

PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARIES: THEIR HISTORY, CURRICULUM, and IMPACT
ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

**Public School Libraries: Their History, Curriculum, and Impact on Student
Achievement**

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This dissertation explores the development of public school libraries from their origins in the late 18th century in New England to today's dynamic, modern places where students and faculty use 21st century technology to access information sources. Staffed with trained professionals and support staff, these school libraries have specific curricula that teach information literacy skills – how to find, evaluate, and use resources – and promote the love of reading and teach lifelong learning skills. Since 1990 the school library field has been fortunate to have seen a flurry of activity in the area of quantitative research, which has shown consistently how important school libraries are in helping all students, regardless of socio-economic or community conditions increase their personal achievement. Professionally staffed, well funded libraries with large, current collections and electronic access to numerous online databases have been shown to consistently increase student achievement scores on standardized

tests. Specifically, the research in this study compares the achievement scores of 5th grade elementary students taking the Reference Materials test of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS), by comparing the scores between schools with and without professional librarians to see what impact there is on student achievement, especially with the various racial groups found within the district. A descriptive study, there are no specific answers to questions, but outcomes are revealed and recommendations for further study and use of the information found during the researching of this paper are offered.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The role of school libraries in American public schools has evolved over time to the point where they teach important information literacy skills and provide access to numerous types of materials and resources for students not readily available elsewhere, and possibly most important of all, encourage students to enjoy reading. These school libraries have become places that reinforce all aspects of the school curriculum, provide students with current resources and interesting pleasure reading materials, and the librarians in them teach *information literacy skills*, or how to find, evaluate, and use resources and the information they provide.

Public school libraries can trace their origins to the Sunday-school libraries of the late eighteenth century. Harriet Long writes in her book *Public Library Service to Children: Foundation and Development* (1969) that the Sunday-school library developed from the work of Englishman Samuel Slater, an owner of a cotton mill in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, in 1790. His employment of juveniles prompted him to begin a Sunday-school for his young workers. The need for a library became apparent, and one was started by him. As the Sunday-school movement developed

and peaked, it was replaced by school-district libraries. This concept, begun by Jessy Torrey of New York in the early 1830s, was based upon the idea that the new school-district library would act as the vehicle to diffuse knowledge to the young. This concept proved so successful that the New York Legislature passed the Act of 1835, which permitted the residents of each school district in the state to tax themselves twenty dollars for an initial collection of books and the cost of a bookcase. Each succeeding year, the tax levy for the maintenance of the library was to be ten dollars (Ditzion, 1940). The idea of the school-district library was soon found throughout the East Coast. From these humble beginnings came the present day school libraries. Their evolution has been apparent to numerous generations as libraries have grown in space, collection, staffing, and importance to student learning.

One would think that such basic and time-honored academic services would logically create a strong constituency of support for and a full understanding of school library programs and their positive impact upon student achievement. Sadly, this is not the case, especially in the state of Iowa. Iowa, which has long been associated with high student achievement as evidenced with consistently high student test scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) and the Iowa Test of Educational Development (ITED), no longer requires school districts to employ

teacher-librarians. Late in the Iowa legislative session of 1994, the legislature voted to drop the requirement of having a professional school librarian and a school library program. Library professionals and supporters have speculated throughout the ensuing decade exactly what motivated the political leaders to do this. No matter what may have motivated such a move, the legislature has resisted all calls to restore school library professionals and the programs they provide.

Over the past few decades, especially in the one just ended, research in the area of school library programs and their impact upon student achievement has consistently shown the importance of school libraries and school librarians. One of the leaders in the field of measuring and researching the impact of school library programs on student achievement is Keith Curry Lance. Lance and his fellow researchers Marcia Rodney and Christine Hamilton-Pennell have found consistently in numerous states, where the studies have been replicated, that school library programs have a positive and profound effect upon student achievement (Lance, et al, 2000).

Purpose of the Study

As the head of the Des Moines Independent Community School District Libraries and Information Services Department, this writer has been faced with the devastating after-effects of the 1994 Iowa

Legislature's vote to drop the requirement of having a professional library program in public schools. Budgets for books have been dramatically reduced, and both professional and paraprofessional staff positions have been reduced at all building levels. It is this writer's conclusion from countless conversations and presentations to citizen groups and individuals, to administrators and teachers throughout the state and within the district that part of the problem related to school library professionals and their programs is the lack of any knowledge of the long history of school libraries and the librarians who staff them. Pierce Butler, a strong advocate for librarianship in the early and middle decades of the last century wrote that librarians without a "clear historical consciousness" are "quite certain at time" to serve their communities "badly" (Butler, 1933). Also lacking on the part of others not directly involved in school library programs is an understanding of *what* a school library program should do for students, faculty, administration, and the school community. If public school library programs are to remain viable, their important contributions must be clearly stated and shown to citizens.

The problem addressed in this study is the need for an accurate understanding of public school library programs – their history and development - and how they positively impact student achievement, citing

authentic data which shows that school library programs do improve student achievement.

Importance of the Study

In order for school library programs to survive during these weak economic times and flourish during strong economic times, enough information and data need to be compiled to present a strong case for maintaining and expanding school libraries, especially in the Des Moines Independent Community School District, known statewide as Des Moines Public Schools or DMPS. The purpose of this study is threefold: 1. Research the development of the American public school library program highlighting specific information that gives its history and lays out a foundation of importance for the program to help citizens better understand how and why school libraries came to be. 2. Review the research that shows the impact school library programs have upon student achievement to help citizens realize what these programs can do for students. 3. Research the impact of the school library program on DMPS elementary school student achievement based upon student test scores on the ITBS section of Reference Materials, per the district assessment practices to comply with the No Child Left Behind law (NCLB).

For research purposes, the hypothesis of this paper will be that elementary students' achievement in library skills on the ITBS section of Reference Materials will show little difference between students in schools with teacher-librarians and those with well-trained associates who provide basic library services. While this goes against research of the past decade, it takes into account the unique library program/personnel situation of the Des Moines district. For over 40 years the district has not employed in any significant numbers elementary librarians. Instead, it has hired and trained paraprofessionals to provide very basic but important library services to students and faculty members. Because teachers are used to teaching many of the skills measured on the ITBS test for libraries and the library associates are allowed by Iowa Code to reinforce this teaching and the recent library curriculum, it is expected most students will perform about the same on the Reference Materials test whether they have librarians or library associates in their buildings. No matter what the results are, this study will establish a starting point of library data to measure from each year hereafter to assist in compliance with the NCLB requirements.

Scope of the Study

The scope of this study will be to explore the history of school libraries to provide a foundation for understanding what school library

programs are and what they can do to help students achieve. Research will uncover a basic historic timeline of events and people who shaped school library history and the impact these events and people have had on the program up through these early years of the 21st century. In addition to looking at the historical background of school libraries, research is also needed on how library programs impact student achievement. Keith Curry Lance's studies have shown that across the nation in states where he and his assistants have conducted their studies, students in schools with a strong school library program achieve higher scores when compared to students in districts with no such programs or weak programs. "Schools with higher rated libraries have 10 to 18 percent better test scores than schools with lower rated libraries." (Lance, et al, 2002) The final aspect of this paper will be to gather and analyze library-related data from the ITBS standardized test section of Reference Materials to measure student achievement by comparing student scores from buildings with and without professional librarians to measure any impact on student achievement.

The data gathering portion of this study, using the descriptive survey method, will be limited to four elementary schools which have had teacher-librarians for the past four years and possibly six other elementary schools with similar student populations, which have not had teacher-librarians and instead have associates. Data from the 2002-2003

school year will be collected on 5th grade student scores from the Reference Materials section of the ITBS in these buildings. It must be noted here that Iowa allows each school district to establish its own educational standards and benchmarks; no mandated state-generated standards and benchmarks exist, marking Iowa as the only state in the Union to operate its state education standards this way. Instead, to meet compliance with NCLB, the state of Iowa was approved to require all of the school districts to use the ITBS and ITED tests to gather data to measure student achievement. This is the reason the ITBS (the elementary level test) will be used for this study.

The four elementary schools having the professional librarians will be profiled using the following demographic statistics:

1. Socioeconomic status numbers from the federal government's Free and Reduced lunch program
2. Minority group numbers
3. English Language Learner (ELL) numbers
4. Special education numbers.
5. Similar enrollment numbers

The district assessment department will assist the writer in generating matching profiles for these four buildings with librarians to possibly six other buildings not having librarians to create a

demographically balanced study. The school buildings being profiled to match the four with librarians will be located throughout the district and not clustered in only one or two parts of the district to eliminate any demographic imbalances. There is no official library curriculum or information literacy curriculum adopted by DMPS, so a very basic library curriculum has been developed which both teacher-librarians and associates use with students. By Iowa law, associates cannot teach lessons to students, but since the basic library curriculum has been developed by teacher-librarians, associates can *present* the information. The ITBS Reference Materials test section is the foundation for this basic library curriculum, along with the Big Six Skills, and it is either taught or presented throughout the district's elementary buildings. The ITBS test was revised and a new norm set in 2001-2002. The first test published with the new norm was in 2002-2003, which will supply the beginning data to analyze for this study. The plan is to use the information gathered from this study to gain a commitment from the DMPS district to analyze the test data on the Reference Materials section of the test over the next five years to see what trends, if any, can be detected and analyzed.

The Bush Administration's call for public school reform enacted into law, NCLB, specifically mentions improving student literacy through school libraries by improving library collections and hours of operation. Another

section of the legislation calling for the implementation of educational technology helps highlight how the school library program can positively impact student achievement (U.S. Department of Education, Jan. 2002). Given the importance school library programs are afforded in NCLB, it is interesting to note that there has been a continued decrease in school library programming with the loss of professional school librarian positions in the state of Iowa. Since 1999 and through May 2004 in Iowa, there have been at least 150 professional positions lost to budget cuts or decisions on the part of school administrators and school boards to reallocate funds (ILA/IASL Professional Position Inventory, 2004). With both federal and state demands upon local school districts to improve student achievement through NCLB, it becomes imperative that school library programs receive the attention they deserve as part of the plan to close the achievement gap between students who have adequate financial resources and those who do not and see how libraries can boost achievement for all students in public schools.

Rationale of the Study

This study will be conducted to provide important information on why school library programs are important to students, teachers, administrators, school board members, and the communities where the programs are located. Specifically, this study will provide information on

DMPS libraries to bring awareness to decision makers about the importance of school libraries in the district. The study will also show what school library programs have evolved in to, what they do for student achievement, and specifically what differences, if any, there are between student achievement scores on the ITBS test on Reference Materials in DMPS buildings with and without professional school librarians.

No matter what the data shows from DMPS district ITBS scores measuring professionally and paraprofessionally led library programs, the history and purposes of school libraries and their impact upon student achievement in general are needed to promote school library programs in Des Moines, the state, and throughout the country. This study will be continued over the next five years to measure student achievement in library-related sections of the ITBS and ITED tests to give district officials and the community specific information on the impact of school library programs in the district. It must be noted here that DMPS has not had a strong history of promoting school library programs. The district has had secondary library programs since the 1920s, but elementary library programs have not consistently existed. In order for district level administrators, the school board, and supporters of DMPS to understand the importance of what school library programs do for students, specific research on library skills of DMPS students, basic school library history,

and the impact of library programs upon student achievement are needed to make a strong case for preserving and expanding library programs. It is hoped that this project will become the impetus for supporting more research into the impact of school libraries on student achievement, especially for the DMPS district.

Definition of Terms

1. School Library: This refers to a place within a school which houses printed materials and access points via computers to the library catalog, online databases, CD-ROM materials, video and DVD materials, audio materials, and the Internet.
2. School-library: An early reference to library materials in a school room that was funded by a self-imposed tax by the citizens of a community.
3. Sunday-school: Academic instruction held on Sunday after church for children and adolescents who worked all week long in factories and mills during the middle and latter part of the 18th century and early 19th century.
4. District-library: A library of reading and reference materials funded at the district level with materials being checked out to different teachers in various buildings within the district.
5. School Librarian: The person who runs the school library and holds a teaching license and an endorsement to work in the library. In addition to

the BA degree and teaching license, the individual may also hold a Master of Library Science degree.

6. Teacher-Librarian: Another term for school librarian, used by Canadians to denote a difference between school and public librarians. This term is more explicit to the general public, as it denotes that library personnel are both educators and librarians at the same time.

7. No Child Left Behind (NCLB): Legislation passed in 2000 by Congress to stimulate and direct improved student achievement for public school students. As a national law, it requires all school districts in the country which receive federal funds to comply with the provisions stated within the law.

8. American Library Association (ALA): Founded in 1876, the ALA has many divisions which provide specific assistance and advocacy to members of the various types of libraries – school, public, academic, special.

9. National Education Association (NEA): Founded in 1857 as the National Teachers' Association (NTA), the name was changed in 1870 to NEA as it reorganized and expanded its membership to include administrators and school board members.

10. Modern School Library: Denotes the twentieth century school library that became the model for libraries in schools that are organized and

staffed for the exclusive use of students, teachers, and others associated with schools.

Terms Not Used in This Paper

The following terms, while still in use, are gradually being replaced by the more traditional terms school library, school librarian, or teacher-librarian. These terms below have not been used in this paper.

Media Center/ Library Media Center/Instructional Media Center: Late 1960s and early 1970s terms for a school library. The companion terms of library media center, and instructional media center were used to distinguish library programs that placed a dual emphasis on print materials and non-print materials - educational technology of the time – as compared to traditional libraries which were mostly just paper resources (Buckingham, 1978).

Media Specialist/Library Media Specialist: Late 1960s and early 1970 terms for school librarian or teacher-librarian.

Overview of the Study

Strong school library programs across the country have been shown to increase student achievement as measured on standardized tests (Lance, et al, 2000). While this basic knowledge has been presented in the mass media as well as professional journals and conferences, many problems for school library programs have developed due to funding

issues and the choices by school leaders of where to put limited resources. School library programs have been cut in Iowa at a time when national and state mandates to improve student achievement have been issued. This study will gather historical information on the rise of school library programs, present a review of current literature on the impact of school library programs on student achievement, and conduct specific school district research using standardized test data and district demographics to compare and contrast elementary library programs with and without school librarians and their impact on student achievement in the Des Moines Independent Community School District.

This study will highlight what school library programs have developed in to, and what they do for student achievement, specifically for elementary school students in the Des Moines district using the historical research method; the information will be made available to district officials, the school board, and the school community in general in the forms of a written report and verbal presentations. The study will show a need for implementing a library curriculum that promotes information literacy and literacy in general, as mandated in NCLB.

The study will also use descriptive research methods to look closely at how 5th grade elementary students do on the ITBS standardized test section labeled Reference Materials. This test measures basic

information on how to find specific information in printed materials, what the various parts of books are, what different types of reference materials are and what they are used for, and how to use electronic resources, among other things.

The study will answer these basic questions:

1. How and why school libraries came to be?
2. How do school library programs impact student achievement?
3. What impact, if any, is there on elementary DMPS student achievement?
4. How will this information impact decision making in the district?

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Origins of School Libraries

No comprehensive history on the origins and evolution of school libraries exists. Those interested in learning more on this subject can find early statistics and basic information, including specific dates, in the 1876 U.S. Bureau of Education report on public libraries, which includes a twenty page chapter on school and asylum libraries (U. S. Bureau of Education, 1876). The information from this document and basic school library related history does exist and can be pieced together through reading and researching doctoral dissertations, journal articles, and chapters in various scholarly books documenting the rise of American public libraries and professional associations linked to libraries and public schools. One can also find information about school libraries in professional education association histories and biographies of education leaders. Before school libraries came into existence, there were public libraries in the United States. Many began as subscription libraries, formed by moneyed men who purchased books which were then loaned to fellow subscribers. One of the earliest of these subscription libraries is the one Benjamin Franklin formed with friends and associates in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, prior to the American Revolution. These libraries eventually

gave way to publicly funded or free libraries, and by the end of the American Revolution, most large towns and cities had some type of library for their citizens (Thompson, 1952).

After the American Revolution, a period of great economic growth occurred, and with it the rise of new technologies for manufacturing and farming and laborers to work in the early mills and on expanding farms and in farm-related enterprises which catered to the growing city populations. There were no child labor laws in these early times, so young people worked all week long, Monday through Saturday, with just Sunday off. After church, these children and adolescents went to Sunday-school. It was in this setting that the first school libraries were developed. In 1790, Samuel Slater, of Pawtucket, Rhode Island, opened a cotton mill. He employed children and adolescents in his mill, but this transplanted Englishman knew how important an education was, so he created his own Sunday-school for his young workers and at the same time created a library for his school based upon the ones he knew of in his native England, where the Sunday-school movement originated (Long, 1969). As the Sunday-school movement expanded along the eastern seaboard and into the Ohio River valley westward, the libraries in these schools began to expand. On average, the Sunday-school library collections ranged from 150-300 volumes, a large number for the time given how

expensive books were (Thomas, 1982). These collections were, by nature, religious and moral, but they also contained some popular books, and what we refer to today as non-fiction books on subjects about careers of the time and small single volume encyclopedias that gave vital and practical information for successful day-to-day living (Briggs, 1951).

By the early 1830s New York State took the lead in school libraries by passing legislation in 1835 that developed and funded school-district libraries. These libraries were much different than the previous Sunday-school libraries. The collections were not limited to religious, moral, and career topics. They included books on popular topics and established the idea that the school curriculum served as a guiding force to build the collection. This new type of library was located in the public school building, not in a mill or manufacturing center or a church or building owned by a church group. The first person to propose these school-district libraries was Jessy Torrey. He used his own funds to create public interest and support for these libraries. It wasn't until another New York state citizen stepped forward to assist Torrey that the movement took off. This second man was James S. Wadsworth of Geneseo, New York. His vision for the district-library was a device for fostering learning among all elements of the new populace of the frontier as well as established towns and cities, in addition to being an instrument of instruction for youth. It

was Wadsworth who influenced the New York Legislature to pass the Act of 1835, which allowed citizens to tax themselves to establish and maintain school-district libraries. For the grand sum of twenty dollars, a beginning library collection and a bookcase could be purchased. Each year thereafter, a sum of ten dollars could be collected to add to and maintain the library. This approach soon proved to not be successful, so the legislature in 1838 allocated the then-large sum of \$55,000 for a three-year period of time to establish and maintain libraries (Ditizon, 1940).

While the intentions were good in establishing the libraries, the end results often were not. The money could be used to also pay a teacher's salary, and often times very little money was left to buy books. When a collection was actually begun, keeping it proved to be troublesome. Just like with today's school libraries, these school-district libraries found that borrowers lost, damaged, or stole the materials. No one was really trained in library science, as that field had not yet been fully developed, so the collections were based upon specific interests of the book buyers. However, in Massachusetts under the guidance of Horace Mann, these libraries flourished. By 1842, the Massachusetts Legislature voted to match dollar for dollar what each community taxed itself for with regard to its school-district library. Horace Mann also developed the first guidelines for library collection development. Unlike the Sunday-school libraries,

these Massachusetts school-district library collections were strictly nonsectarian. All school students and community members could use the library (Long, 1969). The popularity of these school-district libraries with large collections and easy access led to the rise of the free public library movement in Massachusetts and the demise of the school-district library. Other states incorporated the prototype of the school-district library into their original state legislation. They were as follows: Michigan, Ohio, California, and Oregon. It is interesting to note here that wherever the New York model of the school-district library was transplanted, the limitations of the New York system followed. However, for many school-age children and adolescents, these school-district libraries provided the hook needed to get the students to read books. In some locations, the school-district library generated the needed impetus for the community to establish a tax-supported free public library, as had happened earlier in Pennsylvania (Thompson, 1952).

By the 1850s, the various conflicts of slave and free states were taking place. The Civil War of 1861-1865 effectively halted the growth of public and school libraries. However, during this time and just before the war, public, academic, and school libraries did become well established. The printing trade was growing as technological advances made printing books, magazines, and newspapers easier and cheaper. The different

types of libraries were established enough by 1871 to warrant a call by the director of the Worcester Public Library of Worcester, Massachusetts, Samuel Swett Green, to begin collaborating with one another in his city. While others lamented the lack of cooperative efforts among the varying libraries in the larger communities, or between just the school-district library and the free public library in all sizes of communities having both institutions, Green broke ground and established basic guidelines of cooperation between libraries for the benefit of all citizens. He began his first public library / academic library collaborations in 1871 (Thomas, 1982). His program was successful enough that he was able to approach officials of the public school system in 1879 with a similar collaborative offer (Green, 1883). The basic element of his collaborative venture was to bring the teaching faculty of each school to the public library, where he would produce different volumes from the collection that would enhance various lessons the teachers were required to teach. This was an exciting innovation to them, as they saw the potential to expand their lessons, reinforce the importance of reading, and tie the school to the public library for what we now call pleasure reading, and what was then called *home reading* (Green, 1880).

Green developed the early concept of classroom collections by allowing the teachers to have two library cards. One card allowed the

teacher to borrow professional books or books for creating lessons and projects, and the second card allowed teachers to check out books of interest to their students based upon the teachers' knowledge of the students' interests and reading abilities. In addition to this, the teachers were encouraged to bring their classes to the library to view special collections of photographs and engravings. This project became so popular that eventually all the elementary teachers in the school district began using the library. The principals of the various elementary buildings then stepped in and made arrangements for up to fifty books of varying degrees of difficulty and topics to be delivered to each of their buildings throughout the city. These books were returned after a set period of time and new ones picked by the library staff and sent to the schools (Thomas, 1982).

At the secondary level Green developed a more extensive program for the public schools to utilize the resources of the public library. The use of the library's materials was incorporated into the history, English, French, and German courses. To enhance the students' course work, they were allowed to visit the library during the school day for a couple of hours in groups of fifteen or twenty. As evidence of what they had accomplished during the library period, students received assistance in using the books. Through direct interaction with the students, the librarian

ascertained of the student “whether he knows how to use indexes, page headings, table of contents, etc., in his efforts to find out what is in the book or to obtain information sought for” (Green, 1880). To further assist the student, the librarian usually selected a collection of thirty or forty books that were related to their topics to be used during the study hour. If a class in French or German literature came to the library, it was offered examples of writers in that language to embellish the course work. For many of the English literature classes, multiple copies of a literary work were provided.

For Green, the public library was an active agent in promoting good reading to children. He stated that “. . . because a public library contains books adapted to persons of very different ages, taste and capacity, it also contains an array of materials that a teacher can use to meet the varying needs of his students” (p. 125). Not only did the library provide variety in reading matter, but its materials were selected for their quality. Using the books of the public library, the educator could elevate the reading taste of his or her students. Besides this, Green believed that if the imagination is to be trained, it must be stimulated largely by stories. He felt that few people enjoyed poetry, and therefore most boys and girls needed imaginative literature in the form of prose. Fiction was also seen as a device for inculcating positive moral values, but the fiction had to be of

high quality and wholesome (Green, 1880). Green was also an early advocate of recreational reading, supporting the idea that children knew best what they liked and should be free to pick it on their own accord. This concept was documented as improving reading by Stephen Krashen in the last decade of the twentieth century (Krashen, 1993).

In March, 1887, Green published information that explained his newest service to public schools – his in-house library collections that had been created and provided to classroom teachers in four schools throughout the district. Over three hundred dollars was used to develop the book collections. The money was well spent, as use of the materials hit great tallies (Thomas, 1982). Green reported to the district superintendent that for the 9th grade, sixty students over two and half months 183 books were taken home to read, while classroom use of the books as reference materials hit the level of 900 times used. In the 8th grade, fifty students took home 190 books to read, and used the items in class as reference sources 215 times. The thirty-four 7th graders took 274 books home to read and used them as reference sources 193 times. Finally, the 6th graders, all forty-two of them, took the books home 278 times and used them in their classroom as reference materials 350 times. By the end of the school year Green reported that the students and teachers had used the library materials at home at least 2,696 times.

When the reference use was added, the tally rose to an amazing 6,027 (Green, 1887). Green also reported that teachers had noticed improved reading skills and habits in their students. They also reported that their students enjoyed using the public library because of the interesting materials sent to the schools from the library (p. 116).

After Green published his findings and ideas of library services to schools, other public libraries around the country began programs of their own based upon Green's work. At the ALA conference of 1891 much discussion was made of the cooperation between public libraries and public schools. It was noted that Cleveland, Detroit, and Milwaukee public libraries had developed close working relationships with their public school systems. In the 1892 ALA conference it was again noted how important the cooperation between schools and libraries was. There was also an emerging belief that schools with libraries whose collections were based upon the specific curriculum of the school district and also supplied quality recreational reading materials for students could be just as effective. One such individual was Ellen M. Coe. Writing in the *Library Journal* in an article titled "The Relation of Libraries to Public Schools," she stated ". . . that the library and its work is supplementary to the school, or that the school is preparatory and introductory to the library" (p. 193). Through the educational process, the student acquired the skill for reading, the ability

to be discriminating in the choice of reading matter, and the knowledge to define special interests. The public library played an adjunct role by providing supplemental reading for the student and became the supplier of information for a lifetime. She referred to the need for a *permanent school library* as an entity in the educational framework. This library was not one that just received books regularly from the public library. She was supportive of the basic idea developed years earlier with the rise of district-libraries and the school district purchasing the library materials to be used by students within the school district (Coe, 1892). And while this public library/public school collaboration had set in motion the expanded public library services to young people during the 1880s and 1890s, it had also reinforced the concept of a stronger school library with its own curriculum-driven collection (Green, 1880b).

The Role of Professional Organizations and School Libraries

It was during this time just before the Civil War to the early decades of the twentieth century that great changes occurred in American education and public libraries which directly impacted the future of school libraries. One very important change was the rise of professional organizations. Sociologists term the process by which a loosely organized group becomes an organization “formalization” or “institutionalization.”

This process is one “in which groups create rules and procedures for the dispatch of business and for the regulation of the members “(Chapin and Tsouderos, 1955) and in which standard roles, duties, and behaviors are established (Litterer, 1965). The early wave in the development of professional organizations occurred between 1850 and 1879. These organizations tended to follow three stages of growth during rather specific time periods which researcher Corrine Gilb describes as follows:

1. Prior to 1850: an era of local and regional associations with only a few state associations.
2. 1850-1890: Organization of national and state professional associations. During this period the associations were often elitist in orientation and only loosely integrated at different geographical levels.
3. 1890-1920: Reorganization and closer integration of associations at different geographical levels. During this period associations sought more inclusive membership and vocational aims became more practical (Gilb, 1966).

Two associations developing at this time which aided in the growth of school libraries were the National Education Association (NEA) – first founded in 1856 as the National Teachers’ Association (NTA) - and the American Library Association (ALA) founded in the centennial year of the American Revolution, 1876 (Cutter and Ford, 1890). These two organizations promoted the fledgling local, then state, and finally regional organizations which had developed to provide leadership for school

librarians. Four years ahead of the NTA, during an 1853 conference for librarians held in New York City, librarians from all types of libraries tried to establish a professional organization. This attempt at a library association failed due to the lack of professional standards and college training when compared to teaching. However, in 1876, during a conference in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, the second attempt to organize a professional association for librarians was successful. Also in the 1870s the NTA broadened its occupational representation by consolidating with the Normal School Association, founded in 1858, and the National Superintendents' Association founded at the end of the Civil War in 1865. This new association became the National Education Association (NEA) in 1870 (Dewey, 1896).

The NEA and the ALA in the 1890s were still young professional associations, but they were nationally recognized as the professional associations for school personnel and library personnel. As national professional associations, ALA and NEA were not unlike other professional associations in existence by the close of the nineteenth century – elitist in orientation and only loosely integrated both within the organizations and at different geographical levels prior to 1890; they gradually reorganized in an attempt to achieve more inclusive

memberships and an integrated organizational structure. In spite of such attempts within ALA and NEA, significant membership growth and major reorganization did not occur until after World War I. Also, prior to 1920, in both organizations, activities were largely restricted to holding general meetings and to creating committees to accomplish association business. Programs at their annual conferences consisted of presentations of formal addresses followed by discussion by members of the audience and the reading of various committee reports and resolutions (Utley, 1926).

As both the NEA and ALA developed and reorganized, they accommodated the emerging trends in both education and librarianship with the addition of departments within the NEA and sections within ALA. The first departments were added in 1870, and the first section in 1889. Within the NEA, the Library Department was authorized in 1896. This action served to keep school library programs and personnel separate from library programs not only at the national level but also at the state level (Cutter, 1890). In her research to record the histories of the various groups which eventually formed what is now the Iowa Association of School Librarians, Betty Jo Buckingham found that in Iowa both the NEA affiliate, the Iowa State Education Association (ISEA), and the ALA affiliate, the Iowa Library Association (ILA), had worked together in the

form of annual conferences with school library personnel attending ILA conferences. Buckingham surmised that had not the ties been so strong among teacher-librarians to the education association, thinking of themselves as teachers, there would have been a professional subdivision within the ILA in the 1920s because of the similarities public librarians and school librarians shared professionally in their day to day activities in libraries. Instead, the school library people opted for committee status within ISEA. By 1950 they had left ISEA due to lack of support for school librarians and their programs; instead of joining the ILA, they decided to form a separate state-level organization affiliated with the national ALA and its division the American Association of School Librarians (AASL). Eventually this group, the Iowa Association of School Librarians (IASL) merged in the early 1970s with the audio visual association to form the Iowa Educational Media Association (IEMA) (Buckingham, 1978). In December 2003 IEMA voted to affiliate with ILA as a subdivision and reclaim their name IASL eighty plus years after initially considering becoming a subdivision within ILA.

Prior to the NEA recognition of the Library Department, there was direct communication and cooperation between the NEA and ALA for the betterment of school librarians. In the time period 1895-1896, a Denver

Public Library librarian by the name of John Cotton Dana began the dialog between the NEA and ALA. Dana's qualifications were immense. A native of Woodstock, Vermont, he graduated from Dartmouth College in 1878, studied law in Colorado and was admitted to the Colorado bar, and after returning to New York City, Dana was admitted to the New York state bar. He moved again, this time to Minnesota, and then back to Colorado. In 1888 he married and took up ranching. He continued to write, edit, and speak on religious and social issues of the day. One article on the subject of school libraries led to his meeting with the Denver school district superintendent, Aaron Gove, the brother of Frank Gove, a fellow Dartmouth graduate. The Gove connection gave Dana the opportunity to explore the creation of a joint public school-public library building project to promote the concept that both types of libraries could benefit everyone. His advocacy paid off with his appointment as the librarian for this new library at East Denver High School, an affiliate of the Denver Public Library system (Hadley, 1943).

This new library consisted of three reading rooms and a museum, all located on the ground floor of the west wing of the East Denver High School building. The school district and city of Denver combined the collection of taxes to build the school structure and the library, which

eventually became known as the Denver Public Library. Dana devoted much of his time to making and maintaining contacts of important people in the Denver area – educators, businessmen, clergymen, and social leaders – and letting them know of the services offered by the library. Among such services were several innovations which were beginning to receive attention at library conferences in the library press. Soon after he became the librarian, Dana inaugurated the practice of lending teachers from one to fifty books for use as school libraries in their classrooms. The students were free to check them out from their teachers and take the items home. This is the basic philosophy ascribed to by Samuel Swett Green in Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1879 (Green, 1883). Dana also was instrumental in opening one of the first public library children's rooms. Opened in September, 1894, this room held over 3,000 volumes on open shelves for children to browse through and pick to check out and take home. Dana accomplished this in a time era where many libraries kept books on closed shelves and retrieved the materials only after patrons asked for them. Children in Denver could either directly check out books from the library circulation desk or through their teachers and the little classroom libraries that were checked out to their teachers (Dana, 1896).

Throughout his career at the Denver Public Library, Dana maintained a lively interest in the field of education and gave special attention to developing the use of the public library by the public schools. He became active in ALA and became a close friend of Melvil Dewey. The two shared similar views on collaborating with the NEA to promote school librarianship and library programs. The field of library science/library and information science as it is known today didn't develop until Melvil Dewey created the first library school in the United States at Columbia University in 1883. Prior to that, library training, whether for public, school, academic, or specialized libraries reflected the attitudes and experiences of those teaching the courses throughout the country. Dewey was also the creator of what became known as the Dewey Decimal Classification system, which was first published in 1876 and provided a systematic process for cataloging materials. Dewey recognized the need for organizing and standardizing how libraries of all types operated to better manage the great increase of information due to advances in the publishing industry, the overall increase in disposable income, and the increase of public, academic, special, and school libraries throughout the United States due to economic prosperity (Thomison, 1978).

Dewey and Dana were equally dedicated to the idea of promoting public library service to schools. Dewey was a charismatic leader whose library evangelism inspired others to follow his lead and develop his ideas, while Dana was the intellectual leader and provocateur. These two leaders in 1896 were able to persuade the leadership of the NEA to form the Library Department (Lyndenberg, 1940). The two men were able to begin a petition drive that ultimately was voted upon in the affirmative and thus created the new department. It is interesting to note what Dana included in his petition to the NEA leadership about school libraries:

In connection with these school libraries a great many questions have arisen and are constantly arising, questions not yet satisfactorily answered. As, for instance, in regard to the number of books that should be included in them; the character of these books; the best reading for the young; questions of lending, of access, of manner of use, of influence etc. They are all matters which intimately concern the teacher. They are matters, that, in a different field, have been discussed by librarians in the annual conferences of their American Library Association, and in their library journals. Owing to the great demands on the librarians of public libraries in other directions, and owing to the peculiar nature of the questions which arise in regard to school libraries, it is not possible for professional librarians as such, to discuss, to propound, or to answer, as they should be answered, the question in regard to school libraries already hinted at.

In view of these considerations; of the widespread and growing interest in the subject and of the very important work such a department could do in enlightening school men, especially school boards of education and superintendents, in regard to the necessity for equipping

school rooms with appropriate book collections, we respectfully urge that you establish a School Library Section of the National Education Association (NEA, 1896).

During this time period, high school libraries, the forerunners of today's school libraries, were developing with a philosophy different from Dana. Dana wanted to have a full partnership between public libraries and public schools using public librarians with library science degrees and public library collections to meet what is known today as information needs of students and citizens. These new high school libraries tended to follow along the lines of earlier school-libraries. These library collections were based upon the curriculum being taught. Dana's library collection for schools used the wide ranging, eclectic public library collection. Dana's emphasis on collaborating between the trained librarian and the classroom teacher became one of the standards in school librarianship a century later in the ALA publication *Information Power* (1998). Dana's development of the concept of classroom collections or "schoolroom libraries" or simply "school libraries" was the forerunner of today's classroom collection concept, a component in most school district reading programs (Pond, 1982). Although open to interpretation – some researchers say the classroom collection should come from the school library, others support separate purchasing of materials just for the classroom (Krashen, 1993). Dana and Dewey pressed their views for

school libraries mostly due to the research of the time that promoted having students read books of their choosing to reinforce reading as a positive endeavor. Since Dewey's library school at Columbia was so new, the various types of programs to train librarians – public, academic, school, and special – had not yet developed. The last of these was that of the school librarian. So it is understandable why both Dana and Dewey supported the development of school libraries which would have the leadership of a university-trained individual in library science. Dewey urged in correspondence to NEA members considering the request to form a School Library Section (actually a department but referred to in the petition as a section) that the distinction between the work done by teachers in schools and that of librarians be observed. He felt that teachers should not do the work of librarians, for “the result of twenty years of study constantly confirms that opinion that the library and the school should be distinctly separated” (Dewey, 1896). Dewey's and Dana's petition to the NEA for a School Library Section was amended, at Dewey's request, to strike the word “school” before the word “library” from the last line of the petition. With this very significant amendment, the petition was accepted unanimously and the Library Department of the NEA was established (NEA, 1896). Dewey felt that the NEA had done the right thing in creating a library department, as it would encourage the

formulation of schoolroom libraries using public library collections. The public library would become a “co-worker with the school – the library as standing on its own independent footing, under its own board of management, with its own trained executive, the librarian. Such a library can be a more efficient co-worker” (Dewey, 1896). After the vote, both organizations agreed to form a joint committee to support library-related projects; thus, the NEA Library Department and the ALA Committee on Cooperation with NEA was formed and lasted from 1897 to 1910 (Pond, 1982).

Shortly after the first meeting of the NEA Library Department, misgivings within the library community about school and public library cooperation and programming began to appear in print. Emma Louise Adams, the librarian of the Plainfield, New Jersey, Public Library wrote in a *Library Journal* article “Library Work with Schools” that two main obstacles existed to prevent cooperation: 1. insufficient recognition of the importance of the work and consequent inadequate provision for it on the part of the public library leadership, and 2. the inability on the part of the school personnel to cooperate with the librarians due to perceived lack of “culture” and sometimes from “indifference” (Adams, 1898). The lack of cooperation on the part of the teachers was due to that group’s lack of

knowledge on how to use books, the lack of passion for literature in general, and lack of understanding of the value of the library service given by the public librarians. It must be remembered that most schoolteachers were not highly educated at this time, which accounts for the rather dim view college-educated public and academic librarians had of teachers by evidence of the preceding remarks. Normal school training, as teacher education was called, often consisted of special elective courses offered to high school students. Normal schools, colleges set up to only offer bachelor degrees in education became more prevalent after the Civil War to train teachers. Many school districts ended up with teachers who technically had only an 8th grade education with extra pedagogy courses. Others did, however, have bachelor and master degrees in education from universities (NEA, 1936). To counteract these negatives, it was decided that the public librarian would take the lead and create what today would be called professional development classes to educate the teachers on the values of cooperating with public librarians, provide a clear explanation of services, and promote the concept that using the library continues throughout one's life (*Library Journal*, 1899).

Secondary public schools in America had been growing throughout the country in the last part of the nineteenth century, and with them school

libraries. In 1876 there had been only 826 secondary school libraries of any type (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1876). By 1895 there were 3,921 public high schools with a library. By 1900, there were 5,211, and by 1912, 10,329 school libraries existed. Special school libraries, mostly private academies, barely grew in size during this time and numbered around 1,390. Many larger schools continued some type of cooperative ventures with large city libraries, but increasingly school libraries independent of public libraries became part of the American education scene. Secondary school libraries housed in the school itself with their own collections during this period were little more than bookcases in the backs of assembly halls or locked cases in the school office or principal's office (Pond, 1982). Even in 1912 only 250 secondary school libraries had collections totaling over 3,000 volumes. Most school librarians were teachers with no real library training. It wasn't until 1900 that a fulltime library-school-trained school librarian was appointed in a public high school (Greeneman, 1913). During this time little progress on school library leadership occurred in the NEA, and calls from school librarians, both public librarians working in schools and teachers working as librarians, in the form of letters to the editor to the *Library Journal* for leadership by the ALA to promote training and professional articles began to be heard (Pond, 1982). Katherine Sharp, the librarian and director of

the library training program at the Armour Institute of Technology in Chicago, addressed librarians at the 1895 ALA Denver conference and raised many of the questions and concerns school librarians had about their training and professional needs. While many of these librarians were public librarians working with schools, others were teachers managing growing collections bought with tax dollars and kept in schools. As part of her address, Miss Sharp raised this question which would remain a matter of debate for many years in the ALA, "Is it the opinion of the members of this conference that the public library can furnish all the books needed in the high schools?" (Sharp, 1895) A more generic version of this question had been raised in education and library circles prior to Miss Sharp's address. The year of the ALA conference public librarians had begun to answer the question by focusing on elementary schools and asking the NEA Library Department to assist them (Pond, 1982).

Trends in Education

The tenth amendment to the U. S. Constitution gave to the states all powers not reserved by the federal government, and this amendment was generally interpreted as authorizing the states to establish school systems. In 1837, Massachusetts became the first state to establish a state board of education. After this date within the state of Massachusetts

and other states, public elementary or “common schools” developed rapidly (Krug, 1964).

Secondary schools existed at this time, but they developed much more slowly. Denominational, proprietary, and endowed academies grew faster than public secondary schools. By the 1850s, however, a wide variety of schools giving some form of program beyond the elementary grades existed: high schools, academies, upper schools, grammar schools, union schools, preparatory schools, and preparatory departments of colleges. Prior to the Civil War, the principle of maintaining high schools at public expense had been thoroughly established in practice, although the number of such schools was hardly more than 300. State after state evolved the legal theory that high schools were simply the higher subjects of the common schools, and the theory became law through permissive legislation. The legal test of the theory was the famous Kalamazoo Case, which in 1874 settled the matter in favor of using tax funds for high schools (Krug, 1964).

During the period following the Civil War until about 1890, this truly American institution, the high school, continued to flourish. Between 1870 and 1890, the number of public high schools quintupled; between 1890 and 1910, the number quadrupled from 2,500 high schools in 1890 to

10,000 in 1910. Most of these schools were very small. By 1910, the average number of students per school was 89, and half the schools enrolled fewer than 50 students. Only a small percentage of youth of high school age (14-18 years old) were actually enrolled in public or non-public high schools until well after the turn of the century. The 6.7 percent of this age group enrolled in 1890 had only increased to 15.4 percent in 1910. The elementary school at the end of the nineteenth century continued to provide the only public education common to most of the American public (Pond, 1982).

By the 1890s, however, the existence of the public high school was sufficiently widespread, and the curricula of these schools were so varied that questions concerning these schools were beginning to arise, particularly from the administrators of colleges and universities, institutions which like the high school had been characterized by tremendous change and expansion since the Civil War. The length of the high school course, the nature and content of the high school curriculum, college entrance requirements, and the distinction between high schools and colleges became matters of particular concern. While the famous 1892-1893 NEA Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, the 1895-1899 NEA Committee on College Entrance Requirements, and the newly-formed

regional accrediting associations directed particular attention to standardizing high school curricula and to determining college entrance requirements, the public high school continued as a subject of much discussion among educators (Wesley, 1957).

Throughout the latter decades of the nineteenth century and first decade of the twentieth century, the National Education Association continued to provide a common ground for the discussion of the education of the American populace, whether in elementary schools, secondary schools, normal schools, or institutions of higher education. Discussion was the order of the day at nation and state education association meetings:

Educators of the nineteenth century, like Americans generally, had a naïve faith in the value of intellectual exchange and the efficacy of discussion. That wisdom would evolve from debate and unity from diversity were major articles of the national creed (Krug, 1972).

Trends in Librarianship

Librarians in the nineteenth century shared with educators faith in the value of discussion. Such faith led the heads of large public, college, mercantile, and proprietary libraries, who felt the need of taking counsel together, to found the American Library Association in 1876 (Cutter, 1890).

Librarians shared with educators other tenets of the national creed: the value of education in general and the importance of free public education to ensure the informed electorate needed in a democracy. In promoting the public library movement during the latter half of the nineteenth century, librarians were quick to seize on the idea of the public library as the people's university: the capstone of the American system of free public education. The educational process, it was suggested, began with Friederich Froebel's methods as applied in the home and school and ended with the public library, the latter being the most important (Ditzion, 1947).

The social importance of universal education was an idea of considerable appeal to the popular mind and was a necessary prelude to the support required to meet the goals of both the movement for free public education, which developed rapidly after 1830, and the movement for free public libraries, which developed after 1850 (Shera, 1947).

As mentioned earlier, parallel with the development of the common schools in the 1830s, particularly in Massachusetts and New York, was the development of school-district libraries. There is little information or documentation found in the educational press of the 1820s and 1830s to shed light on the movement toward these public libraries with a school

district as the taxing unit and placement of the books in a building where the greatest number of citizens could access the collection, often times in school buildings. It is known, however, that Horace Mann built upon the ideas of others on this topic and came up with a unique philosophy of making these libraries as institutions for the use of those attending the schools where the collection was housed. The type of institution which developed from 1835 onward became something quite different. Although their name might imply that these libraries were housed in a school building for the use of school children and their teachers, school-district libraries developed into collections more tailored to adult readers and were not always housed in schools (Ditzion, 1947).

By 1876, nineteen states had provided legislation to promote school district libraries, but by this time such libraries were largely a failure (Cecil and Heaps, 1940), as duly reported in the section on “School and Asylum Libraries,” in the famous 1876 report of the U.S. Bureau of Education on public libraries. Causes for the failure were identified in the report as ‘defects of legislation,’ particularly failure to provide for supervision of book selection and for continuation of financial support, and “defects of administration,” specifically placing the libraries in charge of teachers or superintendents quite unqualified to manage them and less

than enthusiastic about continuing them (U. S. Bureau of Education, 1876).

Eventually these district-school libraries were merged into larger or union or centralized district libraries. Ditzion writes that it is in terms of these combined libraries that the district-school library must be measured. The books from the collection eventually ended up in the city or town library. But while these libraries may have disappeared, their enduring legacy became the established principle of tax support for a library all citizens could use (Ditzion, 1947).

Trends in School Librarianship

The educational environment supportive of modern school libraries did not begin to develop until late in the nineteenth century. Public high school libraries evolved first, but did not begin to flourish until after the turn of the century. The term “modern school libraries” is used here to identify the kind of school library which developed in the twentieth century and is under the control of the school board, district administration, building administration, and supervised by a teacher with either a library science degree or license endorsement from library science courses taken to meet state standards. This library is supported by local taxes paid by citizens of the school district and is organized and staffed for the exclusive benefit of

students, faculty, and others associated with the school system and housed in a school building. The twentieth century model of the school library, which continues to evolve now in the twenty-first century, differs substantially from the typical school-library of the past century. The modern school library is staffed with a trained librarian and assistants, has budgets for materials, and operates from written policies and procedures for providing excellent service in all aspects of the library program (ALA, 1998). The term school library had numerous meanings in the nineteenth century. When not used in reference to a school-district library or academy library, it usually meant only a collection of books in a school room or administrative office, for the term “school” was used as the equivalent of today’s “class” or “grade.” Most school libraries were in elementary schools rather than secondary schools, and the small collection of fifty books or fewer which comprised these “libraries” was usually loaned to the school by the local public, municipal, or state library rather than being owned and created by the school district (Pond, 1982).

As a collection of books, other than textbooks, located in a school building for the use of students and teachers, such school libraries may be considered a forerunner of the modern school library (Melvin, 1962). Because they were so closely aligned to the public library system in each

community, it is hard to distinguish school libraries and public libraries which began providing service to children, adolescents, and educators. The early school libraries or classroom libraries, sometimes called "schoolroom libraries," plainly illustrate the success of public library leaders selling their services to educators, who while quite willing to accept a free service from the public library, were not yet ready to support such a service from public school funds. Conversely, educators were not encouraged to create tax dollar supported school libraries by public librarians. The public librarians, partially due to their librarianship training and superior education backgrounds, felt the best source for books was the public library, as public library services to schools could meet the needs of expanding reading programs in the schools and could teach students and teachers alike important library skills (Green, 1883). Emphasizing the value of libraries as agencies of public education and concentrating their efforts on opening school departments and children's rooms in the central library building and opening community branch libraries (some in public high schools), public librarians were hardly aware of the distinction between service to the public and service to students enrolled in a specific curricula (Melvin, 1962).

This blurred vision of providing service to the public and to the public schools is what caused the ALA to ask for clarification shortly after the NEA voted to create its Library Department, mentioned earlier in this work. School programs at both the elementary and secondary levels were becoming more book-centered due to changes in teaching methods (Shera, 1947).

In the latter decades of the nineteenth century two general influences increased the demand for more books in the schools: changes in teaching materials and changes in philosophy on how to best educate children. The first of these was a change in the materials used in teaching reading. Beginning about 1880, elementary schools, in an attempt to build appreciation of literature and permanent interest in reading, began to utilize individual works by writers of acknowledged merit in teaching reading. Prior to this, the accepted format of the material was that of the primer or reading textbook; these textbooks were ordered in classroom sets and given to students to use each school day. The change from these reading textbooks to varied reading materials and emphasis on extensive reading in the elementary schools led to the development of public library services to elementary teachers, then public library service to elementary school age children, and, by the turn of the

century, to children's rooms and school departments in the public library. As stated earlier in this work, Horace Mann, John Cotton Dana, and Samuel Swett Green adapted their library services to schools in their communities following this shift in the elementary school curriculum and then expanded these basic services to the older students in the upper grades through high school (Dana, 1916).

The second influence that increased the demand for more books in schools was the Herbartian movement which, beginning in about 1890, attempted to promote character development through the reading of historical and literary works. This affected the teaching of reading in the elementary schools and the teaching of reading of English and history in high schools, and eventually led to the purchase of supplementary collections of books for use in teaching, particularly in the high schools. It was from such collections or "libraries" that the public high school library developed and from which modern public high school libraries evolved (Cecil and Heaps, 1940).

In addition to these two general influences, several developments of the 1890s led more directly to the expansion of high school libraries. The first of these was the recognition of the distinction between school-district libraries as public libraries and school libraries as part of basic

equipment of a school. In New York State, where school-district libraries had first developed, a reaction against the loose methods of such libraries led in 1892 to new legislation requiring school districts to raise school library money as a condition for receiving an allotment from the state. The legislation also required that books be kept in a school building and that a teacher be appointed to act as a librarian. Also, all books toward an allotment of which state money was made had to have the approval of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. In order to carry out the necessary supervision, an inspector of school libraries was appointed by the New York State Education Department to help schools improve their book collections and to encourage students to read. The 1892 New York law allowed only school officials, teachers, and students to borrow books, but in 1910, an amendment to the law allowed for the lending of books to residents of the school district (Vought, 1923). Although the school libraries reorganized by the 1892 law eventually became public libraries – that is, like the school-district libraries which had been in existence prior to 1892 – the significance of the legislation in New York, a bellwether state in the development of free public education and free public libraries, was the recognition of the school library as part of the basic “equipment” of a school and the provision at the state level for supervision of school libraries. Between 1891 and 1911, four states – New York, Wisconsin,

Washington, and Minnesota – established state school library supervisory positions (Voss, 1968).

Two other developments led to the acceptance of the high school library as part of the basic equipment of secondary schools, whether public or private: 1. recommendations in reports of two subcommittees of the NEA Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies (1892-93), and 2. standards for accreditation of secondary schools set by regional accrediting associations, beginning with those of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1896. Appointed by the prestigious National Council of Education of the NEA in 1892, and the first of the influential NEA investigative committees, the Committee of Ten appointed nine subcommittees of ten members each, which met for a three-day conference and forwarded their conclusions to the main committee. The final report made recommendations on the scope and content of the secondary school curriculum, especially in relation to the elementary schools and to colleges (Sizer, 1964).

The report of the subcommittee on history, civil government, and political economy noted that the curriculum and methods described in their report required a “considerable school library” and that of the 151 high schools examined in preparing the report, only fifty appeared to have a

good library of "ordinary reference books," and only forty, a library of comparative historical literature. Suggesting that it is as "impossible to teach history without reference books, as it is to teach chemistry without glass and rubber tubing," the committee included two recommendations which had ramifications for the expansion of high school library collections: "that pupils should be required to learn one other account besides that of the textbook on each lesson" and "that a collection of reference books, as large as the means of the school allow, should be provided for every school, suitable for use in connection with all the historical work done in that school"(NEA, 1892).

In the report of the subcommittee on English, recommendations for high school course work required for admission to college included the following:

Reading of masterpieces of English literature representative of all periods.

A considerable number of the kind of books to be read by the student "cursorily and by himself."

In connection with the reading of all required books, teachers should encourage parallel or subsidiary reading and investigation of pertinent questions in literary history and criticism (NEA, 1892).

The influence and effect of the report of the Committee of Ten was tremendous (Sizer, 1964), and in view of the recommendations of the reports of the history and English subcommittees, it is not surprising that many of the pioneers of the high school library movement prior to 1910 were English and history teachers not trained as librarians. Even by 1915, only fifty library school graduates had been appointed to high school library positions, with ten of these in New York City alone (Hall, 1915). Neither is it surprising that from New York state, where school-district libraries first developed, where school libraries were recognized as basic school equipment, where state supervision of school libraries was provided, and where more trained librarians held high school library positions than in any other state, strong leadership for the high school library movement developed (Pond, 1982).

In the same decade as the report of the NEA Committee of Ten and the report of the NEA Committee on College Entrance Requirements (1895-99), other attempts were being made to standardize secondary school curricula and college entrance requirements, most notably those by the various regional accrediting associations. The associations sprang up near the end of the nineteenth century when groups of colleges began to

seek ways to improve the quality of education in both secondary schools and colleges (Krug, 1972).

The first regional association recommendations which mentioned the high school library were those of the North Central Association. At its first meeting in 1896, the Association set as one of its three requirements for recognition of a secondary school that the school have “sufficient equipment consisting of a library, suitable rooms, and a laboratory or laboratories” (Jesse, 1896). By 1901, the North Central Association had begun to work on a formal statement of standards, and the standards agreed upon in 1902 included a statement that “library facilities should be adequate to the needs of instruction.” After 1902, the library was included as one of the areas to be evaluated in the accrediting of a secondary school for membership to the North Central Association, and the criteria for the library showed a trend toward better facilities with each revision of the standards. Other regional accrediting associations followed the lead of the North Central Association (McVey, 1944).

By the year 1900, conditions favored development of the high school library although rapid development of this new kind of school library did not begin for another ten years. By the turn of the last century, American librarianship had entered its professional adolescence (Shera,

1947). Within the last quarter of the nineteenth century the American Library Association had been organized (Gates, 1968), state library associations had been founded, beginning with the New York State Library Association in 1890 and followed shortly thereafter by the Iowa Library Association, and schools of library science at universities and colleges had been established. Beginning with Melvil Dewey's organization of the School Library Economy at Columbia in 1887 (moved in 1889 to the New York State Library where it continued under Dewey's direction as the New York State Library School), library schools had been established at Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, Drexel Institute in Philadelphia, and the Armour Institute in Chicago, and apprentice classes had begun at the public libraries in Log Angeles, Denver, and Cleveland (Utley, 1926).

The existence of a considerable body of professional literature was another indication of the level of development of American librarianship. *Library Journal*, founded in 1876, served as the official journal of the American Library Association until 1907 when the *ALA Bulletin*, devoted almost exclusively to news of interest to ALA members, began publication. Whether as the official journal of ALA or not, the *Library Journal* continued to serve as the important general source of current information on libraries and librarianship. Another periodical in the field was *Public Libraries*,

founded twenty years after the *Library Journal*, in 1896. Among landmark publications were Melvil Dewey's decimal classification system, first published in 1876 and revised periodically thereafter, the 1876 U.S. Bureau of Education report on public libraries, various compilations of public library statistics by the Bureau, the *ALA Handbook* (1894), a directory of the association and its membership, John Cotton Dana's *Library Primer*, first published in *Public Libraries* in 1896 and in book form in 1899, and two reading lists for young people, Hewins' *Books for the Young*, published in 1882 and revised in 1897 as *Books for Boys and Girls*, and Sargent's *Reading for the Young*, published in 1890. With the turn of the century came landmark publications from the newly-established H.W. Wilson Company: the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (1901), and the first two titles in the Standard Catalog series, *Fiction Catalog* (1908) and *Children's Catalog* (1909) (Utley, 1926).

Closely identified with most of the developments in library service and librarianship in the last quarter of the nineteenth century was the American Library Association, organized in 1876 and incorporated in 1879. Founded for the general purpose of "advancing library interests," the ALA sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. By organization and force of numbers to effect needed reforms and improvements, most of which could not be brought about by individual effort.
2. By cooperation, to lessen labor and expense of library administration.
3. By discussion and comparison, to utilize the combined experiments and experience of the profession in perfecting plans and methods, and in solving difficulties.
4. By meetings and correspondence, to promote acquaintance and *spirit de corps* (ALA, 1907).

In the last decade of the nineteenth century, the American Library Association in an effort to achieve its general purpose, advancing library interests, and its specific objectives, turned to the National Education Association to seek support for the idea of school and public library cooperation. The establishment in 1896 first of the NEA Library Department and then the ALA Committee on Cooperation with NEA followed by publication of the NEA Report of the Committee on the Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools in 1899, were envisioned as means of formalizing earlier attempts by individual librarians to define the educational role of the public library and to clearly explain the nature of the service of this kind of educational institution to another educational institution, the public schools. The emphasis in such efforts was on

cooperation between libraries and schools in the educational process and on services of public librarians to school administrators and teachers rather than on direct services to students (Pond, 1982).

Although a list of topics discussed at NEA meetings during the first century of its history, 1857-1956, includes "school libraries" as a topic with a high level of frequency (Wesley, 1957), prior to 1910, actual discussion of this topic rarely included consideration of school libraries. Beginning with the 1880 Conference, NEA addresses emphasized the importance of reading in the schools, the value of "school libraries" (classroom collections of public library materials checked out to teachers), and the need for school library service supplied by public libraries. While most of the NEA addresses were by educators, their points of view varied little from those presented by librarians in ALA addresses between 1879, when one session was devoted to consideration of the reading of school children and to the mutual relations of the public school and the public library, through 1892, when another session was devoted to the latter topic. Katherine Sharp's 1895 ALA address "Libraries in Secondary Schools," marked the first time an ALA conference program had included consideration of the newer type of school library supplied by the school for use by students and teachers in the school. Even after Sharp's address,

in neither ALA nor NEA conference addresses did the newer type of school library receive much attention until after 1910, when the high school library movement began to gain impetus by its promotion in the regional accrediting associations standards. A similar situation prevailed in the pages of periodicals for librarians and educators (Ditzion, 1947).

Training Teachers in the Administration and Use of Libraries

During the early years of the twentieth century, leaders in the departments and sections of both the NEA and ALA that were associated with school libraries became increasingly concerned with the lack of professional recognition of the school libraries throughout the country. Charles Cotton Dana, chair of the NEA Committee on the relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools, wrote a 100 page report that made practical suggestions to classroom teachers on how to make use of joint public library/public school programs. The report, actually a handbook, broke down the sizes of libraries and schools to better relay expectations of services and total numbers of materials to be shared and included book lists for reading, reference, and supplementary use in grade schools. It also included a list of 100 titles for high schools, as well as bibliographies to articles on promoting reading and establishing and maintaining classroom libraries and public libraries in communities of various sizes

(Dana, 1899). The NEA Board of Directors supported the report and voted to print and distribute it. A total of 2,000 copies were printed with only around 600 being distributed to members. The remaining 1,400 were then sent to committee members for distribution throughout the education community around the country. Dana was successful in persuading the U.S. Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, to reprint the report as part of his annual report (Dana, 1899). At this time interest in collaborating on the subject of school libraries between the NEA and the ALA began to wane. Both groups with the NEA and ALA lost members, and fewer of the school library people began attending yearly conferences. Dana and Melvil Dewey looked for a way to bolster the flagging interest in school libraries and came upon the idea of securing librarians and teachers from around the country to write articles that would be published in professional journals. After initial promises from editors and publishers to receive and publish these school library-related articles, reality set in as most of the publishing people backed out of their commitments and the articles were not published in any great numbers. Dana suggested in various communications and reports to NEA leaders that the lack of cooperation and lack of interest in publishing the school library articles “was somewhat indicative of the comparative unimportance of librarians in the opinion of education people in this country” (Dana,

1901). Dana noted that while the leadership of NEA supported school library programs, the rank and file members had little appreciation of the library and its value to teaching. This appears to be an underlying thought that has stayed with educators up to the present when cuts are made in school library programs. The perceived indifference by teachers to library programs and services provided by librarians led Melvil Dewey to suggest the implementation of an idea Dana had written about earlier: in order to stimulate an interest in library programs, library training programs would be developed and taught in normal school training courses. Rather than attempting to reach teachers only after they were on the job, Dewey suggested that the ALA also attempt to reach them during their training in normal school (ALA, 1901). Due to the increasing lack of attendance at both NEA and ALA meetings and conferences by those supportive of school library programs, progress began to lag on the shift from public library services to school libraries to the administration and development of school libraries that would meet the needs of students and teachers.

In 1903, two new topics began to dominate school-public library cooperation as the primary topic of addresses and discussions at the NEA Library Department meetings and ALA committee concerned with school libraries: the role of the normal school in library training of teachers –

instruction in library administration and in books suitable for children and young people's reading, and the importance of the library to classroom instruction, particularly in high schools. This linking of library training at the normal school and the high school was the next logical step in the development of the school library. Some normal schools during this time period were little more than high schools themselves. Students in schools of this type completed a high school course of study plus a few professional courses and upon graduation taught in rural schools or small town schools. The other type of normal school, by far the most prevalent, was the two-year normal school. High school graduation was an entrance requirement, and upon completion of college and professional courses, graduates taught in elementary or small secondary schools. The third type of normal school, of which there were not large numbers, was the four-year normal college or teachers' college. Upon completion of regular college courses and professional courses, graduates taught the standard high school subjects or became principals or superintendents. Many of these normal schools maintained laboratory schools as a place for demonstration of preferred teaching methods and student teaching. Because some normal schools were in fact high schools, because many normal schools maintained high schools and an interest in high school methods, and because normal school graduates rather than library school

graduates usually became the “librarian” in a school, the normal school and the high school were increasingly linked together in the school library movement (Kerr, 1913).

In the 1904 NEA Library Department meeting, three resolutions were offered and passed that expressed concern for and support of library programs by teachers, that shifted the focus away from free or recreational student reading to curriculum-oriented reading, and endorsed the establishment of a manual of instruction for the use of libraries (NEA, 1904). Soon after this meeting, James Canfield, the ALA chairman of the joint committee on cooperation with the NEA sent a letter to all presidents of normal schools urging them to include definite instruction in the fundamentals of library economy/library administration in the preparation of teachers and suggesting that if replies to his letter indicated sufficient demand for a textbook on the subject, such a textbook might be supplied. Canfield, in other correspondence, justified the need for normal school instruction in library administration not only because all teachers should know something of the subject, but also because so many teachers were, of necessity, serving as librarians in their schools (ALA, 1904). These part time school librarians or teacher-librarians, as they were usually called, were greatly increasing in number, mostly at the high school level.

Because of this increase, some notice was beginning to be taken regarding training for these teacher-librarians (Lohrer, 1968).

By the time Canfield presented his preliminary report of the Joint Committee at the 1905 Library Department meeting, the proposed textbook with the working title *Instruction in Library Work for Normal and Secondary Schools* was well underway. In its preliminary form, as well as its final form, it had ten chapters, one for each of the ten planned lectures which explained how to run a school library. Two resolutions approved at the 1905 Department meeting endorsed beliefs incorporated in the manual: that all teachers should learn the elementary essentials of library administration, and that teachers should acquaint themselves with the reading interests of children and young people and the books suitable for them. This report/project was then given over to Elizabeth G. Baldwin, librarian of Teachers College, Columbia University, under the supervision of Canfield, the chair of the joint ALA/NEA committee- Joint Committee – and the head Columbia University Librarian, who solicited other committee members' suggestions (Pond, 1982). By May, 1906, the report was printed as an NEA publication and also as part of the 1906 NEA proceedings. The new textbook was really more a book of texts which allowed for great flexibility in use by instructors and students alike in normal schools and high schools. The project was hoped by the

committee to serve as a guide for these students and teachers already at work in schools, and that the information would “stimulate and render more efficient the interest of school officers and the general public in the administration and work of public libraries” (NEA 1906).

In essence what the report did was to grudgingly recognize and accept the usefulness of school libraries as distinct from classroom libraries, to recognize the importance of training students and teachers to use school libraries as well as public libraries, and to support the need for a trained teacher-librarian, not a public librarian, to administer these emerging school libraries with curriculum-based collections. The report went on to distinguish between two types of school libraries: *reference* libraries, which supplied standard reference book and books related to the curriculum of the school, and *general* libraries, which served both as school and public libraries in small communities. The latter, it was felt, more than the former needed a trained librarian (Pond, 1982). Also, it was felt that if a community had a public library, a school library was considered to be of “secondary importance, and usually an unnecessary feature of school organization.” Also, the school library was seen as “first aid to the classroom,” and was mainly created to furnish additional incentive for students to expand their reading skills and build interest in a wide range of subjects by providing high quality books, magazines and

newspapers (NEA, 1906). The 1906 textbook/report had the printed title of *Report on Instruction in Library Administration in Normal Schools*, and was subsequently reprinted in 1910 by the NEA. However, shortly after its release, there were indications that the information was not being used in schools. Surveys and follow up letters mailed out to schools which had been sent the material proved this lack of acceptance. The 1906 NEA conference, where the issue of the school library training manual/textbook was to have been discussed, had been scheduled for San Francisco, but the great earthquake of that year forced the conference to be cancelled. The ALA held its conference that year in Rhode Island, and the joint NEA/ALA committee took the opportunity to look back over the last ten years of the joint venture and reflect on the success and failures of the various initiatives. While most of the delegates praised the cooperative efforts, they were quick to cite failure after failure to bridge the challenges of creating a strong school library program and teacher-librarian training program. The ALA increasingly became the association that planned, organized, and initiated the projects and programs between them and the NEA. A year later in 1907, R. J. Tighe, the president of the Southern Educational Association, spoke of his wish that every public library and every school library would have "a librarian trained to meet the needs of the schools, one who understands courses of study and how to correlate

the work of the library with the school” (Tighe, 1907). From 1907 to 1910, the Joint Committee worked to create more planned coordination between NEA and ALA members with regard to school libraries and public libraries. Lagging attendance and loss of support for the Library Department within NEA prompted the NEA Executive Board to propose the disbandment of the Joint Committee in 1910 (NEA, 1910).

The High School Library Movement

At the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century, the school library movement regained its health as it focused on new goals with strong new leaders. School librarians, the normal school and high school teacher-librarians, rather than public librarians began to chart the course for themselves. When individual protests and the resolution passed at the ALA Council at its 1910 Midwinter meeting seemed of little avail in changing the minds of the NEA leadership’s decision to end the Joint Committee on libraries, it looked as if the school library movement might not continue. However, at the 1910 NEA conference a series of events changed the school library movement in dramatic and positive ways (Pond, 1982).

The first event was the decision to allow department presidents to state their cases for maintaining departments recommended for reorganization. This allowed the Library Department’s president to state

why school libraries were important and why the department needed NEA support.

A second event was the establishment of the NEA Department of Secondary Education Committee on the Articulation of High School and College, which became one of the most important educational policy making groups in the history of secondary education. Eventually renamed the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (CRSE), this confederation of many subcommittees was headed by Clarence Kingsley, a mathematics teacher at Brooklyn Manual Training High School. Kingsley was active in leading teachers against the domination by colleges and universities of high school curricula through control of college entrance requirements. The Commission had a tremendous influence upon the new curricula of high schools, which supported expanded school libraries.

The third event was the adoption of a resolution at the NEA Department of Secondary Education's English Round Table by the New York City teachers protesting college entrance requirements in English. This resolution called for teachers of English to present their findings at the college entrance group's meeting later that year. At the NEA conference a year later, Round Table members called for the NEA to establish a National Council of Teachers of English to provide an effective

means for English teachers throughout the country to work together. The NEA did not establish this new association within the organization, so the English teachers organized the association themselves; the new group came into being in December, 1911, and its official publication became the *English Journal*. The NCTE became an early ally of school librarians due to their combined interest in providing opportunities for students to read quality books. Joint English teacher and teacher-librarian lists of books for students to read provided a strong basis for support to the school library movement. Many English teachers also served as teacher-librarians, further strengthening the school library movement.

The fourth event was a meeting of all members interested in improving high school libraries, held immediately following the final session of the Library Department meeting. The members attending formed the core group that would create ideas on a national campaign for better high schools. In attendance at this meeting was Mary E. Hall, librarian at Girls' High School, Brooklyn. It was her leadership that led the school library movement from a strong base in local New York to a strong national base in NEA and eventually ALA and NCTE (Pond, 1982).

Mary Hall was one of the first persons with library school training ever appointed to a high school library position. A quiet person by nature, Mary Hall became the leader of the school library movement during the

decade of 1910-1920. A Pratt Institute Library School graduate of 1895, she accepted a position at Pratt, allowing her to stay close to family and friends. Pratt was building a new library to serve students in the Institute as well as the public. A children's room was included in the new library, and it was here that Hall came upon her ideas of a high school library. Another important person in the school library movement was Mary Plummer, a graduate of Melvil Dewey's first library school class at Columbia and the founder of the second library school in the nation at Pratt. Plummer influenced Hall's thinking about school libraries that were independent of public libraries (Hall, 1944).

Hall would spend the decade traveling and speaking throughout the country on the importance of school libraries. Assisted by a supportive principal, Dr. William Felter, who would become a leader in the progressive education movement, Hall was able to travel on behalf of school library business and also create a model school library for the time period. By 1916, when Girls' High School had an enrollment of 2,200, the library had been expanded to seat 126 students in two rooms: a large reading room with a book stack area at one end and a library classroom complete with a mini stage that could be curtained off. The collection of 9,500 books, except for a few expensive volumes which were kept in locked cases, was on open shelves along with newspapers and

periodicals. Hall also had other materials and equipment available for student and faculty use, which included pamphlets, general interest clippings, vertical files, pictures, maps, electric lantern slides, phonographs and recordings, and an opaque projector (Hall, 1915). Hall's leadership in local New York City and state educational groups which promoted school libraries followed in a long line of leaders which saw the need and importance of libraries. Aided by Mary Plummer as the New York Library Association president and author of a report detailing the establishment of school libraries throughout the state, Hall was able to write articles and deliver addresses in support of expanded school libraries, focusing on surveying facilities and programs of school libraries in the state. These facility reports were added to Plummer's committee report on revising the curriculum for school librarianship. Hall became involved in more and more library-related state groups and then in groups at the national level during the decade of 1910-1920.

The Education Reform Movement

The movement to reform school libraries came from the larger reform movement. Its other two areas of reform were high school reorganization and the restructuring of English programs in secondary schools. The three movements reflected the shift in educational leadership during the first decade of the twentieth century from college

academicians, who had been very powerful in the past century, to professional educators. These professional educators included professors of education in normal schools, colleges, and universities; state and city superintendents and supervisors; principals; and classroom teachers. Also during this period teachers began to emerge as leaders in professional associations and the various activities the associations sponsored (Wesley, 1957).

Part of the shift in educational leadership resulted from the professionalization of teaching which began in the late nineteenth century as more training was required of persons seeking teaching certificates. It was during this time (1890s) that the concept of summer schools began in order to produce more teachers, and at about the same time colleges and universities began to organize professional schools of education. With the second decade of the twentieth century came the movement of normal schools transitioning into four-year colleges and teacher education programs becoming baccalaureate programs instead of two-year certificate programs. These new teacher training programs, however, began to train mostly secondary teachers and not elementary teachers. It wasn't until the 1950s that elementary schools began requiring baccalaureate degrees to gain employment. Because of this discrepancy in education, elementary teachers received less pay than the four-year

degree holding secondary teachers. This lasted well into the twentieth century and mostly impacted women (Wesley, 1957).

As teaching became more professionalized, classroom teachers began to seek more active roles in curriculum development and educational policymaking, both the prerogatives of school administrators during the nineteenth and early twentieth century. True teacher input into these areas didn't really occur until after World War I, when the NEA bowed to the more militant voices of classroom teachers and placed them in leadership roles. In the years before and after the Great War, American education experienced many changes to meet the demands of a rapidly changing society. Besides the NEA and groups such as the NCTE, state education, and library-related groups, other sources of leadership and change emerged. One such source was the U. S. Bureau of Education. During this time, the Bureau compiled statistical data and material for bulletins and reports of a multitude of educational topics. Beginning in 1913, the Bureau became the publisher of many reports of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (Krug, 1972).

Regional accrediting associations, which followed the lead of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, began establishing standards for high schools between 1910 and 1920. These

other associations were the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools (Gates, 1968).

Elementary and secondary education were both affected by various social reform movements which attempted to protect children and youth from physical abuse, ignorance, disease, moral corruption, and exploitation as a source of cheap labor. Child labor and compulsory school attendance laws passed during this period helped keep school age youth out of mines and factories, and at the same time made it possible for them to attend school for longer periods of time. In an effort to decrease school failure rates, which rose as the percentage of school-age youth attending school increased, and to make the schools themselves more socially efficient by preparing students for productive roles as members of society, elementary and secondary curricula were expanded to include a wide variety of vocational and practical subjects: hygiene, physical education, home economics, industrial arts, business education, etc. (Krug, 1972).

Another trend which affected elementary and secondary education was the movement toward standardization and efficiency in school administration. Earlier manifestations of this trend included attempts to

standardize the length and scope of high school programs and to determine college entrance requirements by the NEA Committee of Ten, the NEA Committee on College Entrance Requirements, and the various regional accrediting associations. The regional associations cooperated with the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English which, beginning in 1894, met every two years to revise lists of books that became the basis of college entrance examinations in English given by individual colleges and, after 1900, by the College Entrance Examination Board. Because these lists tended to limit the English curriculum to the study of only the books on the lists, especially the Harvard classics, they became the particular target of protests by English teachers attempting to modernize and expand the curriculum (Krug, 1972).

During the period of 1910-1920, two NEA committees continued to grapple with the problems of standardizing school programs: the National Council of Education-sponsored Committee on Economy of Time in Education (1910-1919), and a similarly named committee of the NEA Department of Superintendence (1911-1919), but neither resolved the questions of whether the time that could be saved should be shaved from the high school or the college course of study (Graham, 1967).

Attempts such as these in the interests of economy and efficiency in education provided evidence of the growing enchantment of educators with ideas of scientific management techniques borrowed from business and industry. Spurred on by requirements of an increasingly complex educational enterprise, professors of education and school administrators devised numerous standards and tests for measuring the efficiency of school systems, programs, and teachers and the intelligence and achievement of students. Tools thus developed were used in educational surveys which became an increasingly popular means of gathering information after 1910 (Pond, 1982).

At the elementary level, a new concept of platoon schools was beginning to be embraced around the country. This concept tried to put into practice the concepts of scientific management and social efficiency while meeting the individual and social needs of children. These platoon schools were also known as the “work-study-play plan” or the Gary Plan, named after the first large school system in which it was adopted. In these schools the students were divided into platoons or groups. While one platoon worked at fundamental skill subjects in regular classrooms, other platoons engaged in activity subjects on the playground or in special rooms such gymnasiums, shops, and school libraries. Throughout the

school day, platoons alternated between activities, shifting *en-masse* from one to another on a rigid schedule (Cecil and Heaps, 1940).

At the secondary level, the distinction was neither between fundamental skill subjects and activity subjects or the elementary school, nor as had been true at the time of the Committee of Ten, between modern subjects, such as English and modern foreign languages, and the classics, but between the practical and the academic. The value of a subject in mental training, a particular concern of the Committee of Ten's work, was no longer an issue but another concern of that Committee, alleged college domination of the high schools continued, but with a difference. During the 1890s the issue had been the quality of material in the subjects required for college entrance, now the issue was the types of subjects required, especially in the areas of mathematics and foreign languages. The latter subjects were deemed the major cause of the high rates of failure which accompanied the rapid growth of high school enrollments after the turn of the century. In 1912, enrollment in American public high schools hit the million mark, and the percentage of students of high school age enrolled in public and private high schools increased from 15.4 percent in 1910 to 32.3 percent in 1920 (Krug, 1972).

It was during this time period that high school curricula began to reflect the merger of ideas between the scientific management school of thought and the social efficiency school of thought. Seven basic points came from these two groups of thought: 1. socialized objectives scientifically based, 2. judging subjects by their proved contribution to the objectives, 3. strong feeling against foreign languages and traditional mathematics, 4. strong feeling for vocational or practical subjects, 5. substitution for history of what was then becoming known as the social studies, 6. the acceptance of English, but in practical form, and 7. differentiation between college preparatory and vocational preparatory curricula for students (Krug, 1972). Many of these points were incorporated in the reports of the major educational group of this time period, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

This important committee of the NEA had a large membership (over 150) and was weighted in favor of high school administrators and teachers rather than university administrators and professors. Fifteen reports of the Commission and its subject committees were published as bulletins of the U.S. Bureau of Education, including the important social studies and English reports. However, the most far-reaching report issued by the Commission was the 32-page general report issued in 1918: *Cardinal*

Principles of Secondary Education. This pamphlet served as both a summary of principles endorsed by the Commission and of educational doctrines popular at the time, notable those of social efficiency, vocationalism, and the value of the comprehensive high school. The seven objectives identified in the report were as follows: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time, and ethical character. These concepts were heavily promoted in educational literature of the time era, and they were referred to long after anything about the Commission was forgotten except for the title of its general report (Krug, 1972).

The Commission remained in existence until 1921, but the publication of *Cardinal Principles* marked the high point of the group. In 1917 Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Act for Vocational Education. This legislation promoted the concept of Americanization of immigrant groups through public education. Pressures for national unity as the United States entered World War I sparked the passage of the act, and it was also supported because of the inclusion of the doctrines of social efficiency and vocationalism. As the war overtook American society, educators moved away from the belief of social efficiency of education to advocacy of education as social control. In the postwar period, the latter

concept, which stressed social reconstruction through the schools and adjustment of the individual to the group and society, gained wide acceptance among some educators but was roundly denounced by other who defended individuality and freedom – ideas which came to be called during the decade of the 1920s as Progressive Education (Krug, 1972).

School librarianship during the years 1910-1920 were marked by the rapid growth of high schools after 1900. With this rise in numbers came the various collaborative efforts previously mentioned between schools and public libraries. A dual philosophy was developing, one which continued the public library cooperation of extending library services to schools in the form of book lending, establishing school departments in public libraries, branches of public libraries in schools, and collaborative administration of these libraries with school districts and municipal library boards of trustees (Pond, 1982). Another philosophy was developing and gaining support, and that was the school-based library funded only with district tax money to pay for the librarian's salary and the materials collection. As small rural districts were consolidated into larger town-based school systems, these school-based libraries gained tremendously in popularity and practice. It was during this time of expanding school libraries that controversy over public library/public school libraries

emerged fully. The public libraries viewed the independent school libraries as threats to their children's services department and the programs put on by the staff of this department (Bowker, 1913).

School libraries began to be seen as laboratories for teaching the new curricula, especially the revised areas of English and history, coming to be known as social studies. As high schools grew in size and new buildings were built to promote the new curriculum, libraries increased in size and number. The early general educational standards issued to begin regulating instruction and curricula also led to specific standards for high school libraries being developed during this period of 1910-1920. All of this led to the promotion of a major goal of the school library movement: the improvement of library service in high schools. At the state level, however, financial support and standards for school libraries were rare. In 1911, only four states: Minnesota, New York, Washington, and Wisconsin had state school library supervisors. It wasn't until 1923 that other states added school library supervisors (NEA, 1919).

At the local level a number of forms of high school library administration existed. The most prevalent was the high school library maintained under board of education control as an integral part of the high school for exclusive use by students and faculty. A second form was the

“public school library,” which was housed in a high school or annex and supplied library books for schools within the district, similar to what public libraries had done. Usually this type of library came about in districts which had consolidated and taken all the books from each building and placed them into one collection at one site. A third type, mostly found in the larger cities, was either a high school library or branch of a public library in the school under the joint control of the board of education and the city library trustees. A fourth type, found in smaller communities, was the combination school and public library (Greeneman, 1917).

Whatever their form of administration and location, high school libraries of this period reflected the general shift from private academy to public high school as the dominant type of secondary high school. A U. S. Bureau of Education summary of secondary school library development to 1912 indicated that the number of academy libraries remained stable at around 1,400 between 1890 and 1912. However, the number of public high schools with libraries increased from 2,500 to 10,000 (Greeneman, 1917).

The typical librarian of this time period was more often a clerk or teacher with little or no library training rather than a fulltime school librarian or part time teacher-librarian. However, library science schools began to

turn out librarians to work specifically in school libraries, and by 1919 a directory of high school librarians listed 388 (Babcock, 1919). Still, the school librarians were not adequately represented in any one national professional organization, and it would be many years before this changed (Pond, 1982).

The librarians would look to the English teachers in the NEA to see how a group could create its own national organization to meet its specialized needs. The NEA in the early years of the twentieth century went through many changes, reflecting the fast pace of change within the American public schools. However, some changes were not fast enough for some educators. After effectively taking control of the NEA from college and university administrators and education professors, the public school administrators and teachers set about to reform the NEA. In 1909 the New York State Teachers of English adopted a formal statement of protest to the College Entrance Examination Board because of the limited list of materials which were to be taught and tested over for college entrance. The NEA formed a committee to explore the ideas expressed by the New York English teachers. By 1911 a report issued by the NEA English Round Table had caught the eyes of English teachers around the nation. This report called for the creation of a secondary English program

based upon the ideas articulated by English teachers all across the country. This new curriculum was at odds with the college entrance examination professors, which stirred great support across the country. One thing the report highlighted was the need for a nationwide voice for English teachers. At the 1911 NEA conference the English teachers in attendance passed a resolution calling for the establishment of a professional organization to meet their needs. In December, 1911, the National Council of Teachers of English was organized and then incorporated. The members chose Chicago as the site for permanent headquarters. The official publication *English Journal* was organized and published its first edition in January, 1912. The NCTE members became early advocates for school libraries and library school trained teacher-librarians (NCTE, 1913).

While the English teachers formed their own professional organization tailored to their professional needs, school librarians would have to wait more than twenty-five years before gaining such an association. They continued dual memberships in both the ALA and the NEA. The goals for the librarians during this time period numbered to seven and show the evolution of thought and practice in American

education in the early decade of the last century. The seven goals are as follows:

1. Coordinating school library promotional activities in national, regional, and state education and library associations
2. Fostering cooperation between public libraries and schools and between school librarians and teachers in provision of books in schools, promotion of reading and library use, and determination of best books for use by students and teachers
3. Setting standards for training teachers in administration and use of libraries
4. Securing appointment of state school library supervisors
5. Establishing high school libraries with trained librarians
6. Setting standards for high school libraries
7. Setting standards for training school librarians (Hall, 1924)

Also during this time period was the steady rise in state level professional associations with affiliations to national associations. The September, 1915, edition of *Library Journal* was devoted entirely to school libraries and the movement to establish them in all schools with high standards to guide their development. Known as the “school number” in ALA history, this edition featured articles by Mary E. Hall and Willis H. Kerr and others interested in promoting school libraries. These two school librarians outlined in their articles basic concepts used today in school libraries. A year later in 1916, the *Library Journal* again devoted an entire

issue to school libraries. The H. W. Wilson Company began its publication *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians* in 1915, and the ALA began publishing its *ALA Booklist* periodical, also in 1915. Again, the articles in these journals laid out basic concepts for a high quality school library. Some articles described the layout of a school library, while other articles presented book lists of “must have” materials. Other articles gave tips on administering the school library and working with classroom teachers. Authors stressed the need for university-trained librarians with teaching degrees and library courses/degrees to be the administrators of school libraries. These journals had a niche market appeal because of the newly created state professional associations. School library interest groups began forming in state affiliates of the NEA and ALA all during the decade of 1910-1920. Nine states created school library interest groups in state level NEA affiliates, while four states created school library sections of ALA affiliates. This led to a concentrated effort on the part of membership committees to target the growing numbers of school librarians. One outgrowth of this was national directories of members in the various divisions and special sections of the national organizations (Babcock, 1919). The ALA began to see the need to offer membership to school librarians and began encouraging these librarians to join the organization by creating in 1915 the School Libraries Section (ALA, 1915). Throughout

the remainder of the decade school librarians had two choices for professional membership: the NEA and the ALA.

School libraries got a boost from another national association, the North Central Association (NCA), the first of the direction-named accrediting associations which worked with colleges and universities to evaluate and accredit high schools throughout the country and their curricula. By 1917 the NCA had established a committee on high school library standards and printed them in a report, *A Standard High School Library Organization for Accredited Schools of Different Sizes.*” This report listed six recommendations for high school libraries:

1. Appropriate housing and equipment of the high school library;
2. Professionally trained librarian;
3. Scientific selection and care of books, and the proper classification and cataloging of books and other printed matters;
4. Library instruction as a unit course in high school curricula;
5. Adequate appropriations for salaries and for maintenance, the purchase of books, periodicals, and other materials – including audiovisual materials -, binding, supplies, etc.;
6. A trained librarian as state supervisor of school libraries either through the state department of education or the state library commission (Wolcott, 1920).

The NCA also included four categories of school size. The first category was for the junior high school, and the three remaining were for high schools, beginning with the largest category of enrollment: 1,000-3,000; 500–1,000, 200-500, and under 200. The six recommendations

listed previously became, in the final report, “requisites” or general standards applicable to all sizes of schools. The NCA began using these requisites in their accreditation process, which greatly strengthened the school library program in high schools (Certain, 1917).

As the decade of the 1920s began, supporters of the school library movement found themselves in a situation they had not been accustomed to prior to this time: the organizations which had promoted the school library movement were left without a unifying goal once the standards were endorsed and published by NCA in 1917, NEA in 1918, and ALA in 1920. The 1920s saw a quick-paced society living a good life, for the most part, as the stock market provided quick riches and new technologies provided consumers with access to new or vastly improved consumer good such as airplanes, faster trains, telephones, beautiful cars, high fashion, talking movies, jazz, home decorations/furnishings, radios, and other items that ushered in the modern era, which laid the foundation for the succeeding decades and generations. The school library movement was still dealing with the two types of libraries found in schools – true school libraries with collections based upon curriculum needs and libraries that were really public library branches staffed with public librarians – and the type of librarians needed – public library personnel

working in schools or teacher-librarians who were trained in library administration and still taught classes. New to the movement, however, was the concept of adding the newly developed teaching aides which came to be known as audiovisual equipment. These were first mentioned in the famous 1918 Certain standards. These standards surprisingly would lay out a vision of what school libraries would eventually evolve in to by the 1970s. Certain and his committee, according to researcher Budd L. Gambie in his article in the May, 1970, *American Libraries*, staked out territory of the school library as an “integrated instructional media center independent of any other organization in the school.” This new type of library was to provide ready access to all the instructional materials of the time, equipment, space for their use, and active guidance in encouraging and coordinating a media program within the school. Librarians in charge were to be “trained professionals, serving under professional library coordinators at the state level.” They were intended to be trained to function as media specialists and not just book specialists. Today, the library community is shedding the title “media specialist” and the term “media center” as the main word in both – media – has come to mean something very different from audiovisual educational equipment. The news media has taken over the term. The term “specialist” in times of economic want can spell disaster, as school administrators and school

boards look to cut positions that are viewed as extra. A specialist is easier to cut rather than a teacher-librarian. Because librarians were slow to embrace this new technology, the need for it generated the rise of audiovisual specialists, departments, attendant personnel, budgets, and competition between libraries and AV departments. Soon the AV people set up their own organization within the NEA and began what continues to be an uneasy relationship between school library people and media technology people in schools (Gamblee, 1970).

The 1918 Certain standards set in motion the focus on materials on instruction within the education community. This would continue as a major focus of educators up through 1932. From the period of 1920-1932 educators would focus mainly on elementary schools and methods of instructions and the materials that best aided learning. A process for curriculum building had been outlined in the 19th National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE) yearbook. This focus on systematic curriculum building emerged as a major part of educational theory and practice. By the time the 26th NSSE yearbook was published in 1927, *the Foundations and Techniques of Curriculum*, and the establishment in 1929 of the NEA Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction – now the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)

– the country's education leadership at all levels was focused on curriculum building and reform (NSSE, 1927).

Achievement tests began to appear during this time period. Originally developed in part from the systematic curriculum building process, which stressed testing results of the use of various methods and materials, achievement tests gained great acceptability. Also coming into acceptance at this time was intelligence testing. Originally developed during WWI to classify draftees, IQ testing, as it became known, was refined and became widely used to identify gifted students (Morgan, 1924).

However, not all educators and citizens were happy with this increasing devotion to efficiency and standardization in scientific-based curricula. In 1919 a group of dissatisfied educators formed the Progressive Education Association (PEA). The PEA was to become a significant voice in education during the 1920s and 1930s, combining a romantic idea of self-expression with the social, collectivistic educational ideals compatible with the concepts of social efficiency and eventually becoming the arena for discussion that the NEA conferences had been for nearly four decades (Graham, 1967).

During the period of 1920-1932, the elementary school was very much in a change process, while the high school remained much the same as before. By 1920 the high school enrolled one third of high school age youth and had a distinct institutional identity developed over forty years – a four year program covering grades nine through twelve, with a comprehensive curriculum encompassing academic and vocational subjects (Krug a, 1964).

Teaching had become largely professionalized by 1920. Prior to World War I elementary teachers were generally prepared with only a high school education and some additional terms at normal school, while high school teachers had long been required to have a four year college degree. After the war, however, the trend was for all teachers with normal school training to become holders of a baccalaureate degree. With these tighter certification rules in effect, teachers flocked back to colleges for specially designed summer school courses to meet these new requirements. In 1927, forty-five percent of the entire force of teachers, administrators, and supervisors was enrolled in summer school throughout the United States (Graham, 1967).

The various regional accrediting associations continued to exert a great influence on education, but the federal government did not. The

U.S. Office of Education, the successor of the U.S. Bureau of Education, served primarily as an agency which collected education-related statistics and issued reports and bulletins on educational topics. Foundations dedicated to improving education appeared and gave considerable support with funds to the Progressive Education Association and other groups that met the foundations' objectives. Two important foundations of this time era were the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation (Graham, 1967). After the First World War the Carnegie Corporation began its support of a ten year five million dollar Library Service Program. Beginning in 1926 this program's goal was to strengthen the library profession by supporting various ALA activities by improving library training and supporting various centralized library services and projects. Prior to the First World War, the Carnegie Corporation became famous for its massive library building program that provided funds for new public libraries throughout the country. The post war Carnegie money was targeted to support library programs with three broad areas: training of librarians, adult education, and library extension. Charles Williamson of the ALA used Carnegie funds to research the topic of education for librarianship, and his 1923 *Training for Library Service* continues to be recognized as one of the most influential studies of professional education ever made. Its impact and influence on ALA

programs and Carnegie Corporation grants was tremendous. The major recommendation of the report was that librarians be educated in a university context rather than in a training school sponsored by a public library. He also recommended the establishment of a graduate library school for advanced training, national accreditation for library schools, and liberal fellowships. The first graduate library school was at the University of Chicago, and the fellowships for graduate study there were established with Carnegie funding following publication of Williamson's report. The ALA was also willing to establish a Board of Education for Librarianship in 1924 (Sullivan, 1975). It is interesting to note here that while the ALA promoted the professional training of librarians, it was only the school librarians, as a group, which were mandated by law to be certified and thus became holders of baccalaureate and master degrees.

By 1920 the high school library, like the high school itself, had achieved an institutional identity, one which changed little during the period 1920-1932. Whether in a building with an enrollment of 200 or 3,000 students, the lower and upper limits of school size Certain listed in his standards, the high school library in organization and equipment was recognizable from Certain's description even when it failed to meet many of the standards he specified. The elementary school library, however,

was a different story. The reports and standards issued from the ALA, NEA, NCA, and NCTE had little effect on elementary school libraries, as the elementary school continued to receive services from public library children's and youth services departments. No publication of standards for elementary school libraries occurred until 1929, when Scribner's published the *Elementary School Library*, by William King, an elementary principal. King's attempt was roundly criticized in the library press (King, 1929). A year later Lucile Fargo wrote her *Program for Elementary School Library Service*, and it was published by the ALA, receiving glowing reviews (Fargo, 1930). Looking at both books in the early part of the twenty-first century, one comes away with the thought that the authors were a bit ahead of their time with their visions for these libraries and services for young students. The necessary conditions for the growth of elementary school libraries did not exist by the end of the period 1920-1932. The Great Depression forced school budgets to be slashed, and the library programs at the elementary level did not expand as the high school programs did earlier.

As the Great Depression began to impact the country, most schools, businesses, professional organizations, cities – all of American society and government – had to change how they operated. Within the

library community the levels of support for public and school partnership changed. Public libraries were increasingly unable to support school library programs; however, both the NEA and ALA continued to partner in support of each other's school library programs and program standards. The NCTE worked closely with the ALA and NEA to create book lists of quality reading materials through suggestions of various members on numerous committees. These lists were published in the years 1923-1925, with revised versions continuing for many years. One famous list was compiled in an entirely different manner and raised controversy. Called the *Winnetka Graded Book List*, this list of books was compiled by the Winnetka, Illinois, school superintendent Carleton W. Washburne. Washburne wrote for a grant from the Carnegie Corporation that studied the reading interests of children and organized the books into genre categories. Over 30,000 children had been surveyed of what they liked to read or have read to them. The final list included the most popular books graded by the students themselves. The list was published by the ALA and was embraced by teachers and school librarians. Public librarians, mostly children's and youth services librarians, did not like the list for two reasons: 1. the books on the list were there because children liked them and not because of literary merit, and 2. the books were categorized by grade levels (Washburne and Vogel, 1926). The decade of the 1920s saw

a rise in the number of published recommended book lists for librarians to use in adding to the library collection and encouraging students to read. In addition to the Winnetka list, there was the *Graded List of Books for Children*, *Books for the High School Library*, *500 Books for the Senior High School Library*, *Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools*, and the Wilson Standard Catalog series, including the *Children's Catalog*, and the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* (NEA, 1924).

During the 1930s the NEA, ALA, and NCTE continued their partnerships in promoting school libraries as resources to both students and teachers for high quality reading materials and pleasure reading materials. The money crisis of the decade limited the growth of most libraries – public school, public, and academic, but there was no retreat in the determination to maintain these important resources, even in light of the negative ideas presented in a 1934 *Library Journal* article. The article entitled, "The Taxpayer and Reading for Young People: Would a Library in Every School Justify the Cost?" Written by Charlotte Clark and Louise Latimer, both of the Washington, D. C. Public Library the article included accusations by the authors that key people in the NEA and ALA, particularly Lucile Fargo were promoting the expansion of school libraries without any research to justify the expense. After the article and editorial

supporting the views appeared, the two camps of thought began a spirited writing campaign in various professional journals. Throughout the remainder of the decade, both the NEA and ALA members and administrative staff came out in support of maintaining and expanding school libraries throughout the country in all school districts. As the new decade of the 1940s began and eventually America's entry into World War II happened, the debate subsided and the school library movement would win the battle for support of separate school-run libraries, at least at the secondary level. The elementary school library would not fully emerge until after the war (Clark and Latimer, 1934). Surprisingly, given the role of the NEA with teachers, the ALA and not the NEA would be the strongest advocate for school libraries setting up the mechanisms for gaining school librarians' support in the 1950s (Pond, 1982).

At the high school level and beginning at the junior high level, the operation of the library was increasingly following the Certain standards and truly becoming resource centers that provided book and audiovisual resources to students and teachers. The curriculum-based collections in school libraries grew as public library services were cut back at the high school and junior high school levels. Elementary school libraries

continued to be aided by public library children's programs, but their collections were increasingly becoming curriculum based.

Education trends in the 1930s, due to the economic upheaval brought on by the Great Depression, called all tradition into question and helped promote an anti-academic movement, reflecting the idea that of the large numbers of youth in high schools, many would be incapable of scholarship, as well as debate over the extent to which social reconstruction could be accomplished through the schools or federally sponsored programs. The secondary school curriculum, which had remained largely untouched due to elementary school curriculum building receiving most of the spotlight in the 1920s, now was being looked over carefully. Progressive independent and suburban school leaders and students criticized the lack of relevance of high school subjects and the lock-step succession of topics. In other schools, mostly public high schools of all sizes, students found the courses available largely meaningless. This was especially felt by the large influx of unemployed youth looking for educational opportunities that would help them find work (Krug, 1964).

In the progressive schools, the issue over high school subjects was an old one – college domination of the high school curriculum through

entrance requirements. To deal with this problem, the Progressive Education Association created a Commission on the Relations of School and College. Aided by a grant from the General Education Board, the Commission sponsored what became known as the Eight-Year Study, the first classes of which began in the fall of 1933. Several hundred leading colleges and universities agreed to accept on the recommendation of principals the graduates of thirty selected high schools without stipulation of subjects normally required for entrance. This allowed the schools to experiment with the curriculum, creating courses that were more contemporary in nature and possibly not as rigorous. Progressive education promoters had four objectives as they set about to modify secondary curricula: self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility (AASA, 1938). By the time America entered the war in late 1941, the public had turned against the progressive movement's curriculum changes, as these changes were perceived to be the cause of alleged inadequacies of American youth in educational fundamentals (reading, writing, math, science, social studies). For the duration of the war, American schools assumed responsibility for preparing defense industry workers and preserving democracy (Graham, 1967).

The decade of the 1940s brought great changes to school libraries. The war years 1941-1945 saw school libraries remain as an important segment of the curriculum and fully participating in the war effort. By the end of the war in 1945, the American people were ready to resume their lives. For the first time, the ALA published school library standards without the cooperation of the NEA or other education-related professional organizations. The standards, published in 1945, were titled *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. These standards provided a rallying point for the newly named section of the ALA, the American Association of School Librarians or AASL, founded in 1944. It became increasingly clear to school librarians that the time had come for a comprehensive K-12 school library program to emerge from the pieces found in various associations' standards. This possibility to provide complete library services to public school students excited the school librarians and angered the children's librarians of public libraries who saw their work and positions being threatened. At this time it also became clearly apparent that school librarians were compensated far better than children's and youth services librarians in public libraries. The ALA created joint committees to explore how to bridge the divide between school and public librarians during the immediate years after the war. The Committee on Post-War Planning was established to try to eliminate the differences

between the two groups. However this committee failed. Another committee from the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People (DLSCYP) was given the charge to create standards that would separate out the specific duties and programs that public libraries and public school libraries would take responsibility for (ALA, 1943). This proved to be a monumental task, as the committee didn't report back until the 1960s any standards.

The new standards published as *School Librarians for Today and Tomorrow* endorsed elementary school library development. The standards also clarified the role of a school librarian and stated the educational requirements to become one. These standards were forward-looking rather than visionary for school librarians and acceptable rather than controversial for public librarians. One of the changes in education that had occurred after the war was the infusion of audiovisual aids to teaching. Audiovisual school library service was included in the new standards. The use of films, slides and filmstrips became common in the late 1940s and 1950s. School librarians were given the charge of providing and promoting these new audiovisual services to faculty and students in their schools. The library was seen as being a place for both

the printed materials and non-printed materials, namely AV items (ALA, 1945).

While the AASL began developing new standards that included audiovisual materials, the NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction was organized in 1947 to promote the use of audiovisual materials that were increasingly being developed using the technologies developed during the war (Rufsvold, 1949). In a 1948 editorial in the AASL publication *Top of the News*, Stephen Corey, the Director of the Center for the Study of Audiovisual and Instructional Materials at the University of Chicago, warned school librarians of the developing jurisdictional dispute between their field of interest and that of audiovisual specialists in education (Corey, 1949). This dispute has never really gone away and flares up during times of tight economic times when decisions of what personnel to cut take place. In the post war years, membership numbers in ALA and AASL continued to grow, and the overall structure of ALA was reorganized to accommodate the needs of the membership and changes to the profession.

As written earlier, AASL was formed during World War II as a division within ALA for school librarians and published a newsletter *Top of the News* for members. The NEA and ALA continued to maintain the Joint

Committee of NEA and ALA to promote school library programs and provide support for and give a voice to school librarians. As part of the reorganization of ALA after the war, a movement was created to give AASL more autonomy as a large professional association within ALA. However, the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People did not support such a move toward autonomy by the school people fearing a negative impact on that division of ALA. The reorganization of ALA had progressed too far for any return to a smaller role for AASL, plus the 1945 ALA standards for school libraries had been expanded, and with the input of AASL leadership, these goals became formalized, eventually becoming written into the 1951 AASL constitution. These standards, in part, clarified the teaching role of school librarians and the educational function of the school library. The 1951 revision used the phrase, "improvement and extension of library services in school as a means of strengthening the educational program," to the statement of purpose before the other phrases on promotion of a high standard of librarianship and library services in schools and on cooperation with other organizations (ALA, 1952). Frances Henne, an early leader and advocate for greater autonomy for AASL within the structure of ALA stated in a newsletter article that "the machinery of organization" was keeping the group from moving forward and getting on with its "real work to get libraries and books

to the kids of this country.” The machinery of organization she was referring to was the objection of the children and young people division to a separate and strong school library division. Henne and her supporters pressed on and won more support for AASL. They called for a revamped conference format that brought in speakers who would talk and work in small groups with school librarians about professional improvement and program improvement rather than just lecturing to large audiences. Academic paper presentations were given up for practical and what is referred today as “hands on” sessions that gave librarians specific information to take back to their school libraries (Henne, 1948). By 1950 Henne and her fellow officers and board members had collaborated with the ALA Audio-Visual Board and created at the midwinter meeting a program called, “Participation of the School Library in the Audio-Visual Program of the School.” It also featured a panel discussion using school superintendents and principals called, “How Can School Librarians Interest School Administrators in Improving School Libraries?” (ALA, 1950). The movement to make AASL a self-governing division with ALA moved forward. There were votes at conferences with the DLCYP to reject motions for AASL autonomy as well as votes to support such a move and reorganization. Support for AASL to remain a part of the division which provided library services to children and young people was

strong in some areas of the country and weak in others. As delay tactics worked and votes by representatives of all groups affected by the AASL request for autonomy continued to keep the AASL in the division, various state AASL-affiliates began lobbying the ALA Executive Board and the AASL leaders for autonomy. A final balloting mailed out in the fall of 1950 confirmed the support for a separate division of school librarians beginning in 1951. School library programs had advanced a great step, changing the role school librarians would now have and the place they had had in NEA. ALA now was the home of school librarians and school library programs because of the favorable vote to become a separate division (Douglas, 1950).

The remaining years of the decade saw AASL create the organizational structure to become a leader in school library programs throughout the country. By the time the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed in the early 1960s with specific funds for establishing school library facilities and collections, the AASL was ready to take on the leadership role needed. It was during the middle and late 1960s that American public schools created the facilities, collections, and hired the personnel necessary to make the foundation of library programs that saw the remainder of the century complete. Various parts of the

country in the last two decades of the twentieth century both promoted and dismantled school library programs and the libraries themselves. In California, for example, the various early tax propositions cut out school library funding, and libraries were shut down and the librarians laid off or reassigned to classrooms to teach. Many Midwestern states kept their school libraries intact. Minnesota kept their budgets strong for libraries and committed to maintaining licensed librarians in them. Other states, such as Iowa, did a little of both – they didn't cut funding for libraries, but they voted to not require hiring licensed librarians to run the libraries. Southern schools in the 1990s passed state laws upgrading public schools and included libraries in them. As federal technology money became available, many of the Southern states automated their libraries and added computers for students to access online subscription databases. The Lance studies beginning with Colorado in 1993 and repeated in fourteen other states found a pattern of increased student achievement in districts with strong school library programs. As educators become intent upon closing the achievement gap between students with economic means and those without, school libraries are a logical place to begin this work, and many districts across the country are reinvesting in their libraries and hiring more librarians (Lance, 2002). The present NCLB legislation calls for money to be spent for updating and improving both the

paper-based collections (some of which date to the 1960s and 1970s due to under funding over the years) and electronic-based subscription online databases. The legislation also calls for flexible hours to keep the library doors open. It will be interesting to see how the Fall 2004 elections turn out, as the path of NCLB will be determined by the vote of the people and certified by the electoral college.

School Library Curriculum

Going back to the foundation of Sunday-school libraries of the late eighteenth century, school libraries have always been instrumental in providing reading materials, now in all formats, to support the curriculum taught by teachers. Today's school library curriculum has changed just as schools themselves have changed to meet the changes in our society. In the 1970s there was a strong movement in the education community to begin infusing what we call today "educational technology." In the immediate post World War II years, this meant records, color photographs, slide lanterns and films shown on projectors used during the war. Eventually use of these items was built into audiovisual programs that included photography, film strips, film loops, reel to reel tape recordings, LP albums, 16mm films, 35mm camera/slide projection, cassette tapes, video tapes/recordings, on-site movie production, CD-ROMs, DVDs,

digital cameras, personal computers, and the various types of software and Internet access to subscription and non-subscription sites and services. Some library schools collaborated with education school AV departments to prepare school librarians to work with these types of media. Others did not. Over the years the term school library and school library media center became two distinct places with different missions. The library media center, or media center as it is still sometimes referred to, included books and non-print resources. These places were viewed as more modern and as more desirable than the school library, which was often a place only having print materials. This distinction became prevalent in the 1970s and 1980s, but by the 1990s strong school library programs came to include all types of materials for students and faculty members to use. The term *media* became associated with the news media and not educational resources, and the 1960s-80s terms are being discontinued.

While the names may have changed, the basic mission of school libraries has always been to provide students and teachers access to and instruction on how to use resources. In 1988, the AASL, in conjunction with the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT), published through the ALA a guidebook to updated school library

programs. This book, *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* reflected the times for school library programs by using the term “guidelines” rather than standards, as had occurred in 1920, 1925, 1945, 1960, and 1975. This book was the first publication that blended the vast changes that had occurred in the area of education and the specific areas of libraries and educational technology, a term that had replaced audiovisual due to the advent of the computer, especially the personal computer. The 1988 *Information Power* was designed for school librarians to use with students, teachers, and parents, something not done prior to this book’s publication. Ten years later in 1998, AASL and AECT updated and issued through the ALA publishing division the latest book of standards – not guidelines. This book, *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* in a straight forward manner presents what a library program should entail and what a school librarian should be doing. The 1998 *Information Power* has four roles for the librarian, as compared to three in the 1988 edition. These four roles are as follows: teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator. The first *Information Power* listed these as roles for the librarian: information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant. One noticeable change, aside from the addition of fourth role is instructional *partner* versus *consultant*. School librarians learned that they needed to

be viewed as partners in order to gain supporters and library “customers.” This has been a positive change for the profession, and one that builds upon the long tradition of collaboration between library personnel and classroom teachers. The addition of program administrator is historically accurate, as it reflects back to the original library definition of the school librarian during the long transition period from public library services to schools to school-funded and based libraries.

The new *Information Power* is based upon a set of nine information literacy standards designed to guide and support school librarians in their efforts the following three areas: teaching and learning, information access, and program administration. The book goes on to break down each of the nine standards into twenty-nine indicators. As a whole, the standards and indicators describe the content and processes related to information that students must master to be considered information literate. The core of the new standards is the concept of *information literacy*, which is defined as the ability to find, evaluate, and use information for whatever purposes by the library user. This concept is viewed as the keystone of lifelong learning, which is at the heart of the modern day school library program. The effective school library program

should include effective learning and teaching strategies and activities with information access skills (ALA, 1998).

In the original *Information Power*, the mission – as written below – was kept and used in the new edition, as the two professional associations felt that the mission was timeless and was succinct enough to maintain. Here is the original mission:

“Students must become skillful consumers and producers of information in the range of sources and formats to thrive personally and economically in the communication age.” The mission of the school library program is to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information. This mission is accomplished:

- by providing intellectual and physical access to materials in all formats
- by providing instruction to foster competence and stimulate interest in reading, viewing, and using information and ideas
- by working with other educators to design learning strategies to meet the needs of individual students (ALA, 1988).

The information literacy standards for student learning, which will follow, have measures of levels of proficiency, standards in action, and examples of content-area standards for each standard in the hope of making it clear to everyone just what is expected of everyone in the

learning process. Listed next from the 1998 *Information Power* are the information standards for student learning (ALA, 1998).

Information Literacy Standards for Student Learning

Information Literacy Standards

Standard 1: The student who is information literate accesses information efficiently and effectively. The student who is information literate recognizes that having good information is central to meeting the opportunities and challenges of day-to-day living. That student knows when to seek information beyond his or her personal knowledge, how to frame questions that will lead to the appropriate information, and where to see that information. The student knows how to structure a search across a variety of sources and formats to locate the best information to meet a particular need.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Recognizes the need for information

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Gives example of situations in which additional information (beyond one's own knowledge) is needed to resolve an information problem or question.

Proficient: When faced with an information problem or question, determines whether additional information (beyond one's own knowledge) is needed to resolve it.

Exemplary: Assesses whether a range of information problems or questions can be resolved based upon one's own knowledge or whether additional information is required.

Students' overview of a topic or issue demonstrates their understanding of how an idea connects to other ideas as well as other issues that may be involved in the main issue.

Indicator 2. Recognizes that accurate and comprehensive information is the basis for intellectual decision making

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Selects examples of accurate and inaccurate information and of complete and incomplete information for decision making.

Proficient: Explains the differences between accurate and inaccurate information and complete and incomplete information for decision making.

Exemplary: Judges the quality of decisions in terms of the accuracy and completeness of the information on which they were based.

Students understand there is information on more than one side of an issue and remain open to other perspectives; they also judge the completeness of their information before making a decision.

Indicator 3. Formulates questions based on information needs

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: States at least one broad question that will help in finding needed information.

Proficient: States both Broad and specific questions that will help in finding needed information.

Exemplary: Revises, adds, and deletes questions as information needs change.

Students change and refine their questions as their research proceeds by developing essential questions that go beyond simple fact-finding and that promote thoughtful interpretation, synthesis, and presentation of newly found knowledge.

Indicator 4. Identifies a variety of potential sources of information

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Lists some ideas for how to identify and find needed information.

Proficient: Explains and applies a plan to access needed information.

Exemplary: Formulates and revises plans for accessing information for a range of needs and situations.

Students quickly and effectively locate the most relevant information for research questions within the sources they have gathered, and they vary their strategies according to the format, organization, and search capability of the source and according to the particular issue they are researching.

Standards in Action:

Grades 3-5 (History) A fifth-grade class explores the culture and everyday lives of the early settlers of their state. Students formulate questions based upon their own lives to learn how children lived in pioneer times. The class knows that the state encyclopedia has a great deal of information about the settlers, but the language is difficult and technical. Students discuss other resources that might have appropriate information.

Example of Content-Area Standards: *English Language Arts* – Uses a variety of resource materials to gather information for research topics (e.g. magazines, newspapers, dictionaries, schedules, journals, phone directories, globes, atlases, almanacs). Standard 4, Grades 6-8 Indicator (McREL, p. 332) (McREL refers to the company a school district might hire to create standards and benchmarks for measuring student achievement for NCLB compliance. It is not meant as a source citation.)

Standard 2 The student who is information literate evaluates information critically and competently. The student who is information literate weighs information carefully and wisely to determine its quality. That student understands traditional and emerging principles for assessing the accuracy, validity, relevance, completeness, and impartiality of information. The student applies these principles insightfully across

information sources and formats and uses logic and informed judgment to accept, reject, or replace information to meet a particular need.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Determines accuracy, relevance, and comprehensiveness

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Defines or gives examples of the terms “accuracy,” “relevance,” and “comprehensiveness.”

Proficient: Compares and contrasts sources related to a topic to determine which are more accurate, relevant, and comprehensive.

Exemplary: Judges the accuracy, relevance, and completeness of sources and information in relation to a range of topics and information problems.

Students realize they will find conflicting facts in different sources, and they determine the accuracy and relevance of information before taking notes. They determine the adequacy of information gathered according to the complexity of the topic, the research questions, and the product that is expected.

Indicator 2. Distinguishes among fact, point of view, and opinion

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Recognizes fact, opinion, and point of view in various information sources and products.

Proficient: Explains how fact, point of view, and opinion are different from one another.

Exemplary: Assembles facts, opinions, and point of view as appropriate in one's own work.

Students know when facts must be used, when opinions can be used, and how the validity of opinions can be verified. They determine how different points of view can influence the facts and opinions presented in controversial issues.

Indicator 3. Identifies inaccurate and misleading information

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Recognizes inaccurate or misleading information in information sources and products.

Proficient: Explains why inaccurate and misleading information can lead to faulty conclusions.

Exemplary: Judges and supports judgments of the degree of inaccuracy, bias, or misleading information in information sources and products.

Students differentiate between misinterpreted or misstated facts and inaccuracies that are based upon opinion, they can identify inaccuracies caused by leaving out or slanting information, and they determine inaccuracies by gathering and comparing information from a wide range of sources.

Indicator 4. Selects information appropriate to the problem or question at hand

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Recognizes information that is applicable to a specific information problem or question.

Proficient: Analyzes information from a variety of sources to determine its applicability to a specific information problem or question.

Exemplary: Integrates accurate, relevant, and comprehensive information to resolve an information problem or question.

Students continually assess research questions and problems, and they select the main ideas and supporting details that accurately and comprehensively meet their specific information needs. They revise their topics and their search strategies as they uncover information that may not fit with previous knowledge or that offers a new direction on their topics.

Standard in Action: *Grades 9-12 (English Language Arts)* Students need to identify a person living today who meets the literary definition of a tragic hero and to find information to support their choices. As a class, students develop a rubric to identify the essential traits of a tragic hero and to specify the kind and amount of evidence required to “certify” someone as a contemporary tragic hero. After using biographical information to begin a list of potential tragic heroes, students explore a wide range of other resources to amass as much authoritative evidence as possible to support their choices. The class judges each case against the rubric.

Example of Content-Area Standards: *Foreign Language* – Uses a dictionary or thesaurus written entirely in the target language to select appropriate words for use in preparing written and oral reports. Standard 5, Grades 9-12 Indicator (McREL, p. 506).

Standard 3 The student who is information literate uses information accurately and creatively. The student who is information literate manages information skillfully and effectively in a variety of contexts. That student organizes and integrates information from a range of sources and formats in order to apply it to decision making, problem solving, critical thinking, and creative expression. The student communicates information and ideas for a variety of purposes, both scholarly and creative; to a range of audiences, both in school and beyond; and in print, non-print, and electronic formats. This Standard promotes the design and execution of authentic products that involve critical and creative thinking and that reflect real world situations. The indicators under this Standard therefore deviate from the traditional definition of use. Rather than suggesting that students simply insert researched information into a perfunctory product, the indicators emphasize the thinking processes involved when students use information to draw conclusions and develop new understandings.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Organizes information for practical application

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Describes several ways to organize information – for example, chronologically, topically, and hierarchically.

Proficient: Organizes information in different ways according to the information problem or question at hand.

Exemplary: Organizes an information product that presents different types of information in the most effective ways.

Students organize information to make sense of it and to present it most effectively to others. They understand their intended audience, the demands of the presentation format, and the essential ideas in the topic or issue being presented.

Indicator 2. Integrates new information into one's own knowledge

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Recognizes and understands new information and ideas.

Proficient: Draws conclusions by combining what is already known about a topic with new information.

Exemplary: Integrates one's own previous knowledge with information from a variety of sources to create new meaning.

Students integrate new information into their current knowledge, drawing conclusions by developing new ideas based on information they gather and connecting new ideas with their prior knowledge.

Indicator 3. Applies information in critical thinking and problem solving.

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Identifies information that meets a particular information need.

Proficient: Uses information from a variety of sources to resolve an information problem or question.

Exemplary: Devises creative approaches to using information to resolve information problems or questions.

Students develop strategies for thinking through and solving information problems by effectively synthesizing of appropriate information, new understandings, and conclusions drawn.

Indicator 4. Produces and communicates information and ideas in appropriate formats

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Names a variety of different formats for presenting different kinds of information.

Proficient: Chooses an appropriate format for presenting information based on the information itself, the audience, and the nature of the information problem or question.

Exemplary: Chooses the most appropriate format for presenting information and justifies that choice.

Students select the format that most closely matches the needs of their intended audience, the requirements for visual or print representation, and the length of the presentation, and they match the format to the nature and complexity of ideas being presented.

Standard in Action: *Grades K-2 (Arts)* Throughout the year, students study the culture of various African nations. They design and create papier-mâché masks that highlight various countries and legends from the African continent.

Example of Content-Area Standards: *Arts, Theatre* Applies research from print and nonprint sources to script writing, acting, design, and directing choices. Standard 5, Grades 5-8 Indicator (McREL, p. 401)

Independent Learning Standards

Standard 4 The student who is an independent learner is information literate and pursues information related to personal interests. The student who is an independent learner applies the principles of information literacy to access, evaluate, and use information about issues and situations of personal interest. That student actively and independently seeks information to enrich understanding of career, community, health, leisure, and other personal situations. The student constructs meaningful personal knowledge based on that information and communicates that knowledge accurately and creatively across the range of information formats.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Seeks information related to various dimensions of personal well-being, such as career interests, community involvement, health matters, and recreational pursuits

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Occasionally seeks information about aspects of personal interest or well-being.

Proficient: Generally goes beyond one's own knowledge to seek information on aspects of personal interest or well-being.

Exemplary: Explores a range of sources to find information on aspects of personal interest or well-being.

Students use the same criteria and strategies to locate and use information on personal topics as they do for academic topics. They test their understanding of information literacy strategies by using them for real-life purposes.

Indicator 2. Designs, develops, and evaluates information products and solutions related to personal interests

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Organizes and presents basic information related to topics of personal interest.

Proficient: Creates information products and solutions related to topics of personal interest.

Exemplary: Judges the quality of one's own information products and solutions related to topics of personal interest.

Students apply information problem-solving skills to decisions they must make in their personal lives. They share information products with others who are also making personal decisions. They respond to feedback as they reflect on how they can make changes in products and solutions.

Standard in Action Grades 6-8 (Mathematics) A student receives a share of computer stock from his grandparents for his birthday. He knows that stocks change in value and wants to keep track of the increases and decreases in the value of the new stock. He decides to get information on the company, to learn to read the daily stock report in the newspaper, and to use a graphing program on the computer to track the progress of the stock.

Example of Content-Area Standards *Technology* Connects via modem to other computer users via the internet, and online service, or bulletin board system. Standard 1, Grades 6-8 Indicator (McREL, p. 580)

Standard 5 The student who is an independent learner is information literate and appreciates literature and other creative expressions of information. The student who is an independent learner applies the principles of information literacy to access, evaluate, enjoy, value and create artistic products. That student actively and independently seeks to master the principles, conventions, and criteria of literature in print,

nonprint, and electronic formats. The student is able both to understand and enjoy creative works presented in all formats and to create products that capitalize on each format's particular strengths.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Is a competent and self-motivated reader

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Explains and discusses various examples of fiction.

Proficient: Chooses fiction and other kinds of literature to read and analyzes literary plots, themes, and characters.

Exemplary: Reads avidly and evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of the literature read.

Students seek a variety of information resources in different formats for information and personal enjoyment.

Indicator 2. Derives meaning from information presented creatively in a variety of formats

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Explains and discusses films, plays, and other creative presentations of information.

Proficient: Analyzes and explains information presented creatively in various formats.

Exemplary: Evaluates the strengths and weaknesses of various creative presentations of information.

Students connect to larger ideas in the human experience and their own lives.

Indicator 3. Develops creative products in a variety of formats

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Expresses information and ideas creatively in simple formats.

Proficient: Expresses information and ideas creatively in information products that combine several formats.

Exemplary: Expresses information and ideas creatively in unique products that integrate information in a variety of formats.

Students can identify and use media that match the purpose of their communication to communicate ideas and emotions most effectively.

Standard in Action: *Grades 3-5 (History)* The video *Sarah Plain and Tall* captures the imagination of a fourth-grade girl, who reads the book, its sequel, and other novels about frontier life. She becomes curious about the historical accuracy of the novels and decides to check them against some pioneer women's personal accounts of their lives.

Example of Content-Area Standard *Behavioral Studies* Knows that language, stories, folktales, music, and artistic creations are expressions of culture. Standard 2, Grades 3-5 Indicator (McREL, p. 594)

Standard 6 The student who is an independent learner is information literate and strives for excellence in information seeking and knowledge generation. The student who is an independent learner applies the principles of information literacy to evaluate and use his or her own information processes and products as well as those developed by others. That student actively and independently reflects on and critiques personal thought processes and individually created information products. The student recognizes when these efforts are successful and unsuccessful and develops strategies for revising and improving them in light of changing information.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Assesses the quality of the process and products of personal information seeking

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Retraces the steps taken to find information and explains which were most useful for resolving an information problem or question.

Proficient: Assess each step of the information-seeking process related to a specific information problem and assesses the result.

Exemplary: Evaluates the information-seeking process at each stage as it occurs and makes adjustments as necessary to improve both the process and the product.

Students reflect on their own work and revise it based on feedback from others. They develop an intrinsic standard of excellence. They revise their information-searching strategies when appropriate. They also self-assess about their information-seeking process by asking themselves questions such as: Do my questions really get to the heart of what I need to know? and Have I found enough information to give an accurate picture of all sides of the issue? They approach research as a recursive process, revising the search as they answer their own assessment questions. They set their own criteria and check the quality of their own work.

Indicator 2. Devises strategies for revising, improving, and updating self-generated knowledge

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Explains basic strategies for revising, improving, and updating work.

Proficient: Selects and applies appropriate strategies for revising, improving, and updating work.

Exemplary: Recognizes gaps in one's own knowledge and selects and applies appropriate strategies for filling them.

Students modify their work based on the specific task, and they use peer review, reaction panels, focus groups, comparison with models, and trial and revision strategies.

Standard in Action *Grades 9-12 (Science)* The judges award a blue ribbon to a student in the school science fair, and she can now enter the district-level fair. After looking at some of the other projects and papers exhibited at the school fair, she decides she needs more background information to do well at the district level. She thinks that talking to a

scientist would provide the most current information, and she decides how to connect with a working scientist.

Example of Content-Area Standard *Civics* Understands how citizens can evaluate information and arguments received from various sources so that they can make reasonable choices on public issues and among candidates for political office. Standard 19, Grades 6-8 Indicator (McREL, p. 404)

Social Responsibility Standards

Standard 7 The student who contributes positively to the learning community and to society is information literate and recognizes the importance of information to a democratic society. The student who is socially responsible with regard to information understands that access to information is basic to the functioning of a democracy. That student seeks out information from a diversity of viewpoints, scholarly traditions, and cultural perspectives in an attempt to arrive at a reasoned and informed understanding of issues. The student realizes that equitable access to information from a range of sources and in all formats is a fundamental right in democracy.

Indicators:

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Identifies several appropriate sources for resolving an information problem or question.

Proficient: Uses a variety of sources covering diverse perspectives to resolve an information problem or question.

Exemplary: Seeks sources representing a variety of contexts, disciplines, and cultures and evaluates their usefulness for resolving an information problem or question.

Students seek diverse opinions and points of view, and they use multiple sources to actively attend to the context surrounding information, such as asking whose opinion, what cultural background, what historical context.

Indicator 2. Respects the principle of equitable access to information

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Explains why it is important for all classmates to have access to information, to information sources, and to information technology.

Proficient: Uses information, information sources, and information technology efficiently so that they are available for others to use.

Exemplary: Proposes strategies for ensuring that classmates and others have equitable access to information, to information sources, and to information technology.

Students diligently return materials on time, share access to limited resources, are aware of others' rights and needs, and respect equitable access as the dominant culture of learning rather than perceiving it as an environment of strict enforcement of rules.

Standard in Action *Grades 3-5 (Science)* Two classes work on reports about marine life. The library had adequate information in several formats, but there is only one copy of a series of books on each individual species. The students discuss ways to make sure that everyone can use these resources.

Examples of Content-Area Standards *English Language Arts*
Understands influences on language use (e.g., political beliefs, positions of social power, culture). Standard 8, Grades 9-12 Indicator (McREL, p. 345)

Standard 8 The student who contributes positively to the learning community and to society is information literate and practices ethical behavior in regard to information and information technology. The

student who is socially responsible with regard to information applies principles and practices that reflect high ethical standards for accessing, evaluating, and using information. That student recognizes the importance of equitable access to information in a democratic society and respects the principles of intellectual freedom and the rights of producers of intellectual property. The student applies these principles across the range of information formats – print, nonprint, and electronic.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Respects the principles of intellectual freedom

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Defines or gives examples of “intellectual freedom.”

Proficient: Analyzes a situation (e.g., a challenge to a book or video in the library/classroom) in terms of its relationship to intellectual freedom.

Exemplary: Predicts what might happen if the principles of intellectual freedom were ignored in one’s own community.

Students encourage others to exercise their rights to free expression, they respect the ideas of others when working in groups, and they actively solicit ideas from every member of the group.

Indicator 2. Respects intellectual property rights**Levels of Proficiency:**

Basic: Gives examples of what it means to respect intellectual property rights.

Proficient: Analyzes situation (e.g., the creation of a term paper or the development of a multimedia product) to determine the steps necessary to respect intellectual property rights.

Exemplary: Avoids plagiarism, cites sources properly, makes copies and incorporates text and images only with appropriate clearance, etc., when creating information products.

Students understand the concept of fair use and apply it, they recognize and diligently avoid plagiarism, they follow an information-seeking process to come to their own conclusions, they express their conclusions in their own words rather than copying the conclusions or arguments presented by others, and they follow bibliographic form and cite all information sources used.

Indicator 3. Uses information technology responsibly**Levels of Proficiency:**

Basic: States main points of school policy on using computing and communications hardware, software, and networks.

Proficient: Locates appropriate information efficiently with the school's computing and communications hardware, software, and networks.

Exemplary: Follows all school guidelines related to the use of computing and communications hardware, software, and networks when resolving information problems or questions.

Students follow acceptable use policies and guidelines, using equipment for the purposes intended, and leaving the equipment and materials in good working order.

Standard in Action *Grades 6-8 (Foreign Language)* At the beginning of the year, students read and signed the school's computer use policy. Now a foreign language class is compiling a list of Web sites in Spanish. A group of students unintentionally enters a keyword in Spanish that takes them to a pornographic site. Their "discovery" has now attracted a group of onlookers.

Example of Content-Area Standard *Arts, Visual Arts* Uses art materials and tools in a safe and responsible manner. Standard 1, Grades K-4 Indicator (McREL, p. 404)

Standard 9 The student who contributes positively to the learning community and to society is information literate and participates effectively in groups to pursue and generate information. The student who is socially responsible with regard to information works successfully – both locally and through the variety of technologies that link the learning community – to access, evaluate, and use information. That student seeks and shares information and ideas across a range of sources and perspectives and acknowledges the insights and contributions of a variety of cultures and disciplines. The student collaborates with diverse individuals to identify information problems, to seek their solutions, and to communicate these solutions accurately and creatively.

Indicators:

Indicator 1. Shares knowledge and information with others

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Contributes to group efforts by seeking and communicating specific facts, opinions, and points of view related to information problems or questions.

Proficient: Using information sources, selects information and ideas that will contribute directly to the success of group projects.

Exemplary: Integrates one's own knowledge and information with that of others in the group.

Students readily share information they have gathered with others in their group. They discuss ideas with others in the group, listen well, and change their own ideas when appropriate. They also help the group move to consensus after substantive conversation and sharing among all the members of the group.

Indicator 2. Respects others' ideas and backgrounds and acknowledges their contributions

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Describes others' ideas accurately and completely.

Proficient: Encourages consideration of ideas and information from all group members.

Exemplary: Helps organize and integrate the contributions of all the members of the group into information products.

Students actively seek the contributions of every member of the group. They listen well in order to hear the point of view as well as the literal

words of what others are saying, and they respond respectfully to the points of view and ideas of others.

Indicator 3. Collaborates with others, both in person and through technologies, to identify information problems and to seek their solutions.

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Expresses one's own ideas appropriately and effectively, in person and remotely through technologies, when working in groups to identify and resolve information problems.

Proficient: Participates actively in discussions with others, in person, and remotely through technologies, to analyze information problems and to suggest solutions.

Exemplary: Participates actively in discussions with others, in person remotely and through technologies, to devise solutions to information problems that integrate group members' information and ideas.

Students collaborate with others, both in person and through technologies, to identify information problems and to seek their solutions. The lead, facilitate, negotiate, and otherwise participate in defining the information needs of a group.

Indicator 4. Collaborates with others, both in person and through technologies, to design, develop, and evaluate information products and solutions

Levels of Proficiency:

Basic: Works with others, in person and remotely through technologies, to create and evaluate simple information products.

Proficient: Works with others, in person and remotely through technologies, to create and evaluate products that communicate complex information and ideas.

Exemplary: Works with others, in person and remotely through technologies, to create and evaluate complex information products that integrate information in a variety of formats.

Students assume responsibility for collaborating with others, either in person or through technology, to synthesize ideas into a finished product. They initiate reflection and evaluation of their own and the group's work, and they use the evaluation to improve content, delivery, and work habits.

Standard in Action *Grades 9-12 (History)* Students work in research groups to investigate the effects of World War II on various countries in

Western Europe. Each group finds as much information as possible on a particular country to design a lesson on that country's post-war society and teach its lesson to the rest of the class.

Example of Content-Area Standard *Life Skills* Adjusts tone and content of information to accommodate the likes of others. Working with Others Standard 4, Grades K-12 Indicator (McREL, p, 621)

The Two *Information Power* Books

Compared to the 1988 *Information Power*, the curriculum standards in the 1998 update are very specific and have added indicators for the various levels of proficiency and summaries which give librarians and classroom teachers a quick idea of what students should be able to do. The standards section also gives general examples of how classroom work and library work tie together to meet school district standards along with content-area examples. These additions placed school library programs directly into each curricular area within the overall school curriculum, something not done in the original *Information Power*. Another aspect of the new standards is a chapter on collaboration between library personnel and classroom teachers. Nothing isolates a library program from the school it serves like the lack of collaboration. The 1998

standards outline seven practical approaches to collaboration by the school librarian. They are as follows:

- Establish a good relationship with teachers; be approachable
- Raise teachers' expectations of what the school library media program can do
- Become an expert on the curriculum's goals
- Show the connections between information literacy and content-related objectives
- Solicit teachers' assistance in school library program development
- Be flexible in expectations and timing
- Be persistent (ALA, 1998)

Each school district in each state creates its own library curriculum, and, hopefully, the standards presented earlier in this work and the basic role explanations for school librarians given in the 1998 standards will serve as models for successful library programs. One thing is clear: NCLB requires all schools districts in all states to prove that their students are achieving each year. School library programs can assist in this area of student achievement.

Student Achievement and School Library Programs

With the passage of a new elementary and secondary education bill by both houses of Congress and signed into law by President Bush in 2000, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) became a buzz word in the media and in the education community. For the first time, the federal government was now directly telling each state how to be accountable for student achievement with the use of federal money. School library programs were created to meet student needs back in the late 1700s during the rise of the Sunday-school. Society knew then, as American society knows now, that teaching students to read, think, evaluate, and write, strengthens the individual and society as a whole. While they didn't use the term "lifelong learner," in conversation, books, or journals, teachers, school librarians, and public librarians over the centuries have encouraged students and adults to seek out information from resources available in libraries and now electronically through library subscriptions to online databases on the Web.

Historically, school libraries have not been good at keeping data that sheds any type of light on what the program does and how it impacts student achievement. In many states this is still the case, as it is in many school districts across the country. Without data, the case for keeping,

upgrading, or starting a school library program is harder to make. People need to see data as a support to words. For the school library community, one study would prove invaluable in making the case for libraries. In the late 1980s Keith Curry Lance and other Colorado Department of Education staff did an in-depth study on the impact of school library programs and student achievement. It is well documented how Lance and his associates came about researching the subject, and this writer has had the pleasure of meeting Dr. Lance and hearing in person the story. In Colorado there is a company called School Match that provides relocation services to varying levels of business executives who are planning to move to a new location. While compiling data to profile various communities to be used in matching executives and their families to a community, School Match discovered something: school districts that had strong library programs – trained librarians, solid book/materials/technology budgets, and paraprofessional help – showed higher test scores for students when compared to districts that didn't have library programs or had weak ones. It was this question that prompted Lance to undertake what became known as the Colorado Study. Completed in 1992 and published in 1993, Lance centered his study on three questions:

1. Is there a relationship between expenditures for libraries and test performance, particularly when social and economic differences across the communities and schools are controlled?
2. Given a relationship between library expenditures and test performance, what intervening characteristics of library programs help to explain this relationship?
3. Does the performance of an instructional role by school librarians help to predict test performance?

Lance found that with regard to the relationship between library budgets and expenditures and test performance there was direct correlation to higher scores in school districts which spent more on libraries and staffing than those which did not. It did not matter “whether their school and communities are rich or poor and whether adults in their community were well or poorly educated.” On the second question posed Lance found that “the *size of the library’s total staff* and the *size and variety of its collection* are important characteristics of library programs that intervene between library expenditures and test performance.” He also found that funding was important because its specific purpose is to ensure both adequate levels of staffing in relation to the school’s enrollment and local collection that offers students a large number of materials in a variety of formats. As to the third question posed, Lance

found that, yes, students whose librarians played an instructional role tended to achieve higher test scores (Lance, *et al*, 1993).

In 2000 Lance and his same team of researchers repeated the Colorado study. During the intervening years other states requested the services of Lance and his team, and the results in these states all followed the findings of Colorado. With more state data generated by school districts since the original library study in 1993, Lance had more data to work with and did so. He and his team found that Colorado students continued to increase their reading scores on the Colorado Student Assessment Program with increases in the following characteristics of school library programs: library program development, information technology, teacher/school librarian collaboration, and individual visits to the library. In addition, as participation increases in leadership roles, so does collaboration between teachers and librarians. The relationship between these factors and test scores is not explained away by either school or community conditions (Lance, *et al*, 2000).

The second Colorado Study found that student reading test scores increased with increases in the following areas:

- Library hours per 100 students
- Total staff hours per 100 students

- Print volumes per student
- Periodical subscriptions per 100 students
- Electronic reference titles per 100 students
- Library expenditures per student

Also, the study found a correlation between increased test scores and networked computers in libraries and classrooms to allow students access to library resources, licensed databases, and Internet/World Wide Web access. The role of collaboration between the librarian and the classroom teacher also had a positive impact on student achievement, especially in schools where the librarian helps other teachers understand and use computers for research purposes. Scores went up when the librarian and teacher planned carefully for projects in the library. Iowa-based library researcher Jean Donham, in one of her numerous studies, confirms this positive link of student achievement with librarian-teacher collaboration in her writings on flexible scheduling. Donham writes that five components make flexible scheduling work to boost effective teaching and improve student achievement: information skills curriculum matched with content area curriculum; flexible access; team planning; principal expectations; and commitment to resource-based learning. For this to work, the administration and faculty of the building need to support the

concept that teacher-librarians and teachers are colleagues who can successfully team and collaborate with one another and the idea that students can have appropriate access to the library and be provided with the help and instruction needed for successfully completing the assignment given or the self-generated search for information important to the student. Donham concludes that “Creating such a system requires the involvement of not just the teacher-librarian, but the entire instructional team of a school – the principal, teachers, and teacher-librarians (Donham, 1995). When the librarian pulled and identified materials for teachers to use with students, taught information literacy skills to students as they used computers and print materials, provided in-service training to teachers on how to use the library, and managed the library computer lab which students used to find information and then create final projects, student scores went up on the standardized test.

Probably most important to the library community is that the findings on the two Colorado studies and the other state studies showing increased student achievement in schools with solid library programs cannot be explained away by school differences – district expenditures per pupil, teacher/pupil ratio, average years of experience of classroom teachers, and their average salaries - or community differences –

education attainment level of adults, children in poverty, and racial/ethnic demographics. These factors had been used earlier to play down the importance of the original study and, to some extent, the results of studies in seven other states. The big question of just how much of an increase has been measured on students' standardized test scores needs an answer. Lance found that the answer varies and depends upon the school library program's current status, what it improves, and how much it is improved. When library program predictors are maximized – staffing, expenditures, and information resources and technology – Colorado students tended to increase reading scores by eighteen percent for fourth grade students and ten to fifteen percent higher in seventh grade students (Lance, 2000).

Other researchers have found similar results in studies they have undertaken. Ken Haycock, a Canadian and past president of ALA, found that students in schools with well-equipped libraries and professional teacher-librarians perform better on achievement tests for reading comprehension and basic research skills. Haycock found four areas that predict student achievement: school library collection size/age; library expenditure; public library collection size; public library expenditure. The greatest predictor is the school library collection size/age. Data from five

different studies from 1965-1981 were used in his study. He also found that increased funding for school library collections affects teaching and learning in the school. Schools which spend more on library materials see a change in teaching and study methods and teachers and students use the library materials more in well-funded libraries. And not surprisingly, he also found that district priorities have more influence on the budgets than overall education funding. Haycock also found that students who had licensed teacher-librarians, who were in turn assisted by an associate, scored higher on reading sections of standardized tests (Haycock, 1992). Lance substantiated this finding in a 1997 study for the Colorado Department of Education (Lance, 1997).

David Loertscher and Blanche Woolls did an early study on the impact of student reading by school library programs publishing their findings in 1963. Their study showed “children with libraries and librarians read more books than those in school libraries with no staff. And, children with no libraries at all read the least.” The federal government used these findings, in part, to generously fund school libraries beginning with the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Loertscher and Woolls, 1999).

The early 1990s were a time of numerous school library-related studies being done and published. The studies all looked at the impact of the library program and staff on student reading scores and achievement. In a little different manner, researcher Stephen Krashen, looked at what reading does for individuals, especially school children. His 1992 *The Power of Reading* gave a great boost to school library programs. Of his numerous findings, these stand out particularly as offering support for a quality school library program, as he found that these aspects did, indeed, boost student achievement in reading:

- Free voluntary reading (FVR) in schools boosted student reading scores and comprehension.
- Student-chosen books rather than teacher-assigned books created interest and ownership by the students who could find books on topics and vocabulary levels that met their needs.
- The more books students read the better. Comprehension of material read improves the more a student reads.
- Students learn to spell, attain a large vocabulary, and understand grammar and syntax better when they read widely than through direct drill and practice.
- School library programs have a direct impact upon student achievement. Students tend to get their books at either their school library or their public library. Students read more books and make more gains in their reading skills in schools which have extensive collections and a licensed librarian compared to schools with small library collections and no librarian. In turn, students with smaller library collections and an associate instead of a librarian made more gains

than students in schools that had only classroom collections. The larger the collection for students to choose books from the better their reading scores (Krashen, 1993).

Since NCLB, school districts around the country are struggling to comply with the very specific demands of the federal government. Promoting literacy is the main focus of the law, and decades of studies show how important reading and libraries to improved literacy. As a teacher librarian from Canada wrote in an article for the April 2004 *Teacher Librarian* few people stop to think just how important reading is to students and the country they live in because most people can read and assume everyone else can too. She states succinctly the findings of many studies in this list.

1. The best predictor of how well a child will do in high school is how well he/she read in Grade 1.
2. Readers are better writers.
3. Readers score higher on reading tests.
4. Readers get better jobs.
5. Exposure to early reading experiences can actually increase IQ.
6. Good readers acquire second languages more easily.

She goes on to write about what makes a good reader: reading aloud to children from birth; modeling reading daily; and exposing children to books (MacDonell, 2004). Today with so many new Americans joining the ranks of lifelong citizens, it becomes even more important for schools

to have high quality library programs which will promote reading, because reading is what will give students the key to success in all other courses and to a life with many more choices for success.

Chapter 3
METHODOLOGY
Approach

The study will use the descriptive studies research method to look at the impact of the school library program in the Des Moines Public School District. Richard Light, in his book *By Design* describes descriptive studies as research that does exactly what its name implies – describes the way things are. These studies answer questions such as: How well do students write? What are the most popular courses on campus? How many graduates are accepted to medical school? How much money do our graduating seniors owe? Descriptive studies characterize the *status quo*; they do not tell you *why* things are the way they are (Light, 1990).

Descriptive research is also described as having the purpose to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately. Descriptive research is used in the literal sense of describing situations or events. It is the accumulation of a data base that is solely descriptive; it does not necessarily seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, make predictions, or get at meanings and implications, although research aimed at these more powerful purposes may incorporate descriptive methods. Research authorities, however, are not in agreement on what constitutes

“descriptive research” and often broaden the term to include all forms of research except historical and experimental. In this broader context, the term *descriptive survey studies* is often used to cover the examples of descriptive survey studies such as these: a public opinion survey to assess the pre-election status of voter attitudes toward an upcoming local or national election; a community survey to establish the needs for a vocational educational education program in the local school system; a study and definition of all human resources positions in a school district central office; and a report of test score results in a school district.

Descriptive research is often used in the following ways:

1. To collect detailed, factual information that describes existing phenomena.
2. To identify problems or justify current conditions and practices.
3. To make comparisons and evaluations.
4. To determine what others are doing with similar problems or situations and benefit from their experience in making future plans and decisions (Isaac, 1992).

For this study, the following steps will take place:

- Define the objectives in clear, specific terms. What facts and characteristics are to be uncovered?
- Design the approach - How will data be collected? How will the subjects be selected to insure they represent the population to be described? What data is available to gather, observe and serve as the basis for the study? What data collecting methods will be used?
- Collect the data.

- Report the results.

Historical Background of the Des Moines Public School District

Data will be gathered from student scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) from fifth grade students from various elementary buildings in the DMPS district. Some background on the district is needed to create a full picture for the study. Iowa became a state in the Union in late December, 1846, the same year two schools were established in log cabins in old Fort Des Moines. In 1851 a brick school house was erected in what is mid-downtown Des Moines, but in 1851 it was quite a distance west from the old fort and the confluence of the Des Moines and Raccoon rivers. At this time both the east and west areas of Des Moines began to grow. The Des Moines River cuts the city in half, and while the areas were technically all one city, they developed very separately with competing school districts. Des Moines had numerous school districts with high schools when one, independent school district was created in 1907. In that year all the districts and suburbs with schools became the Des Moines Independent Community School District, known as Des Moines Public Schools or DMPS (Denny, 1976). Since the 1980s, DMPS has increasingly taken on the characteristics of an urban school district. Minority enrollments have grown, and more students from families of lower

socioeconomic status and non-English language skills have come to the district.

Data Gathering Method

In 1999-2000, the district hired this writer as the department coordinator with the charge to build up the library program. No elementary schools had licensed teacher-librarians, but all ten middle and all six high schools had professional librarians. A plan was created to begin adding elementary librarians to schools that would voluntarily merge together. With the passage of the one cent sales tax to improve facilities, more elementary schools merged and new, larger schools were planned and built. By the 2000-2001 school year, one new elementary building, which was being built prior to the tax increase vote, opened with a librarian. A second large building, which was renovated and added on to also opened, and it, too, had an elementary librarian. A year later two more new and remodeled elementary buildings opened with librarians. It was during this year, the 2001-2002 school year that the elementary library program had its first year with a core of elementary librarians and a basic but unofficial library curriculum based, in part, upon the Reference Materials Section of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). Collaboration with classroom

teachers was implemented as was flexible scheduling, a new concept to DMPS teachers and principals.

For the purpose of this study, ITBS Reference Materials test scores of 5th grade students at these four schools which first added licensed librarians will be collected. The student body composition will be reviewed to note the percentages of Free and Reduced Breakfast/Lunch students, English language learners (ELL), minority percentages, and special education students. This will be the profile used to match these four schools with at least four other schools and possibly six other elementary schools which do not have licensed librarians to see if students score differently on the same test section of the ITBS. The DMPS Assessment Department will assist in setting up the demographics needed to find similar schools with populations of the four schools with librarians. The assessment department has the necessary data electronically gathered, and this writer will work with the individuals to pull out the needed data for this study. It must be noted here that this researcher will not have access to programs and the ability to manipulate district data, as only assessment department personnel have network rights to such important, and in some instances, private information. Instead, this researcher will work closely with assessment personnel to direct them to retrieve certain data and use district software programs to compute searches and use standard

formulas to generate data about student achievement based upon ITBS scores. Iowa Department of Education data on student enrollment that pertains to the research demographic parameters will be used, also. In essence, research will involve compiling the test scores of students in the four schools with librarians and matched schools without librarians to be looked at to see if there are any differences. The study, as a descriptive study will not attempt to analyze results found, but this writer will make recommendations based upon recognized quantitative school library studies in conjunction with findings from this study concerning how school library programs can enhance student achievement, specifically for DMPS students in grades K-12.

Database of the Study

The database of the study will be the scores on the ITBS Reference Materials test scores of fifth grade students in at least eight and possibly ten elementary schools in the DMPS District. The data will begin with the 2001-2002 school year, as this was the second year the program had the four librarians. Looking at test scores prior to this time is not acceptable, as the scores would reflect only associates providing library services; under Iowa Code only teachers can create and teach lessons on approved subjects to students. This study will look at the average growth of students on the Reference Materials section of the ITBS test to see if

there is any growth and what that growth is and in which buildings it occurred. The assumption is that there will be no measurable difference between schools with librarians and those with associates due the newness of the library program and the high degree of training all library associates get through the department to provide basic library service to students in the district.

Validity of Data

For any research project to have meaning, great care must be taken to gather valid data. For this study, a report will be made on the results of scores of fifth grade students in four buildings with librarians and at least four, and possibly six, buildings which do not have librarians, but do have trained associates. The findings will be presented to the administration and school board of the district. The data being gathered is highly valid for the following reasons:

- The school district, by federal law, has to test students to comply with NCLB.
- The test approved by the federal government to measure student achievement for Iowa students is the Iowa Test of Basic Skills for elementary students. Iowa is the only state not having state standards and benchmarks to measure student achievement for NCLB. Instead, all school districts

develop their own, but they must give the ITBS and its secondary companion, the Iowa Test of Educational Development (ITED), each year and report scores to measure student achievement for each building in a district. This follows the state's only mandate and was approved by the federal government.

- The University of Iowa owns the test, created it, and revises it periodically. The test questions and the methods for administering the test follow standard testing procedures established by the academic community.
- Students complete the test under the supervision of their classroom teacher, who verifies authenticity.
- The completed tests are given to the district assessment department, which sorts all answer sheets for computer scanning and ships them school-by-school to Iowa City to the test center.
- The employees of the test center take the answer sheets and scan them into computers which read and calculate the scores for each student in each building of the district.
- The scores are then sent back in various forms – building by building total scores, building scores broken down by grade

level, test scores by test, and test scores for individual students, to list a few of the many options given by the testing service. An overall district score is given, but it is the scores of buildings and the disaggregated scores of different student groups mandated by NCLB which determine if a district and individual buildings within a district are placed on a watch list or a list stating the district or building is in need of assistance.

- The assessment department has complete access to all data sent from the testing service and can pull up any and all information needed for the study and district demographic data for purposes of matching the student body profiles of the four schools with librarians.

Originality & Limitations of Data

Data for this research paper will come from the data sent by the testing service at the University of Iowa which owns the ITBS. The data being reviewed is specific to one section of the test, Reference Materials, a test of thirty-two items with four multiple-choice selections. Most questions offer the standard choices of A,B,C,D for answers, which are then bubbled in with number two lead pencils onto a corresponding

answer sheet. This is the sheet mentioned previously which is electronically scanned and scored.

The limits to the data are the limits placed in the design of the project – four elementary buildings in the DMPS District beginning their second year of having a licensed librarian and at least four, and possibly six, other buildings which match the student profiles of the four buildings. These other buildings do not have librarians. The test scores of the students in these buildings are also part of the limits placed on the data for this research project. Working with the data provided by ITBS will follow standard procedures used in the assessment field and using computer software created for the district to generate various types of information from data given. Only assessment personnel can access these databases and manipulate the data to meet the needs of this researcher. Assessment personnel will, therefore, form a team with this researcher in the pursuit of data on student achievement and the impact of school library programs. The purpose for this study is original: to research data to see if there are differences in student achievement between schools with and without librarians. No other study of this type or with this intent has ever been done in the district. The climate is right for such a study, and a report of the results of the test scores and all growth information will be made to the administration and school board.

Summary of Chapter 3

This study will employ the descriptive research method to look at gathering data on DMPS fifth grade student test scores on the Reference Materials test section of the ITBS beginning with the 2001-2002 school year, the second full year of the district library program with teacher librarians. The study will look to see what growth levels, if any, were made by students in the four buildings with librarians and four to six other buildings not having librarians fitting the student demographic profile of the four buildings with librarians.

The data for this project will be taken from district data sent by the University of Iowa. After other buildings are identified, their student scores in the Reference Materials test of the ITBS will be compared. The results of this study will be compiled into a report that will be presented to the district administration and the school board. This initial look at test scores in the area of library skills could possibly lead to the district to explore the idea of expanding support for the library program with increased funding for materials and the commitment to begin hiring more elementary librarians. However, this study is not designed to recommend any such actions, it is designed to explore the data and report it. However, if anything out of the ordinary should appear, it would important to make this

information known to the administration and suggest further study of the findings.

Once the schools with associates are identified using the demographic matches of Free and Reduced Breakfast/Lunch, ELL, minority percentages, and special education numbers, a comparison of fifth grade ITBS test scores on the Reference Materials section can be compared and looked at for growth by students in these various schools with and without librarians.

Chapter 4
DATA ANALYSIS
Overview

This study was designed to determine if there were differences in student achievement levels between students in elementary schools which had professional librarians, who, by Iowa Code, are allowed to teach information literacy skills and elementary schools with library associates, who, by Iowa Code, are prohibited from teaching or performing duties licensed teachers perform in the course of their day with students as measured on the Reference Materials section of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS). Associates, however, can present information teachers create for them.

Since 1990 there have been definitive studies in the field of school libraries which have quantitatively measured the impact of school library programs on student achievement. Chief among these researchers is Keith Curry Lance of the Department of Education of the State of Colorado. Beginning in 1988, Dr. Lance and colleagues began studying the school districts which had high student test scores on national standardized tests. The conclusion drawn from the 1993 Colorado Study was that well-funded, professionally staffed school libraries with the

necessary resources helped raise 7th grade student reading scores on the ITBS by as much as 21 percent (Lance, et al, 2002). This took into account socio-economic conditions of students and the educational levels of the community. The study further found that elementary students whose librarians collaborated most with classroom teachers scored 21 percent higher on the Colorado Student Assessment Program (CSAP) reading test than students with the least collaborative librarians (Lance, et al, 1993). Since the initial Lance study of 1993, thirteen other states have used the Lance researchers to do studies on the impact school library programs have on student learning. All have come to similar conclusions. In Iowa, the Lance researchers found that elementary students with the highest and lowest ITBS reading scores had markedly different library experiences. Students at the highest scoring schools used more than 2 ½ times as many books and other materials during library visits as compared to students from the lowest scoring schools. The Iowa study also confirmed the original Lance study of higher achievement of students from schools with professional librarians and well-funded libraries. These scores could not be explained away by other school or community conditions (Lance, et al, 2002). The basic assumption entering the study was given the strong training library associates in the DMPS District receive, and the strength of the program's basic curriculum, the longevity

of the associates membership in the department, and classroom teachers teaching basic library skills, there would probably not be a great difference in test scores between students without librarians as compared to those with librarians, since the addition of librarians was so recent. While this is a contradiction to the Lance studies and others since him, it is nevertheless a reasonable hypothesis, given the specific nature of the DMPS library program and its weakness at the elementary level for so many decades.

To attempt to measure the impact of school library programs with librarians compared to programs with associates, a list of demographic determiners to ensure fairness in the research process had to be identified. Because the study involved comparing four elementary schools with librarians, a profile was developed of each of those student bodies. The following five areas were determined to accurately profile the demographics of these four schools:

- Socioeconomic status of the student body
- Minority group numbers of the student body
- English language learner numbers of the student body
- Special Education numbers of the student body
- Similar enrollment figures of the student body

With the assistance of the Des Moines Public School District Assessment Department, existing demographic data on these five areas were identified and analyzed. The next step involved finding compatible schools without librarians which matched as closely as possible the data of the four schools with librarians. Out of the remaining 37 elementary schools in the district, a list of six buildings was compiled using district data. To further insure accuracy, each 5th grade class in the four schools with librarians and the six without librarians was reviewed to profile the percentage of students falling into the five measurable demographic categories. It was determined that the range of students falling into the categories was balanced and equitable and would produce accurate comparisons.

Description of the Schools Being Compared

Beginning in the 2000-2001 school year, the DMPS District decided to begin hiring elementary librarians, following a plan developed by this writer, who had just completed his first year as the department coordinator. A five year plan developed at the close of the 1999-2000 school year included incremental additions of school librarians, first to the largest elementary schools in the district, those having at least 600 students, and then to smaller buildings with contiguous boundaries which

agreed to merge and receive new or renovated and expanded buildings. The last phase of the librarian hiring part of the plan was to identify smaller buildings having under 450 students and paring them based upon contiguous boundaries, for efficiency of personnel travel time, to share one librarian. Hiring full time associates to assist these librarians was also included in the plan. In the end, all DMPS elementary schools would have full time associates assisting either part time (sharing two buildings) or full time librarians. The four buildings with librarians are Capitol View, Monroe, Moulton, and River Woods schools. Other elementary schools found to have similar demographic numbers for the study are Edmunds, Perkins, Wallace, Willard, Windsor, and Woodlawn schools. Care was also given to ensure that all the schools were located in various parts of the community to make the study truly reflective of the district at large.

Capitol View School is now four years old, and located near the state Capitol complex. Students can literally see the state Capitol's golden dome from the playground. Comparable buildings to Capitol View are Wallace and Willard schools. Tables 1 -4 show the demographic profiles of the ten buildings and the combined profiles. Listed next are the demographics and their abbreviations for each table: **SES**, socioeconomic status (free/reduced lunch numbers); **SPED**, special education; **ELL**, English Language Learner. **Race** refers to the different

racial groups making up each school, which are listed in each table, and **count** means the total number for the various demographics. **NE** refers to not eligible, **NSPED** means not special education, and **NELL** means not ELL; **%** refers to the percentage found in each school's calculation of the five demographic areas used for the study.

Review of Study Limitations

The tables shown over the next few pages create visuals for the reader about the limitations used for this study. The five demographic statistical comparison areas were arrived at by virtue of the make up of the DMPS District. Data in these categories is available and used by other departments, administration, schools, community, and the school board when examining progress or lack there of within the various buildings in the district. A careful look at each table will reveal verifiable percentages and counts to make the valid comparisons between schools with and without librarians possible. No two schools are alike within the district. Each segment of the city - central, northwest, west, southwest, south, southeast, northeast, and north - are home to a very diverse citizenry. While each school building in the district has definitive attendance boundaries, the district does allow open enrollment to facilitate a more even racial and socio-economic balance of the student body for each

building. Thus, to make valid comparisons between buildings is challenging, plus the added parameter of comparing buildings with librarians to similarly matched buildings with library associates posed numerous challenges. It took many different tries to establish the pairings that are reflected next in the tables. Also, it was found that more data, and this data is a few years old, had to be accessed, and some of it was only available from the Iowa Department of Education. Their numerous responsibilities to each of the 367 school districts in the state kept them from sometimes providing timely responses, and this in turn led to delays in the research. However, in order to assure as accurate as possible data, the waits had to be endured.

Table 1

Demographic breakdowns and combinations for Capitol View, Wallace, and Willard schools

Capitol View N = 73

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	17	0.23	NSPED	54	0.74	NELL	65	0.89	African Am	7	0.10
Eligible	56	0.77	SPED	19	0.26	ELL	8	0.11	Asian	3	0.04
									Caucasian	48	0.66
									Latino	14	0.19
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	1	0.01
										73	

Combined N = 77

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	19	0.25	NSPED	58	0.75	NELL	62	0.81	African Am	13	0.17
Eligible	58	0.75	SPED	19	0.25	ELL	15	0.19	Asian	11	0.14
									Caucasian	41	0.53
									Latino	11	0.14
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	1	0.01
										77	

Wallace N = 37

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	10	0.27	NSPED	27	0.73	NELL	27	0.73	African Am	10	0.27
Eligible	27	0.73	SPED	10	0.27	ELL	10	0.27	Asian	8	0.22
									Caucasian	12	0.32
									Latino	7	0.19
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										37	

Willard N = 40

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	9	0.23	NSPED	31	0.78	NELL	35	0.88	African Am	3	0.08
Eligible	31	0.78	SPED	9	0.23	ELL	5	0.13	Asian	3	0.08
									Caucasian	29	0.73
									Latino	4	0.10
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	1	0.03
										40	

Table 2

*Demographic break down of Monroe and Perkins schools***Monroe School N = 71**

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	33	0.46	NSPED	61	0.86	NELL	69	0.97	African Am	26	0.37
Eligible	38	0.54	SPED	10	0.14	ELL	2	0.03	Asian	1	0.01
									Caucasian	38	0.54
									Latino	6	0.18
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										71	

Combined N= 59

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	33	0.56	NSPED	51	0.86	NELL	57	0.97	African Am	22	0.37
Eligible	26	0.44	SPED	8	0.14	ELL	2	0.03	Asian	2	0.03
									Caucasian	31	0.53
									Latino	4	0.07
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										59	

Perkins N= 59

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	33	0.56	NSPED	51	0.86	NELL	57	0.97	African Am	22	0.37
Eligible	26	0.44	SPED	8	0.14	ELL	2	0.03	Asian	2	0.03
									Caucasian	31	0.53
									Latino	4	0.07
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00

Table 3

*Demographic breakdown of Moulton, Woodlawn, and Edmunds schools***Moulton N= 64**

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	36	0.56	NSPED	43	0.67	NELL	63	0.98	African Am	33	0.52
Eligible	28	0.44	SPED	21	0.33	ELL	1	0.02	Asian	3	0.05
									Caucasian	21	0.33
									Latino	6	0.09
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	1	0.02
										64	

Combined N= 88

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	48	0.55	NSPED	75	0.85	NELL	83	0.94	African Am	38	0.43
Eligible	40	0.45	SPED	13	0.15	ELL	5	0.06	Asian	3	0.03
									Caucasian	45	0.51
									Latino	2	0.02
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										88	

Woodlawn N= 67

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	47	0.70	NSPED	59	0.88	NELL	62	0.93	African Am	20	0.30
Eligible	20	0.30	SPED	8	0.12	ELL	5	0.07	Asian	3	0.04
									Caucasian	43	0.64
									Latino	1	0.01
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										67	

Edmunds N= 21

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	1	0.05	NSPED	16	0.76	NELL	21	1.00	African Am	18	0.86
Eligible	20	0.95	SPED	5	0.24	ELL	0	0.00	Asian	0	0.00
									Caucasian	2	0.10
									Latino	1	0.05
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	0	0.00
										21	

Table 4

*Demographic breakdown of River Woods and Windsor schools***River Woods N= 57**

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	36	0.63	NSPED	51	0.89	NELL	51	0.89	African Am	7	0.12
Eligible	21	0.37	SPED	6	0.11	ELL	6	0.11	Asian	9	0.16
									Caucasian	34	0.60
									Latino	5	0.09
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	2	0.04
										57	

Combined N= 48

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	33	0.69	NSPED	40	0.83	NELL	41	0.85	African Am	7	0.15
Eligible	15	0.31	SPED	8	0.17	ELL	7	0.15	Asian	2	0.04
									Caucasian	34	0.74
									Latino	1	0.02
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	2	0.04
										47	

Windsor N= 47

SES	count	%	SPED	count	%	ELL	count	%	Race	count	%
NE	33	0.69	NSPED	40	0.83	NELL	41	0.85	African Am	7	0.15
Eligible	15	0.31	SPED	8	0.17	ELL	7	0.15	Asian	2	0.04
									Caucasian	34	0.74
									Latino	1	0.02
									Native Am	0	0.00
									Other	2	0.04
										47	

As stated previously, the fifth grade students' ITBS test scores for the Reference Materials section of the test are calculated in Iowa City by the University of Iowa. The test, in the Form A, Level 11 booklet, covers six pages – pages 87 to 92, and is the last test. To ensure the integrity of the testing process, there are different forms of the same test. The form students took was Form A. There are 32 questions, and the students have 15 minutes to complete all the questions. The items on the test correspond with the DMPS Essential Curriculum and with the specific Libraries & Information Services Department curriculum, which is based upon national information literacy standards and relies on the Eisenberg Big Six skills. The test was given in the fall about two months after the school year began.

The ten schools' scores on the Reference Materials test were sorted out and compared, looking for average growth, as the ITBS test does, building by building. Using the racial composite demographic information on Table 1, one sees that for Capitol View School a norm score of 73 was generated. The percentage of students not eligible for free and reduced lunch averaged .23 percent, with .77 eligible. Non-special education and special education student percentages ran .74 and .26 respectively. For non-ELL and ELL percentages, the numbers came in at .89 and .11 respectively. When working with the assessment

department, the data was sorted to provide similar numbers with non-librarian buildings. Wallace and Willard schools, schools with no librarians, matched up to Capitol View when their demographic numbers were combined. Table 1 shows that a combined norm score of 77 was achieved as compared to 73 for Capitol View. For research purposes, these two norms were compatible.

In Table 2 one finds that Monroe School, having a librarian, was matched to Perkins School, which has an associate in the library. The racial norm score of 59 was found after combining the counts. The closeness of the percentages of the other four demographic determiners provided a close comparison between the two schools.

Table 3 shows the results of combining Woodlawn and Edmunds schools, which have associates, to Moulton School. A combined racial norm score of 88 was found after averaging the two schools and compared to Moulton's score of 64. As can be seen from viewing the table, the percentages of the other demographic areas are close to those of Moulton's

The final table, Table 4, compares River Woods, a school with a librarian to Windsor, a school with a library associate. A combined racial norm score of 48 and the other percentages and counts show a compatibility for comparison between the two buildings.

It must be noted that the researcher was fortunate to have such a large school district in with to conduct this study, as it would be challenging in a much smaller district to make valid comparisons between buildings.

Summary

After gathering the necessary data from the Iowa Department of Education and the DMPS Assessment Department, this writer began collaborating with assessment department personnel to work with the data to carry out the research of viewing scores on the ITBS Reference Materials test of students in schools having and not having school librarians. The five demographic areas of socio-economic status, minority group numbers, English language learners percentages, special education totals, and similar enrollment figures were disaggregated from state and district information. Six schools not having librarians were found to be close matches to the four schools having librarians. After determining these schools, the next step was to view the ITBS Reference Materials test scores of the 5th grade students in all ten buildings to see if there appeared to be any indication of positive impact upon student learning due to instruction by school librarians.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

After setting the parameters for researching the impact, if any, on student achievement due to the library program, six elementary schools not having librarians were identified and matched with the four with librarians. The demographics used to ensure reliability were socio-economic status of students, minority group numbers, English language learner numbers, special education numbers, and official enrollment figures. Once the six non-librarian schools were identified, the student ITBS test scores on the Reference Materials test were reviewed to see if any similarities or trends were apparent, and if so, how might they reflect upon the library program. Using data supplied by the Iowa City-based University of Iowa ITBS test, the process of reviewing the data began.

Conclusions

The data provided to the district assessment office by ITBS officials turned out to be revealing. On the Reference Materials test, Caucasian students in schools with and without librarians had similar scores. As seen in Table 5, the average national standard score (NSS) average for Caucasian students with librarians was 214.48 as compared to 215.81 for

those students having library associates. In other words, students with associates did slightly better on the test than those students in a school with librarians. For Latino students, however, it was a slightly different outcome. The NSS average for Latinos in schools with librarians was 210.62 as compared to 209.58 for those without a librarian. Asian-American students mirrored Caucasian students. Their NSS average score was 210.03 in schools with librarians as compared to 212.05 for schools with associates. A statistically significant outcome was measured for African-American students, however. For schools with librarians, the NSS average was 219.21 as compared to 207.32 for scores of students not having librarians.

Table 5

ITBS Reference Materials test National Standard Score averages by race

Score Range: 200-220	African-Am.	Asian-Am.	Caucasian	Latino
Schools with librarians	219.21	210.03	214.48	210.62
Schools without librarians	207.32	212.05	215.81	209.58

After viewing the scores for the various racial groups in the ten schools, it was determined a follow-up analysis was necessary to try and determine if the statistically significant African-American scores were

accurate. By looking at the racial group pairs by study group to test the statistical significance of the scores, the researcher and the district assessment department tried to determine if there were statistically significant differences between 5th grade Latino and African-American students in schools with and without associates. Using different data configurations, re-analysis of the 5th grade data with Major Race Subgroups data in place of Minority Status data was accessed and analyzed. While there was an attempt to demographically balance the Library Study Group schools, the question arose did the demographic balance extend to racial subgroups, i.e. were there more special education or low socio-economic students in the Associates Group when compared to the Librarian Group. To test this, a chi-square statistic was computed for each demographic variable in both the African-American Group, and the Latino Group, and the overall Library Study Group. No variation was found for Latino students. While the analysis did show some demographic variation among the African-American Group, the chi-square statistic was not significant. For statistical purposes, there were no demographic differences between the African-American children who attended the library associate study schools and the librarian study schools. The same statistically significant interaction between Major Race Subgroups and the overall Library Study Group (the 10 schools of the study) occurred again,

and it was determined the statistical significance was not an error or an accident due to using inaccurate data. Both Latino and African-American students did better on the test in schools with librarians. Table 6 shows a comparison of ITBS Reference Materials test scores for African-American matched cohort by building for two testing years 2001-2001 and 2002-2003 and average student growth.

Three of the four librarian buildings posted substantial NSS average gains, with an overall program gain of 21.03. The matched comparison schools average NSS gain was 9.13. River Woods School, a librarian school, did not reach the average gain, posting a gain of 7.40, and Windsor School, an associate school, had a 2.86 loss.

Table 6

Comparison of ITBS reference materials test for African-American matched cohort by building (Bold denotes librarian schools)

Building	2001-2002	2002-2003	NSS Difference (growth)
Capitol View	204.29	231.14	26.86
Monroe	192.00	210.00	18.00
Moulton	187.68	217.16	29.48
River Woods	194.80	202.20	7.40
Edmunds	186.18	203.82	17.67
Perkins	196.44	202.11	5.67
Wallace	190.29	199.86	9.57
Willard	198.67	209.00	10.33
Windsor	208.14	205.29	-2.86
Woodlawn	189.32	198.16	8.84

The following considerations were also used in making the statistical analysis for this study:

- ITBS Reference Materials test matches the DMPS Library Curriculum.
- Scores on the ITBS Reference Materials test were statistically adjusted for prior Reference Materials test knowledge in 2001-2002.
- The NCLB full academic year criterion – students were tested in the same building in 2001-2002 – was used. This assumes that students probably stayed within the same building for one full year.
- Schools with librarians were matched to schools with associates based on the student demographic features of socio-economic status (free and reduced lunch figures), English language learners, special education, race composition, and enrollment counts.

A final look at the end results of test scores of all racial groups of students is in order to conclude this section of Chapter 5. Table 7 shows the breakdown of minority and non-minority ITBS Reference Materials test scores and specific racial group scores between the librarian schools and associate schools. African-American students showed the most gains on the ITBS Reference Materials test followed

by Latino students. Asian-American and Caucasian students did slightly better in schools with associates as compared to those with librarians.

Table 7

Minority and non-minority ITBS scores for librarian and associate schools

	Librarian School	Associate School
Minority	214.89	208.52
Non-minority	212.83	214.43
African-American	219.21	207.32
Asian-American	210.03	212.05
Caucasian	214.48	215.81
Latino	210.62	209.58

At the conclusion of the study, many questions were generated. However, the nature of this dissertation is to not specifically answer questions that might be raised during the course of the research, per the

descriptive method employed. However, the researcher would be remiss in not presenting these questions and observations. Five observations, which emerged after the study, are as follows:

- While the data of this study shows that overall there was statistically no real difference in the achievement scores on the ITBS Reverence Materials test by Caucasian, Asian, Latino DMPS 5th grade students in schools with or without professional librarians, African-American students showed a great increase, 21.03. Why did this happen, as the findings in general for this study contradict the different Lance studies done in 14 states? One possible explanation might be that the Lance studies found specifically that districts with professional library staff, which showed substantial gains on standardized tests, had adequate support/paraprofessional staff, extensive resources to purchase materials, and possessed large, current collections. This is not the case with DMPS libraries. This poses the question of just how important all of these factors are to the outcomes found by the Lance team in the studies. This writer's estimation is that these factors are quite important and figure in as a major part to solving the puzzle of the differing outcome data with the DMPS study and

the basic Lance studies. The finding here of little gain by Caucasian and Asian students related to library skills could strengthen the call for more spending per student on library books and other library-related curriculum materials, instituting the library department curriculum district-wide, and ensuring each library is adequately staffed. The issue of equity in size and quality of library collections, resources at hand to maintain the library program, and hiring professional and paraprofessional staff in adequate numbers throughout the district comes to the forefront any in-depth discussion about school libraries and their impact upon student learning and helping to close the achievement gap. A related question is also how much teaching of general library-related information found on the ITBS test goes on throughout the district in classrooms by classroom teachers. This writer's estimation is that a great deal of teaching goes on by necessity to raise achievement scores as derived from the composite score for the various sections covered within the ITBS test.

- A second observation is how the outcome of this study reinforced the purpose of the study, as listed on page 5: 1. Research the development of the American public school library program highlighting specific information that gives its history and lays out a

foundation of importance for the program to help citizens better understand how and why school libraries came to be. 2. Review the research that shows the impact school library programs have upon student achievement to help citizens realize what these programs can do for students. 3. Research the impact of the school library program on DMPS elementary school student achievement based upon student test scores on the ITBS Reference Materials section of the test. Because of the high African-American student achievement scores, which do not correspond to the other racial groups comprising the district, there is a need to further monitor this situation to see if it continues or not and becomes prevalent within other racial groups in the district.

- A third observation is that the Lance studies show a range of 10 – 18% increase in student test scores for districts with professional librarians who have at least adequate numbers of resources and funding to create library programs which meet the needs of students and faculty. According to this study, African-American students in the district followed this increase in test scores but without the benefit of the components of adequate staffing, funding, and resources. Why is this possible, and is this finding an anomaly?

- The district has indicated a commitment to require all elementary students to take the Reference Materials test and to follow up on the test scores of all students and the scores broken down by racial groups for at least five years to try and understand the impact of library programs with librarians on student achievement.
- Because the district had only four buildings with librarians to use as comparisons with buildings which do not have librarians, much of this research project relied upon the expertise of the librarians in those libraries. While this is an obvious and necessary aspect of the research design, this researcher found that variables within the ranks of those librarians and the ranks of the associates in the six schools closely matching the student body make up of the four librarian schools played an important part in the outcome of the study. Of the four librarians, one was brand new and still working to complete her librarian endorsement. Another, while a veteran teacher with many different classroom experiences and professional assignments within the district, most recently as a reading teacher and building literacy leader, had not yet finished her endorsement. Of the remaining librarians, one was two-thirds finished with her MLS degree, and the final librarian was a veteran of many successful years in a school library. Interestingly, the

schools with the highest percentage of student achievement gains were in the buildings where the librarian was brand new and still working on the endorsement, and the other was the veteran librarian. How much the individual personalities and abilities of these women possess as librarians influenced the study and outcome pose an interesting question that might never be answered.

Recommendations

When this researcher and the assessment department personnel began to see the statistically significant data appear for African-American students in schools with librarians, there was great excitement at what implications this could have for the Libraries & Information Services Department and its programs in all DMPS school buildings. As in any solid research project, the researcher and assessment personnel turned next to the 2003-2004 ITBS Reference Materials test data for analysis to try and better understand the statistically significant results of the 2002-2003 test only to be shocked to find that due to various building principals' requests to not risk having building scores brought down by Reference

Materials subtest scores, the test was not required and no students took the test. While this situation has been rectified for the February 2005 testing period, it effectively ended this research project. The positive aspect of this debacle is that the district is now committed to finding out what role librarians, library associates, and the general library program all play in boosting student achievement and narrowing the achievement gap. This study has already served a valuable purpose of forcing the debate on why librarians, library associates, and library programs are important to the district in helping all children improve academically.

This study has provided a detailed, yet concise history of the development of school libraries since their earliest beginnings in the late 18th century in New England. This history brings to light the gradual need, as seen by ordinary citizens, for the development of school library collections and eventually library programs and library schools to teach librarianship to all types of librarians. Information about the early rise of secondary – high school – libraries, the eventual creation of junior high schools and the need for libraries at that level, and the slow development of elementary libraries, often times due to the excellent collaborative efforts and strong sense of mission by city children’s librarians to bring quality children’s literature and non-fiction materials to schools and share them directly with students and faculty alike. This research has shown

that in the 20th century school libraries blossomed to become an important aspect of the public school curriculum, especially after the start of the Cold War and the launching of the Soviet satellite Sputnik in 1957. Americans understood the importance of all types of libraries as destinations for resources and help in finding information needed by them. The historical section of this paper provides a timeline of sorts for those interested in how school libraries evolved and how librarians shifted their alliance from solely depending upon the NEA to help them professionally to moving over to the ALA and forming AASL to best meet their professional and program needs. The terminology changes from librarian and library to media specialist and media center and back again to the “L” word, as it is known in library circles reflects the vitality a changing and adapting profession has, attributes that will carry it forward into the Information Age of the 21st century and the constantly changing formats of information products and the explosion of information. Librarians, especially school librarians can be counted upon to keep abreast of the times and keep adapting and learning in order to teach all who use libraries how to find, evaluate, and use information, no matter what the format happens to be.

The information presented in this dissertation about library curriculum and its impact upon student learning - measuring how library programs improve student achievement and can close the achievement

gap among various groups of students – hopefully can be embraced by school district administrators so that lost librarian and library associate positions can be restored. Since 1990 enough quantitative studies have been done that prove the positive impact upon student learning as measured on national standardized tests. As the continued impact of NCLB begins to be felt in the upcoming four years, it is hoped that information from this study will lead to the inclusion of more funding for library materials, both paper and electronic. The studies have shown how school librarians, a solid library curriculum, expansive collection, and student access to the library facility all improve student achievement.

Finally, the inconclusive results of why African-American students showed such strong growth in test scores at schools having librarians needs further study and support. Since the nature of the research method for this paper was the descriptive method, no proposals or deep analysis is done to answer obvious questions. Why there was little difference in achievement scores between Caucasian and Asian students in schools without librarians is a puzzle, especially in light of such a plethora of definitive school library studies across the nation and in other Western countries. Exploring the many variables specific, but not necessarily unique, to the DMPS District regarding the impact librarians have on student achievement should be done and is recommended. How much

time away from basic, traditional library programs to teach courses either in or out of the library can impact student learning. Individual school (faculty and administrator) support or lack of obviously can impact a program. Finding out how much variance there is from school to school on expectations for library personnel to perform their duties is another aspect to further study.

Overall, this study provides a launching point for the department to begin asserting itself into the debate of how to raise student achievement and help close the achievement gap within the district. Until now, library services to students have not received much attention or discussion. And that can change by taking parts of this research project and using the information to ask for more positions and funding for materials. Hopefully, the overall impact of this project will be to educate people on how school libraries came to be and why, show the library curriculum as a life long learning skill on how to manage the overload of information and knowing how to find verifiable sources, and to raise the question of do librarians really make a difference, especially with minority students, as compared to the library programs in schools run by associates. All of these questions and more should now be asked in light of the information presented in this dissertation.

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