with the Foreign Born and the Movement to Americanize the Immigrant, in *Libraries to the People*, ed. by Robert S. Freeman & David M. Hovde, foreword by Kathleen de la Pena-McCook (Jefferson, NC: McFarland, 2003), 96-110.

² Edward G. Holley, & Robert F. Schremser, *The Library Services and Construction Act: An Historical Overview from the Viewpoint of Major Participants* (Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 1993), 147-48, 151; and G. S. Bobinski, *Libraries and Librarianship: Sixty Years of Challenge and Change, 1945-2005* (Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press, 2007), 25.

³ Bobinski, 56.

By the 1960s, the U.S. population had grown to around 178 million. In 1960, more than 77 million Americans, or more than two-fifths of the nation, lived in poverty or deprivation. About 40 percent of American adults had only eight years of education or less.⁴ Immigration was intensified by global population growth, lowered transportation costs, and a widespread awareness of the wealth gap between developed and underdeveloped nations. Reforms of American immigration law and policy during the 1960s were intended to bring improvements in the form of opening equal access to all nationalities; however, the reforms brought surprising effects instead: a threefold expansion of legal immigrants, augmented by burgeoning numbers of immigrants living in the United States without permission, and a radical shift in the source countries of American immigration.⁵

In September 1961, Congress liberalized the quota provisions of the 1952 Immigration and Naturalization Act (INA) by eliminating the ceiling of 2,000 on the aggregate quota for countries of the Asia-Pacific Triangle and ensured a minimum quota of 100 for newly independent nations. The election of John Fitzgerald Kennedy, a second-generation Irish Catholic, eased the way for an attack on the national origins quota system. The growing agitation of the civil rights movement marked a changing national attitude towards equality for all races.⁶

Library Services and Construction Act of 1964

After being extended for five years in August 1960, the LSA of 1956 was funded at the full level of \$7.5 million in each of fiscal years 1961 through 1964. The legislative transformation of the LSA into the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) of 1964 was a component of

was uneven. In each of fiscal years 1965 and 1966, Title II received appropriations of \$30 million; in fiscal year 1967, \$40 million; and in fiscal year 1968, approximately \$34 million. In fiscal year 1969, the Title II appropriation sank to approximately \$24 million and, in fiscal year 1970, plummeted to just under \$10 million.⁷

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President Lyndon Baines Johnson's Great Society program. After heated debate, the LSCA was signed into law by President Johnson on February 4, 1964, after a vote of 89 to 7 in the Senate, and 254 to 107 in the House.

Initially, LSCA had two titles. Title I (Public Library Services) represented the expansion of the rural-based LSA of 1956 to urban areas, with increased funding for salaries and wages, training funds for new librarians, books and other library materials, library equipment, and general operating expenses. Title I was funded at \$25 million in each of fiscal years 1965 and 1966 and \$35 million in each of fiscal years 1967 through 1970. Title II (Library Construction) made federal grants available for building libraries, just when Carnegie library buildings were beginning to fall into disuse or were desperately in need of updating. Title II received no appropriation in fiscal year 1964 and in subsequent years its funding

Amendments to the LSCA were passed by the Congress in July 1966, just when the concept of library systems was taking root throughout the nation. LSCA was extended for five years. Two additional titles were added: Title III (Interlibrary Cooperation), and Title IV-A (Institutions) and Title IV-B (Physically Handicapped). Title III was initially funded in fiscal year 1967 at approximately \$400,000; and in each of the fiscal years 1968 through 1969, approximately \$2 million. Title IV-A appropriations were approximately \$400,000 in fiscal year 1967, and just over \$2 million in each of fiscal years 1968 through 1970. Title IV-B appropriations were \$250,000 in fiscal year 1967, and just over \$1 million in each of fiscal years 1968 through 1970.

LSCA grants were used to establish special collections sometimes known as ethnic resource libraries that featured extensive collections

⁴ U.S. Census Bureau, No. 10: Resident Population—Selected Characteristics, 1950 to 2000, and Projections, 2025 and 2050, in *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 2001*, 121st ed. (Washington, DC: U.S. GPO, 2001), 13.

⁵ M. J. Nauratil, *Public Libraries and Nontraditional Clienteles: The Politics of Special Services* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1985), 101.

⁶ Maldwyn Allen Jones, *American Immigration*, 2nd ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992), 280-82.

⁷ Holley & Schremser, 147-48, 150-55.

and services for a targeted ethnic or minority group in newly constructed or remodeled facilities, to provide materials for classes in English as a Second Language (ESL), Adult Basic Education (ABE) and other adult literacy efforts, to support job training and career counseling services, and to supply bookmobile service for the disadvantaged, including ethnic and minority groups as well as hospitalized and institutionalized residents.⁸

Civil Rights and Economic Opportunity Acts of 1964

In the early 1960s, the ALA began discussing the problems and issues of segregation as they affected library services throughout the United States and contracted with the polling firm International Research Associates to survey U.S. libraries to note progress in the provision of public library services. The resulting report, *Access to Public Libraries*, published in 1963 by the ALA, revealed that nonwhite neighborhoods, characterized by low educational levels and low incomes, had significantly less adequate library service than white neighborhoods of the same educational and income levels. The survey provided evidence of denial of access to African Americans in five states of the Deep South as well as proof of the existence of lesser barriers in the rest of the South. The section of the report on access to non-English-language resources focused exclusively on European languages with no mention of library materials in Asian languages.⁹

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 authorized support for institutions of higher education and school districts to provide in-service programs to assist instructional staff dealing with problems caused by desegregation. That same year, the Economic Opportunity Act was passed by Congress as the centerpiece of President Johnson's War on Poverty. The act authorized many programs with which librarians became involved, notably the Community Action programs, which funded community-staffed organizations aimed at mobilizing local resources to alleviate poverty; VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America) programs, which trained highly motivated young people to work with migrant laborers as the domestic version of the Peace Corps; and Operation Headstart programs to prepare disadvantaged preschoolers for kindergarten by teaching them school-readiness skills.¹⁰

Several libraries receiving Community Action, VISTA, and Operation Headstart grants used them in combination with LSCA grants to provide not only economic assistance but appropriate library resources as ammunition for the War on Poverty. The fact that these financial alliances worked for the benefit of multicultural clientele was born out in the ALA report, *Library Service to the Disadvantaged*, which was published in 1969. The report, based on a 1968 survey of public libraries serving populations over 15,000, revealed that of the 896 libraries responding, 212 reported services for the poor,

29 libraries reporting services for the functionally illiterate, 64 reporting services for the aged, and 12 libraries reporting services for the Spanish-speaking. Sixty percent of these programs were financed through regular library income, 15% financed with LSCA funds, and 12% financed with Community Action program funds.¹¹

Model Cities Act of 1966

In 1966, Congress passed the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act, known as the Model Cities Act. Directed by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, the act provided grants to cities to solve neighborhood problems with new ideas and involving local agencies, and federal housing, education, and workforce-related enhancement programs. In 1966 alone, Model Cities grants were awarded to sixty-three cities to develop comprehensive model neighborhoods with innovative library services, often developed using a combination of Model Cities and LSCA grants. Model Cities grants continued into the early 1970s.

Elementary, Secondary, and Higher Education Acts of 1965

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, a federal law to improve public school education by direct federal intervention, provided compensatory education and counseling for at-risk students and was a boon to the development of school libraries. Title I provided

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ *Access to Public Libraries: A Research Project*, prepared for the Library Administration Division, American Library Association, by International Research Associates (Chicago: ALA, 1963); and Bobinski, 97-100.

¹⁰ Bobinski, 69.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

funds to local education agencies (LEAs), including schools, social service agencies, and other organizations for remedial reading and mathematics programs. Title II provided \$100 million in support of school libraries.

The Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 was for colleges, universities, and other post-secondary institutions, the federal equivalent of the ESEA of 1965, with higher education institutions being eligible for grants for the development and improvement of academic resources and services. The Library Education and Human Resources Development Program, funded by Title II-B of the HEA of 1965, made awards to minorities for the study of library and information science beginning in 1966. Both the ESEA and the HEA of 1965 provided much needed funds for building initial multicultural collections in schools, colleges, and universities.¹²

Bilingual Education Act of 1968

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was passed by Congress as an amendment to the ESEA of 1965. Passed with the needs of the large Mexican American community of the Southwest in mind, the 1968 act provided funds for the planning and implementation of programs to meet the special needs of children of limited English-speaking ability in schools having a high concentration of such children from families with incomes below \$3,000 per year.¹³

Library Services for American Indians in the 1960s

After the passage of the Library Services Act of 1956, the New Mexico State Library used federal funds to begin bookmobile service to the Navajo and Pueblo Indian reservations in northwestern New Mexico. Books supplied for the Navajos and Pueblos were published in Spanish or English. By 1958, using LSA funds, the Colorado River Tribal Council of Parker, Arizona, established a library on its reservation, a national first for Native Americans.

During the 1966 fiscal year, the U.S. Senate Appropriations Committee surveyed federal facilities for American Indians in the Western states to determine the adequacy of state and library services and whether they were benefiting from the LSCA of 1964. The committee learned that of the 116 tribes or agencies surveyed, only 24 had bookmobile service. Neighboring public libraries were sometimes as far as 135 miles away and many of those close to reservations either did not check out books to nonresidents of the city or charged a fee. Only three tribes reported receiving deposit collections from state libraries. Thirteen tribes had small community libraries, most of them consisting of donated materials, often outdated or irrelevant, collected by VISTA volunteers.¹⁴

LSCA Amendments and Projects in the 1970s

Title I was funded at \$35 million in fiscal year 1971. In December 1970,

LSCA amendments were passed that emphasized services to low-income families and provided funds for strengthening state library administrative agencies and metropolitan urban regional libraries (MURLs) to serve as national or regional resource centers. Titles I, IV-A, and IV-B were consolidated as Title I. Titles II and III were continued. The new Title I (including the former Titles IV-A and IV-B) received appropriations of approximately \$47 million in fiscal year 1972; \$62 million in fiscal year 1973; approximately \$49 million in each of fiscal years 1974 through 1976; and approximately \$57 million in each of fiscal years 1977 and 1978. Title I appropriations in each of fiscal years 1979 and 1980 rose to \$62.5 million.

Appropriations for Title II began at approximately \$12 million in each of fiscal years 1971 and 1972, fell to approximately \$3 million in fiscal year 1974, rebounded in fiscal years 1974 and 1975, with appropriations respectively \$15 million and \$4 million, and then funding ceased for Title II in fiscal years 1976 through 1980. At the same time, Title III appropriations rose from approximately \$2 million in fiscal year 1970 to \$5 million in fiscal year 1980.

In 1973, the LSCA was amended in compliance with the Older Americans Comprehensive Services Act Amendments to add a new Title IV, entitled Older Readers Services. Although the new Title IV was never funded, library projects for elderly readers were allowed under Title I.

¹² H. G. Unger (Ed.). *Encyclopedia of American Education*, 2nd ed. (New York: Facts on File, c2001, 1996), 380, 523; and Bobinski, 68-69.

¹³ Francesco Cordasco (Ed.), Bilingual Education, in *Dictionary of American Immigration History* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1990), 78.

¹⁴ J. N. Naumer, Library Services to American Indians, in *Library and Information Services for Special Groups*, ed. by J. I. Smith (New York: Published in cooperation with the American Society for Information Science and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Library and Information Sciences, by Science Associates/International, 1974), 38-46.

In 1974, the LSCA was amended to provide service to areas of high concentrations of persons of limited English-speaking ability. In 1977, further amendments added emphasis on strengthening MURLs serving African Americans, American Indians, and other minorities.

As the extent of U.S. involvement in Southeast Asia became a major factor in the nation's economic life and inflation increased accordingly there was less funding available for federal social and educational programs. Federal funds for libraries were used quite differently in different states: some spent the money for state-level direction and coordination; others used it for new or improved local services. Federal funds typically constituted one-half of a rural library's annual budget and about ten percent of an urban library's budget.¹⁵

Bilingual Education Act Amendments in the 1970s

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was renewed in 1974 and again in 1978 as amendments to the ESEA of 1965. The 1974 amendments spurred an interest in Spanish-language publishing and temporarily opened a floodgate to what turned out to be waves of inferior products, including bad translations among other problems. The 1978 amendments expanded the meaning of linguistic deficiency to include both reading and writing.¹⁶

HEA Title II-B and Library Education for Minorities in the 1970s

From 1973 to 1978, Lotsee S. Patterson, a faculty member at the University of New Mexico, used grants from the HEA Act Title II-B funds to train library aides in the pueblos. Arizona State University graduated twelve American Indian school library media specialists in 1974 and 1975, and the University of Arizona enrolled ten American Indians in the MLS program in fiscal year 1974. Both programs were based on the normal curriculum, with supplemental counseling, internships and courses directly related to information needs of American Indians.¹⁷

By 1974, largely due to the efforts of the ALA Minority Recruitment Task Force, a total of twenty-two library schools advertised active recruitment programs aimed at minorities. That same year, the California State Library's Minority Recruitment and Advancement Program funded a Mexican American Graduate Institute of Library Science to train graduate students of Mexican descent as school library media specialists at California State University, Fullerton. By November 1975, the Graduate Institute had graduated 47 Chicano librarians with 17 having completed their Master of Library Science (MLS) degrees in July 1975. In 1978, it was reported that the Chula Vista School District near San Diego had the highest number of Hispanic librarians and

the best bilingual library services for children. Most of the librarians of the system were graduates of the Fullerton program.

The Tucson-based Graduate Library Institute for Spanish-speaking Americans (GLISA) was established at the University of Arizona in 1976 under the direction of Arnulfo Trejo and continued until 1979. The GLISA program produced most of the librarians serving the Hispanic population in El Paso, with many being affiliated with either the El Paso Public Library or the El Paso Community College.¹⁸

Library Services for American Indians in the 1970s

In 1972, the Indian Education Act authorized new educational programs for American Indians, including grants to local educational agencies and special literacy and job-training programs for Indian adults. Three years later, in 1975, Congress passed the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act to allow tribal groups to operate their own education facilities.

Funded under Higher Education Act grants from 1971 to 1975, the National Indian Education Association (NIEA) evolved from the efforts of the ALA Social Responsibilities Round Table's American Indian Task Force in the late 1960s to the American Indian Subcommittee of the ALA Library Services to the Disadvantaged Committee in 1971.¹⁹

¹⁵ Holley & Schremser, 93-94, 147-48, 150-55.

¹⁶ Cordasco, 74-81.

¹⁷ Naumer, 24, 63-64.

¹⁸ G. Baeza, The Evolution of Educational and Public Library Services to Spanish-speaking Children, in *Library Services for Hispanic Children: A Guide for Public and School Librarians*, ed. by A. A. Allen (Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press, 1987), 5-6; A. D. Trejo, Bicultural Americans with a Hispanic Tradition, *Wilson Library Bulletin* 44 (March 1970): 716-23; and A. D. Trejo, & K. L. Lodwick, Needed: Hispanic Librarians—A Survey of Library Policies, *Wilson Library Bulletin* 53 (November 1978), 259-66.

¹⁹ Naumer, 24, 63-64.

In 1978, the Tribally Controlled Community College Assistance Act provided for direct funding from the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) and federal land-grant status for all types of Indian educational institutions, including day schools, on- and off-reservation boarding schools, tribally contracted schools, dormitories that permitted Indian students to attend nearby white public schools, and tribal libraries. Located primarily in large western states, these tribal community colleges had libraries that functioned as college libraries, as well as public libraries. As accredited institutions, the tribal colleges were required to employ qualified librarians to manage them.²⁰

Ethnic Studies Heritage Act of 1972 and U.S. Office of Education Grants

The Ethnic Studies Heritage Act (ESHA) of June 1972, an amendment to the ESEA of 1965, provided funds that could be used to enable students to learn about their own cultural heritages, and to study the contributions of the cultural heritages of the other ethnic groups. The U.S. Office of Education grants were made available to public and private nonprofit educational agencies to assist in planning, developing, and establishing and operating Ethnic Heritage Studies programs.²¹

National Commission on Libraries and Information Science in the 1970s

Following recommendations of the National Library Advisory Council of 1966, the Johnson administration published its report *Libraries at Large*. In response to this report, the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS) was created in 1970 during the administration of President Richard Nixon. The commission was to serve as a permanent, independent agency within the executive branch of the federal government to advise the President and Congress on national policy matters affecting libraries and information services.

In 1972, President Nixon had proposed a new type of funding, revenue sharing, which provided funds for state and local governments over a 5-year period to be spent for local priorities, which could include libraries. In many instances, however, local governments had other programs they preferred to fund and some municipalities merely substituted revenue sharing funds for local funds they had been appropriating for libraries. Libraries were forced to close some branch operations and curtail the hours of opening at main buildings.²²

In May 1973, the NCLIS sponsored a small invitational working conference in Denver to provide a forum for the discussion and review of available research and information on

the library and information service needs of occupational, ethnic, and other minority groups in the United States. In 1974, NCLIS published its study based on the findings entitled *Library and Information Service Needs of the Nation*. The report concluded that immigrants and minorities needed information related to survival and the satisfaction of immediate needs, including those of health, welfare, educational opportunities, vocational and career training, consumer buying, and legal and political rights.²³ The report concluded that LSCA funds had been a critical factor in the survival of projects for special clientele since they had provided the bulk of the funds used for innovative projects, and without them there would have been little or no innovation.²⁴

1979 White House Conference on Library and Information Services

The first White House Conference on Library and Information Services (WHCLIS) was convened in Washington, District of Columbia, on 15-19 November 1979, with 806 delegates and alternates among the 3,600 persons from the United States and abroad. It provided a forum for delegates to express their collective support for the future funding of the LSCA, HEA, and ESEA, and to authorize new federal funding for cultural awareness projects for rural, urban, and economically deprived

²⁰ Lottie Patterson, Historical Overview of Tribal Libraries in the Lower Forty-eight States, in *Libraries to the People: Histories of Outreach*, 160-62; and F. E. Hoxie (Ed.), Education, in *Encyclopedia of North American Indians* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1996), 178.

²¹ Francesco Cordasco (Ed.), Ethnic Studies Heritage Act, in *Dictionary of American Immigration History* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1990), 209-10.

²² C. H. Stevens, National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, in *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science* (Vol. 19), ed. by A. Kent, H. Lancour, & J. E. Daily (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1976), 64; and Bobinski, 25.

²³ D. V. Black, H. R. Seiden, & A. W. Luke, *Evaluation of LSCA services to Special Target Groups: Final Report* (Washington, DC: Systems Development Corporation, 1973); and U.S. National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, *Library and Information Services Needs of the Nation: Proceedings of a Conference on the Needs of Occupational, Ethnic, and Other Groups in the United States* (Washington, DC: U.S. GPO, 1974).

²⁴ Bobinski, 69.

areas, public, school, and academic libraries, and professional library education programs to train library personnel to work with Spanish-speaking, African American, and American Indian populations.²⁵

During the 1980s, the U.S. population was approximately 221 million, with approximately 88% white. While Black Americans made up approximately 12% of the total population, their political power had only begun to be felt through the election of Black mayors and legislators. Native Americans numbered 1.4 million, representing barely .6% of the total population. Three out of four American Indians were located west of the Mississippi, mostly in Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, California, and Alaska. While nearly 500 different tribes had been identified, the majority belonged to ten tribes, of which the Navajo, Cherokee, Sioux, and Chippewa were the largest. The Spanish-speaking community numbered 14.6 million, or 6% percent of the population. Of these, Mexican Americans or Chicanos were by far the largest group and had also been in the United States the longest time.²⁶

ALA and Affiliated Organizations for Minorities

Various ALA divisions and committees produced publications and sponsored programs to aid in the development of multicultural collections and provide programming to assist collection development librarians. The Black Caucus of ALA (BCALA)

was organized by E. J. Josey at the 1970 ALA Midwinter Conference in Chicago. BCALA was established to advocate for the development, promotion, and improvement of library services and resources to the African American community and to provide leadership in the recruitment and professional development of African American librarians. Earlier in 1969, the ALA Coretta Scott King Task Force had established the Coretta Scott King awards for excellence in children's and young adult literature on African American themes. The Coretta Scott King awards are now given by the Coretta Scott King Committee of the Ethnic and Multicultural Information Exchange Round Table.

REFORMA was established in 1971 as an ALA affiliate at the ALA Annual Conference in Dallas by Arnulfo Trejo. REFORMA has developed from a primarily public library, Chicano, Southwest-oriented organization to a truly national association that not only represents the needs of Chicano librarians, but also of Puerto Ricans, Cubans, and other Latino groups. Additional chapters of REFORMA have been established in areas of the country where libraries serve Spanish-speaking communities.

Beginning in 1972 as the Ethnic Materials and Information Exchange (EMIE) Task Force of the ALA Social Responsibilities Round Table, EMIE was elevated to the status of Round Table at the ALA Annual Conference held in Philadelphia in 1982, with

ALA Council approval for the change coming in January 1983. In 1998 at the ALA Annual in Washington, District of Columbia, EMIE changed its name to the Ethnic and Multicultural Information Exchange Round Table (EMIERT) to reflect a more encompassing mission. EMIERT continued to address issues of multiculturalism and ethnic studies to facilitate service to increasingly diverse clienteles of all types of libraries.²⁷

In March 1973, the Midwest Chinese American Librarians Association was established at Rosary College (now Dominican University) Graduate School of Library Science. Another Chinese American librarians' association was formed at Stanford University in 1974. To create a stronger organization with a single identity, the two organizations merged in 1983 under the name of the Chinese American Librarians Association (CALA) and became an affiliate of the ALA.²⁸

Preceded by the Asian American Librarians Caucus founded in 1975, the Asian/Pacific American Librarians Association (APALA) was established at the 1980 ALA Annual Conference in New York and became an ALA affiliate in 1982. APALA's mission is to support the aspirations of Asian/Pacific American librarians, the only minority librarians who have a larger percentage of representation in the library profession than the percentage of Asian Americans in the general population.²⁹

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 69-70.

²⁶ *Statistical Abstract 2001*, 13.

²⁷ J. B. Petty, Reflections on the Role of EMIERT in the Past and in the Future: A Message from the Chair, *EMIE Bulletin 17* (Spring 2001): 1, 3, 13; and ALA Ethnic and Multicultural Information Exchange Round Table, Library Education Task Force, Ethnic and Minority Concerns in Library Education, *EMIE Bulletin 6* (Summer 1989): 6-10.

²⁸ Bobinski, 101-102.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, 101.

NCLIS Cultural Minorities Task Force in the 1980s

In 1980, the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS) established a sixteen-member Task Force on Improving Library and Information Services to Cultural Minorities, also referred to as the NCLIS Cultural Minorities Task Force, and appointed E. J. Josey as chair. The task force's goal was to explore the status of library information services, resources, and programs, concentrating on four minority groups—American Indians, Asians, African Americans, and Hispanics. The task force's 1982 report to NCLIS, published in 1983, affirmed the concepts that a multilingual and multicultural society is desirable and that libraries play an important role in the integration of cultural differences within the community. The task force found that funds for services for minorities have come primarily from federal dollars and that, due to severe budgetary cutbacks, many library programs for minorities had been eliminated by library administrators. Also, in 1980, the ALA Office for Library Service to the Disadvantaged became the Office for Library Outreach Service (OLOS) with responsibility for the promotion of services to all minority groups, the poor, and the illiterate. In 1984, ALA President-Elect E. J. Josey appointed a special ALA President's Committee on Library Services to Minorities. At the ALA Annual Conference in New York in June 1986 the committee presented its report *Equity at Issue: Library Services to the*

Nation's Four Major Minority Groups, 1985–86, which provided a historical and problem-oriented analysis of the status of library services to minorities in all types of libraries and included recommendations for action by ALA and its constituent and affiliated units and groups.³⁰

At the 1988 ALA Midwinter Conference, William E. Moen and Kathleen Heim presented a report on minority recruitment based on Moen's survey "Library and Information Science Student Attitudes, Demographics and Aspirations" conducted in spring 1988. The survey, based on almost 3,500 returned questionnaires representing 54 ALA-accredited graduate library schools, was conducted under the auspices of the ALA Office for Library Personnel Resources in preparation for its Pre-conference on recruitment scheduled for the ALA Annual Conference in July 1988. Moen and Heim reported the ethnic breakdown of library school students to be 93.7 percent white, 3.7 Black, 1.1 percent Asian/Pacific Islander, and .8 percent Hispanic, and .6 American Indian/Alaskan Native.³¹

Library Adult Education Services in the 1980s

Proposals for a study of adult services in public libraries to update Helen Lyman Smith's *Adult Education Activities in Public Libraries* of 1954 were discussed at the Midwinter and Annual Conference sessions of the ALA Readers and Adult Services Division's Services to Adults Committee in 1984 and 1985. In December 1984 a questionnaire, based

on Smith's 1952-53 survey, was sent to a group of interested individuals selected from the *ALA Handbook of Organization* and attendance sheets from the Adults Services in the Eighties (ASE) open assemblies at the 1984 ALA Midwinter Meeting. The fourth and final version of the questionnaire was distributed to 1,758 library systems, representing more than 8,000 single unit libraries, central libraries, and branches. Responses were received from 4,215 individual libraries representing 1,114 systems.

The results of the ASE questionnaire indicated that most of the programming for Native Americans, Asians, and Hispanics took place in California (Native American, 52; Asian, 9; Hispanic, 52). States reporting ten or more libraries offering programming to Black people included California, with 23; Florida, Illinois, North Carolina, New York, and Ohio, with 13 each; and Georgia, with 10. Two hundred ninety-one library programs were designed for minorities and initiated in 1985.

Of these, 110 focused on Black history, culture, and issues. Hispanic culture, especially food and music, was the subject of twenty-eight more, while twenty-four programs centered on Asian concerns and six on Native American culture. There were 72 programs offering instruction in English as a second language, usually cosponsored by local boards of education and colleges or funded through LSCA grants. Many of these ESL programs were designed for specific minorities, especially Hispanics and Asians.

³⁰ *Equity at Issue: Library Services to the Nation's Four Major Minority Groups, 1985–86; Report of the President's Committee on Library Services to Minorities* (Chicago: ALA, 1986).

³¹ A. K. Randall, Minority Recruitment in Librarianship, in *Librarians for the New Millennium*, ed. by William E. Moen & Kathleen M. Heim (Chicago, ALA, Office for Library Personnel Resources, 1988), 11-25.

Public libraries had organized eighteen programs based on general ethnic concerns, including multicultural understanding, business operations, tax help, genealogical research, and political issues. Those states which offered ten or more programs either for specific minorities or based on minority concerns included California, with 66; New York and Illinois, with 27 each; Texas, with 26; and Massachusetts, with 11. Only 504 libraries out of the 4,215 responding institutions reported programming aimed at the activation of minority clientele.³²

LSCA Amendments and Projects in the 1980s

In October 1984, Congress reauthorized LSCA with a five-year extension and President Ronald Reagan signed the enabling law. The extension reauthorized Titles I, II, and III, and added three new titles: Title IV, Library Services for Indian Tribes and Hawaiian Natives, to establish and improve American Indian tribal libraries and library services with Hawaiian Natives; Title V, Foreign Language Materials Acquisition; and Title VI, Library Literacy Programs for librarian training and outreach programs for illiterate and functionally illiterate adults.

Under LSCA Title I, funds went to fifty-four state library administrative agencies in fiscal year 1984 to establish, extend, and improve public library services. According to the U.S. Department of Education, 140 ma-

ior urban resource libraries (MURLs) were funded, and services provided to approximately 3 million disadvantaged persons, 2 million limited English-speaking individuals, close to 800,000 blind and physically handicapped persons, just over 800,000 persons in state institutions, and over 700,000 elderly persons. During fiscal year 1984, Title I was funded at \$65 million; Title II at approximately \$22 million; and Title III at \$15 million.

Under LSCA Title II in fiscal years 1983 and 1984 a total of fifty-one state agencies received approximately \$50 million for more than 500 construction projects, including new buildings, additions to existing buildings, and remodeling projects. Under Title III, 6,000 public libraries received funding to support networks and consortia to improve services for readers.

Funding for LSCA Title IV was determined by setting aside two percent of the appropriations for LSCA Titles I, II, and III, with 1.5 percent allocated for American Indian Tribes and .5 percent for Hawaiian Natives. In fiscal year 1985, the amounts set aside for Title IV were \$1.77 million for awards to American Indian tribes and \$590,000 for Hawaiian Natives.³³

In 1990, the U.S. population was approximately 239 million, with 77% white, 11% Black, .8% American Indians, Eskimos, and Aleuts, 2.8% Asians and Pacific Islanders, and 8% of Hispanic origin. Through the 1990s, the U.S. population would grow by 32.7

million to 281 million, the largest gain in history and the equivalent of adding the entire population of Canada. This record total included approximately 14 million immigrants. If the children of immigrants born to them once in the United States were added to this figure, immigration total would represent approximately 21 million or two-thirds of the growth.³⁴

LSCA Amendments and Projects in the 1990s

In fiscal year 1991, Congress appropriated \$976,000 for a new Title V of the LSCA, known as the Foreign Language Materials Acquisition Program, which had been established in 1984, but never funded. By September 1992, 29 grants totaling \$976,000 were awarded to public libraries in 11 states to enhance library services to emerging ethnic groups, to respond to the diverse needs of the community by obtaining materials in a variety of formats, and to introduce new languages, services, and materials to library branches and collections. Title V was funded for only three fiscal years, from 1991 to 1993.

LSCA Title VI known as the Library Literacy Program to support adult literacy programs in state and local public libraries received an appropriation of over \$8 million in fiscal year 1992. By September 1992, 256 grants totaling over \$8 million were awarded to 246 local public libraries and 10 state libraries.³⁵

³² Bobinski, 130-32; *Adult Services: An Enduring Focus for Public Libraries*, ed. by Kathleen M. Heim and D. P. Wallace (Chicago: ALA, 1990).

³³ R. M. Fry, U.S. Department of Education Library Programs, 1985, in *Bowker Annual of Library and Book Trade Almanac 1986*, 31st ed. (New York: Bowker, 1986), 251-53.

³⁴ *Statistical Abstract 2001*, 13.

³⁵ J. I. Lesley, Library Services for Special Groups: 1991 Trends and Selected Innovative Services for Immigrants, the Homeless, Children after School, the Disabled, and the Unemployed, in *Bowker Annual, 1992: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 37th ed. (New Providence, NJ: Bowker, 1992), 291; and R. M. Fry, U.S. Department of Education Library Programs, 1992, in *Bowker Annual 1993: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 38th ed. (New Providence, NJ: Bowker, 1993), 266-78, 291-95, 298-305; and R. M. Fry, U.S. Department of Education Library Programs, 1995, in *Bowker Annual 1994: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 40th ed. (New Providence, NJ: Bowker, 1995), 297-303, 306-309, 311-12, 332-37.

1991 White House Conference on Library and Information Services

The second White House Conference on Library and Information Services was authorized by President Reagan in August 1988, but was not held until 9-13 July 1991, in Washington, District of Columbia. At the time when the conference was convened, there were more than 115,000 libraries in the United States: 8,865 public libraries with 6,350 branches; 92,539 school library media centers; 3,398 academic libraries; and 10,263 special libraries, serving corporate, hospital, medical, and governmental organizations.

There were 984 delegates and alternatives as well as 1,000 non-voting honorary delegates, 64 at-large delegates, and 300 volunteers, including library and information professionals, government officials, and trustees and friends of libraries. After considerable debate the 2,500 recommendations generated at the pre-conferences were reduced to 95 recommendations that were endorsed and subsequently published in 1992 by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science as *Information 2000: Library and Information Services for the 21st Century*. The recommendations called for strengthening and expanding existing LSCA, HEA, and ESEA legislation, and framing library access policies to accommodate diverse user needs, while ensuring no-fee and improved access to information to multicultural and multilingual populations.³⁶

ALA Spectrum Initiative

The 1997 report *Equal Voices, Many Choices: Ethnic Library Organizations Respond to ALA's Goal 2000* was published under the direction of ALA Executive Director Elizabeth Martinez to elicit the cooperation of ethnic minority library leaders. As ALA Executive Director from 1994 to 1997, Elizabeth Martinez was responsible for the creation in 1998 of the Spectrum Initiative, an ALA-sponsored project that awarded scholarships to people of color to recruit minority librarians and provide scholarships for graduate study in library and information science. Scholarship recipients must be citizens or permanent U.S. or Canadian residents and be from one of four specified underrepresented groups: African American or African Canadian, Asian or Pacific Islander, Latino, or Native American or Canadian.³⁷

LSTA and HEA Title II-B Projects in the 1990s

According to 1996-97 data from the ALA Office for Library Personnel Resources reported that the ALA-accredited master's degree was awarded to 193 (4.4 percent) African Americans; 1 (2.2 percent) post-master's to African Americans; and 3 doctorates (8.5 percent) to African Americans. Of fifty-one library schools reporting a total of 12,480 students enrolled in ALA-accredited master's programs during fiscal year 1998, only 558, or 4.8 percent African American students, were enrolled. During the same period, with forty-eight schools

reporting, there were only thirty-five African American library educators in U.S. library schools or 6.4 percent of a total population of 547 faculty.³⁸

Library Services for American Indians in the 1990s

In fiscal year 1992, LSCA Title IV grants for the Library Services for Indian Tribes and Hawaiian Natives Program were awarded to 225 Indian tribes and 170,000 Hawaiian Natives. Funds were used in 28 states to support a variety of library activities, including salaries and training of library staff, purchase of library materials, and the renovation or construction of library facilities. In December 1992, NCLIS published *Pathways to Excellence: A Report on Improving Library and Information Services for Native American Peoples*, which presented major challenges involving federal, state, and local governments and agencies, the tribes themselves, and the nation at large, among these being the strengthening of technical assistance to Native American communities by improving access and promoting cooperative activities.

In 1994, Congress passed the Tribal Self-Governance Act which enabled tribes to negotiate annual agreements to allow them to have greater involvement in planning and setting priorities for themselves, including in some instances, the development of library services. Tribal libraries must compete for scarce funds with roads, utilities, and other basic services on reservations. In a survey of 300 tribes in the lower forty-eight

³⁶ Kathleen de la Pena McCook, & P. Geist (Eds.), *Toward a Just and Productive Society: An Analysis of the Recommendations of the White House Conference on Library and Information Services* (Washington, DC: NCLIS, 1993); and R. T. Walsh (Ed.), *National Information Infrastructure and the Recommendations of the 1991 White House Conference on Library and Information Services* (Washington, DC: NCLIS, 1994).

³⁷ Bobinski, 102.

³⁸ Fry (1995).

states in 1994, approximately one-half reported having a library, a slight improvement over a 1980 survey that documented less than fifty tribes having a tribal library.³⁹

Library Services and Technology Act of 1996

In September 1995, the Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA), administered by the U.S. Department of Education, expired. During the final fiscal year of 1995, LSCA grants amounted to \$17,436,000. At that time, LSCA was replaced by the Library Services and Technology Act (LSTA). In September 1996, the Museum and Library Services Act signed into law by President Clinton established a new government agency, the Institute of Museum and Library Services (IMLS). On 18 December 1998, the IMLS was given the authority to disperse \$135,366,938 in LSTA grants to library agencies nationwide to support the use of technology to share information resources and library outreach to underserved urban and rural populations.

The focus of the LSTA shifted quite dramatically from the construction of libraries and collection development to the provision of the infrastructure to enable access to electronic information using the most current information technology. Emphasizing electronic networking and targeting the underserved, LSTA grants were available to all types of libraries, not just public libraries, as had been the focus with LSCA. LSTA grants

were awarded out of two major program areas, the National Leadership Program, and the Native American Library Services Program, with funds earmarked for Hawaiians Natives.⁴⁰

In 2000, Hispanics became the largest minority in the United States, increasing 61.6% over the previous ten years to a total of 35.3 million or 12.5% of all Americans. In 1990, African Americans had been the largest minority, and while their numbers increased 21.5% in the 10 years that followed, the new total of close to 34.7 million comprised only 12.1% of the American population.

More than 63% of Hispanics in the continental U.S. were of Mexican origin, and just under 11% of mainland Hispanics were of Puerto Rican descent. More than half lived in two states—California, where Hispanics, mostly of Mexican origin, made up just over 30% of the population and Whites constituted a minority, and Texas, where Hispanics constituted nearly 29%, largely of Mexican origin. Hispanics made up 14% of the population of New York, where the majority were of Puerto Rican origin, and about 14% of the population of Florida, where the majority were of Cuban origin.

Unlike immigrants of previous generations, only about one-third of the new arrivals in the 1990s and into the 2000s, both immigrants arriving with documentation as well as those already living in the United States without permission, applied for citizenship. Estimated in the tens of

millions and growing, the new immigrant population had resisted assimilation because of the ease with which air travel and efficient long-distance telephone service allowed them to maintain ties to families and cultures in their native countries. Unlike immigrants of the past, the new immigrants had been able to create subcultures that were unattached to the larger American society.⁴¹

Approximately \$207.5 million in LSTA funds were made available through the IMLS for library programs in fiscal year 2001, and just over \$197.5 million in fiscal year 2002. In 2001, IMLS awarded 49 grants totaling approximately \$11 million for National Leadership Grants in the areas of education and training, research and demonstration, preservation or digitization of library materials, and library and museum collaborations. IMLS funds projects to attract individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds to the field of librarianship and information science; and projects that conduct research and/or demonstrations that will assist in the evaluation of library services, including economic, social, and cultural implications of services and other contributions to a community.⁴²

In 2002, IMLS Native American Library Services Program received 38 applications and awarded twelve Enhancement Grants. Native Americans from Alaska, Montana, California, Michigan, Minnesota, South Dakota, and New Mexico benefited from

³⁹ Patterson, 159,161; and Fry (1993), 266-29.

⁴⁰ Bobinski, 71; and D. Frankel, Institute of Museum and Library Services Library Programs, in *Bowker Annual: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 43rd ed. (New Providence, NJ: Bowker, 1998), 302-306.

⁴¹ Unger, 527-28.

⁴² Robert S. Martin, Institute of Museum and Library Services Library Programs, in *Bowker Annual 2002: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 47th ed. (Medford, NJ: Information Today, 2002), 343-44, 346-53; and Robert S. Martin, Institute of Museum and Library Services Library Programs, in *Bowker Annual 2003: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 48th ed. (Medford, NJ: Information Today, 2003), 348-49, 351-58.

grants for innovative service projects, staff and training, collections, furniture, shelving, equipment, and digitization. By 2005, just over \$205 million was available from federal funding for all library services and technology programs.⁴³

2002 White House Conference on School Libraries

During fiscal year 2002, the budget for National Commission of Libraries and Information Science (NCLSI) was reduced from \$1.5 million to \$1 million. NCLIS officials attended the first-ever White House Conference on School Libraries hosted by First Lady Laura Bush on 4 June 2002. This was the first White House Conference not under its sponsorship, but under the sponsorship of the newly created IMLS. The conference spotlighted research that tied academic achievement directly to strong school library media programs and warned that funding for educational projects remained underfunded.⁴⁴

The Public Library as a Multicultural Force Since 2006

The continuation and growth of multicultural library services is tied to the continuance of federal funding through LSTA and the establishment of other library funding initiatives at the federal level. With the United States entangled in wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, federal funds for library services in general have already suffered from substantial cuts and in a Congress obsessed with cutting budgets, more cuts are bound to be debated.

History has revealed that when federal funding is cut, the first library services to suffer are those geared toward minority and special population groups, including immigrants, American Indians, African Americans, Latinos, Asian Americans, and the mentally and physically handicapped. Federal funding of libraries has been a reality since 1956; how-

“Libraries of all types serving minority clientele have had to supplement meager, if any, federal funds...”

ever, levels of funding are decreasing. Federal grant funds are not increasing to match higher levels of immigration. When more and more federal funds are channeled toward meeting concerns for homeland security around the Mexico/U.S. border or other priorities, federal funding for libraries and multiculturalism in the twenty-first century seems unlikely to reach the priority level of the last five decades of the twentieth century.

Federal funding of library services has never been sufficient to enable libraries and librarians to accomplish their goals for providing full library service to anyone, much less multicultural and multilingual populations. Libraries of all types serving minority clientele have had to supplement meager, if any, federal funds with funds from philanthropic foundations. Over the fifty-year period from 1956 to 2006, federal funding has not kept pace with inflation and

reduced buying power does not result in more multicultural materials and services for U.S. libraries.

The irony of multiculturalism in U.S. libraries is the fact that it has always been present in varying degrees depending on geography, that is, the location of the library, as well as local support and philanthropy, since in a few notable instances support for multiculturalism had existed even before federal funding became available in the 1950s. Federal funding per se has been late in coming, never certain, and hardly substantial to provide quality multicultural, multilingual collections and services without local and philanthropic support.

Throughout the last fifty years and counting, the ALA has been the lynchpin in maintaining U.S. libraries, particularly public libraries, as a multicultural force by providing the organizational structure and professional support, which, when coupled with federal and private funding, has spurred a continuous debate on what it means to be a multicultural nation. To be viewed by the world community as a truly multicultural nation, the United States, through its government, its privately and publicly funded organizations, and its citizenry must collaboratively set new priorities, seek as-yet-untapped and perhaps unrealized sources for funding, and keep uppermost in national planning and visioning efforts the continuing need for exemplary, continuous multicultural library services into the decades and centuries to come.

⁴³ Bobinski, 71.

⁴⁴ Bobinski, 40; and R. S. Willard, National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, in *Bowker Annual 2003: Library and Book Trade Almanac*, 48th ed. (Medford, NJ: Information Today, 2003), 104.