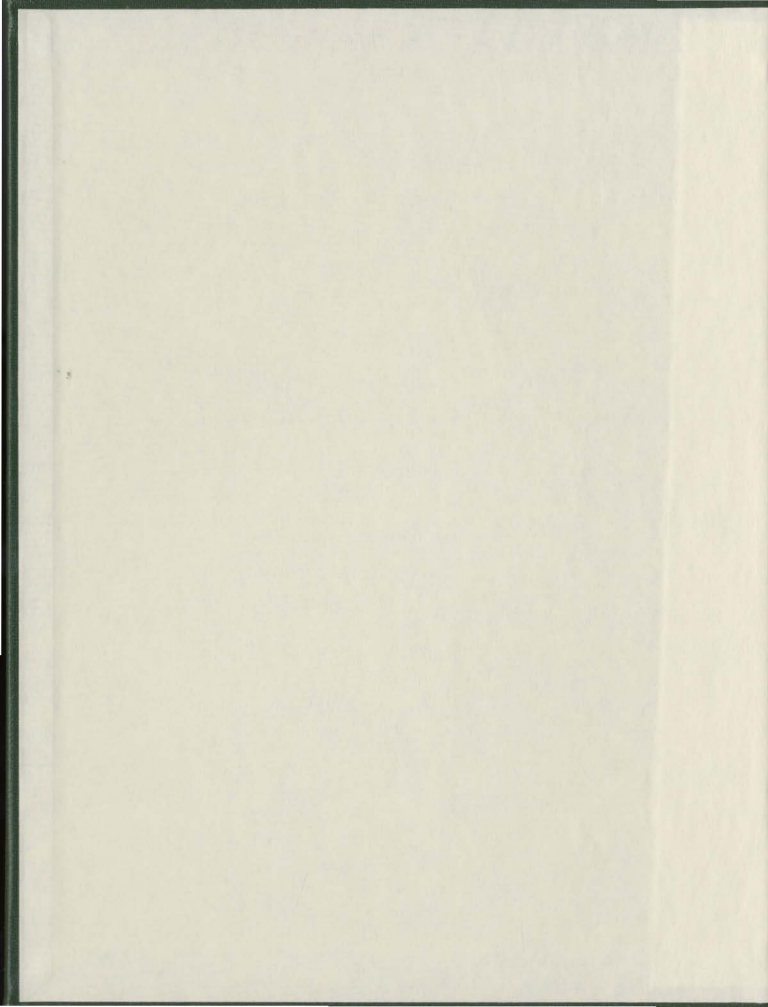A STUDY OF THE EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL
LIBRARY MEDIA PROGRAMS AND THE
PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE WITH
IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

IDA MARY JEAN BROWN

A STUDY OF THE EVOLUTION OF SCHOOL
LIBRARY MEDIA PROGRAMS AND THE
PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE WITH
IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

by

Ida Mary Jean Brown, B.A. (Ed.)

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate
Studies in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Education

Division of Learning Resources
Memorial University of Newfoundland
May 1985

St. John's   Newfoundland

ABSTRACT

School libraries, in theory, are an integral and essential part of the school's instructional program, with school librarians involved as teaching partners with classroom teachers. In practice, many school libraries are viewed as frills, existing on the peripheral of the school's instructional program, with the school librarian's role seen as being mainly clerical or technical. This study began as a search to discover why the gap between theory and practice existed, and what, if anything, could be done to close this gap.

Since it is necessary to fully understand the modern concept of a school library, a chapter is devoted to the development of the modern school library media program. This chapter traces the evolution of the school library by examining the national standards for school libraries which have been published in the United States and Canada, from the first standards of 1918 to the most current standards and guidelines.

This thesis postulates that a school library is an integral part of the school. To successfully implement a school library media program, it is necessary to understand the nature of teaching and the characteristics of the

school which hinder or facilitate such a program. Therefore, a chapter is devoted to an examination of the world of the school. Since the school is part of the school district, and also part of the larger society, this chapter examines conditions in the school, in the school district, and at provincial or national levels.

Since most schools do not have school library media programs, to introduce such a program is to introduce a major change. Chapter Four examines the process of educational change. It synthesizes the findings on how change occurs in schools and how it affects the individuals involved.

The final chapter is a synthesis of the findings, relating how the factors associated with the school library media program itself, factors external to the school district, factors at the district level, and factors at the school level contribute to successful implementation of such a change. It discusses implications for anyone interested in introducing a school library media program where none presently exists.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I extend sincere thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Mary
Kennedy, for her helpful suggestions and generous assis-
tance. Through the writing of this thesis, she has
been a friend as well as an adviser.

Memorial University of Newfoundland provided a
University Fellowship for this study. For this generosity,
I express deep appreciation.

Special thanks are extended to the staff at the
University library who provided valuable assistance.
Thanks are also due to Mrs. Betty Norris for her conscien-
tious typing of the manuscript.

Without the support of my family I doubt whether
the thesis would ever have been completed. I am especially
grateful to my husband, Lloyd, whose help has been invalu-
able, and to my daughter Edena, and my son Chris who
were tolerant and understanding during the writing of
this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter I

NATURE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The twentieth century has seen knowledge increase
at an accelerated rate. Beswick (1977) identified the
speed at which man is acquiring knowledge as a major
pressure for change in education. Dr. Robert Hilliard
clearly described the change which students today must
face:

> At the rate at which knowledge is growing,
> by the time the child born today graduates
> from college, the amount of knowledge in the
> world will be four times as great. By the
> time the same child is fifty years old it
> will be thirty-two times as great, and 97
> per cent of everything known in the world
> will have been learned since the time he was
> born. (cited in Toffler, 1970, p. 137)

To choose what to teach and the best resources
to teach with has become a major problem for curriculum
developers. It is possible for today's students to
choose from thousands of sources in different formats,
from books, magazines, or newspapers to television,
videotape, or 16mm film. Phenix (1964) expressed concern
about the effects this might have on education:

The condition is not quite one of a quiet accumulation of information, but such a rapid expansion as to cause a shattering effect upon the modern mentality. A revolution of quantity has taken place, demanding a wholly different orientation to learning. The gradual assimilation of a relatively fixed body of knowledge can no longer be the goal of education. (p. 304)

What then is learning to be? For many educators the answer seems to be that learning is learning how to learn. Content is still important, for a learner must learn something, but the emphasis has changed from content to the process of learning itself. Odenstam (1977) writing in a UNESCO publication declared:

Pupils in the schools of today have to learn to find and collect information, interpret and evaluate it, collate and use it. This is a universal educational goal. As such it has to be taken into account in all kinds of subject studies, in different learning situations, and with reference to difficult problems. (p. 10)

Haycock (1981b) agreed with this goal, seeing learning as "the process of unlocking knowledge and critical thinking" (p. 5), the end result of such endeavours being to develop independent learners who can locate, analyze and evaluate information in any media format. Wall (1974) also stressed the importance of this process: "the mark of education is that one has learned how to learn, a capacity much more important than knowledge

itself since knowledge may go out of date, whereas skill
in learning is the key to all knowledge" (p. 11).

A change of emphasis in what and how to teach is
not a simple change to put into practice. Teachers
have always tended to be frightened of innovations.
One famous teacher confronted with a new teaching resource
reacted negatively, predicting dire consequences for
students who would use such an aid: "Those who acquire
it will...become forgetful...they will receive a quantity
of information without proper instruction and...be a
burden to society" (cited in Beswick, 1977, p. 31).
The teacher was Socrates and the teaching resource was
a handwritten form of a book. Since that time change
has come in many new forms. In the fifteenth century
the printing press provided books, pamphlets and newspapers.
The nineteenth century saw the introduction of photography,
which provided a whole new concept of illustration.
Since then there has been rapid introduction of new
media. The phonograph record enabled millions of people
everywhere to hear and enjoy music. The moving picture
provided a whole new dimension, as Beswick (1977) observed:

> As we came upon the moving picture with its
> ability not only to entertain us but also
> to analyse what we could not easily see with
> the unaided eye, we began to recognize that
> we had new tools for discovery; we now knew
> exactly how a horse used its feet in galloping,

what an explosion was like in slow motion,
what a street looked like to the condensed
eye of the time-lapse camera. (p. 31)

"New tools for discovery" have become available at a
rapid rate ever since. Radio, very popular during the
thirties, is a source of information and recreation.
Colour television, always recognized as an important
source of information, has new educational potential
with the availability of easy-to-use videocassette recorders
which allow production or taping of educational programs.
Commercial producers have made available instructional
packages of mixed media: filmstrips with cassette tapes
and booklets; books with records; multi-media kits which
contain an assortment of media in one container. The
format of print material itself has changed. Children's
books range from full-colour, beautifully illustrated
works to economical paperback editions. Other print
material (especially periodicals and newspapers) are
available as microfiche or microfilm, with compact readers
designed for portability and easy use. Home computers
have become a standard feature in many schools. Computer
software packages are available as the newest tool for
discovery.

There is no indication that the change is slowing
down. Videodiscs now available can store the equivalent

of 64,000 photographs on a single disc, also storing the audio messages to accompany the visual images. Coates (1984) is excited by the new revolution, "As we stand on the brink of this knowledge and information revolution, an opportunity exists--the chance to transform and raise education to a new order of effectiveness and quality" (p. 49). He sees its acceptance by the school community as inevitable. He concludes, "As science and technology, and more particularly, information become the core of the economy, they will also become the basis for entertainment and recreation. Our schools sooner or later must embrace that fundamental change in our world" (p. 49).

How has the school accommodated these changes? From the examination of educational theory it would appear that schools are in a constant state of innovating. In the past eighty years many new curriculum theories have been formulated as educators attempted to understand human learning and how best to educate the young. Theorists such as Jerome Bruner, Hilda Taba, David Ausubel, Jean Piaget and Joseph Schwab focused on cognitive development. Their works, in particular Bruner's A Study of Thinking revolutionized the teaching approaches recommended in textbooks and curriculum guides. Other theorists, such as Paul Torrance, Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt

that too much emphasis was being placed on cognitive development, and so their work looked at the individual, at feelings and emotions as well as intellect. Stressing self-fulfillment and creativity, their theories were eagerly accepted by those who wished a more nurturing environment. Other educational theorists saw the needs of society as being of paramount importance, and developed theories of education which stressed the relationship of the individual to society. For John Dewey, democratic problem-solving processes were central. His influence has pervaded the twentieth century and influenced others such as W.H. Kilpatrick, who is credited with the origin of the project method. Almost lost in the multitude of educational theorists have been those who stress the literary or artistic experience, educators like Louise Rosenblatt, Philip Phenix and Eliot Eisner, who argue convincingly for the school's need to recognize and provide opportunities for the aesthetic experience. Perhaps the most controversial theories about human learning have been advanced by the behaviourists who drew on the knowledge of classical conditioning and stimulus-response studies to advance theories about how schools should teach. B.F. Skinner, referred to as "father of the teaching machine" (Hall, 1983, p. 26)

is undoubtedly the best known and has been the most influential.

These theories have influenced the educators of today. Whether they work as administrators, classroom teachers or university professors, their orientations to the curriculum, whether humanistic, behaviourist, or aesthetic, will influence how they teach and how they believe human learning to take place. Fullan (1982), in tracing the sources of curriculum reform in Canada, noted that proposed changes which appeared in curriculum guidelines and programs were similar in all provinces. He saw the common source of theoretical ideas as the explanation for this. The new ideas, he stated:

> Seem to be a strange blend of public, political pressures...and the pet theories and ideas of progressive university professors and school teachers...the latter groups having been heavily influenced by the "theoretical" developments of the university-based curriculum reform efforts in the 1960s in the United States. (p. 18)

There is little doubt that these ideas have influence, and that the influence is being incorporated into the curriculum reform efforts. In recent years there has been discussion of continuous progress, individualized instruction, mastery learning and, recently, resource-based learning. Many schools claim to have implemented

these reforms. However, intensive observational studies
of what is actually happening in classrooms reveal that
there is a wide gap between theory and practice. Goodlad
and Associates (1975) observed:

> Unfortunately, the implementation of proposed
> organizational change was more apparent than
> real. It was easy to apply the labels of
> the new practices and everyone employed the
> rhetoric of change. One could talk in such
> a way as to convey being avante garde, implying
> without actually stating that the practices
> associated with the terms already were under
> way in one's school or district. It is not
> surprising, therefore, that the impression
> of change far surpassed the reality of change.
> (p. 35)

Crocker (1983b), in a study conducted in Newfoundland,
observed that few changes had permeated the traditional
classroom. Despite the technology available and curriculum
theories now prominent, he concluded:

> It is clear that the textbook and the chalkboard
> are the primary instruments of instruction.
> These instruments appear all-pervasive...the
> classroom does, indeed, conform to the conventional
> image of a place which is teacher dominated
> and textbook oriented, and in which pupils
> are isolated even while in a crowd. (p. 82)

Goodlad (1984) in his most recent study A Place
Called School recorded the same observation, that despite
all the proposed reforms and innovations:

> ...the same picture emerges. The two activities,
> involving the most students, were being lectured
> to and working on written assignments...in
> workbooks or on worksheets. The extraordinary
> degree of student passivity stands out. The
> amount of time spent in any other kind of
> activity...was miniscule. (p. 230)

The observations of classroom life all confirm that a large discrepancy exists between educational theory and classroom practice. Few of the talked about innovations are actually implemented. It is a condition that has led many educators to lament that the more things change, the more they stay the same.

School libraries are victims of the same fate. In theory the concept of the school library has moved from what Beswick (1977) called "storehouse to learning centre" (p. 78). Curriculum developers have demanded that school libraries respond to new theories, and the standards for school library service which have appeared in different editions since 1918 reflect that change. In theory it has been called "the heart of the school". In practice it provoked one irate school librarian to explode "The heart of the school? My foot!" (Lash, 1953). Beswick (1977) described what most school libraries have actually been in practice, "The old school library, print-based or not, was essentially peripheral, cultural,

recreational, linked largely with reading for pleasure and the work of the English teacher" (p. 66).

Despite all the positive statements made about the value of school libraries, the fact is, as Beswick points out, they are not well-developed or well-staffed, and in recent years are losing ground. In the present mood of restraint and cut-backs, the future of school library media programs is being seriously scrutinized. Many schools have no qualified teacher-librarian or school library media specialist on their staff. Personnel in school libraries who were once full-time are being made part-time, or positions are being eliminated. In an attempt to save money some school boards are replacing professional teacher-librarians with clerical help. Beswick (1983) commented, "There are many [places] where the school library has been at best a token collection ill-financed, ill-housed, under-used and inadequately staffed, and at worst has not even existed" (p. 2).

Many school librarians are confused over their role and uncertain of the position the school library should have in the school. This confusion is very well described by Hambleton (1979), Haycock (1984b), Beswick (1983), Mohajerin and Smith (1981), and Pitts (1982). The picture is one of isolation. School librarians may be dedicated to their tasks, convinced that a school

library is essential for learning, but often they are without support and unable to back-up their beliefs with solid evidence or with well-thought out theoretical positions. Study after study was reviewed by Aaron (1982) to show that school librarians, teachers and administrators hold conflicting views of the role of the school librarian and the purpose of the school library. Profiles of school librarians reveal that they range from the book-oriented, traditional librarian, eager to escape the noise and demands of classroom teaching, to the eager media specialist who advocates the use of the latest methods and equipment in educational technology.

Despite the confusion, the concept of the school library media program is clearly defined by standards and current literature for those who take the time to search for it. A particularly useful description is provided in the curriculum guide prepared by the Ontario Ministry of Education (1982), called appropriately enough Partners in Action: the Library Resource Centre in the School Curriculum. The primary role outlined here for the school library media specialist is described by Haycock (1984b), "The teacher-librarian's major task is to work with classroom teachers to plan, develop, and implement units of study which integrate research

and study skills" (p. 94). Cooperative planning and team teaching, essential to this concept, would place the school library media program in the centre of the instructional program of the school. It would require competencies in various areas: consultation, curriculum development, instruction, selection of learning resources, management of the resource centre, and program advocacy.

To implement such a program is to make a major change in the school. It means that instead of being on the peripheral as a support service often not involved in the school's instructional program, the school library media specialist would help determine what students are to learn. For teachers accustomed to total autonomy in self-contained classrooms this would require a totally new approach to teaching. Beswick (1983) was not exaggerating when he wrote, "Let us begin with what by now ought to be obvious: that to be an active and vocal protagonist of school libraries is still to support a controversial view of educational theory, curriculum content and teaching methodology" (p. 1).

To introduce anything controversial into the school system requires courage and effort on the part of teachers and administrators. It also raises questions which need to be answered if successful implementation of the program is to take place.

Purpose of the Study

This thesis will attempt to answer some of the questions raised. In particular it will focus on the process of change which will be involved if the modern concept of the school library media program, as a vital force in the instructional program, is to be successfully implemented in the school. It is a theoretical study which will attempt to answer:

1. What exactly is the modern concept of the school library media program?

2. What does research reveal about the introduction of new ideas in the schools?

3. What conditions presently exist which would mitigate against the implementation of the program?

4. What conditions presently exist which would facilitate such a change?

Definition of Terms

In the literature on school librarianship, certain terms tend to cause confusion. It will therefore be necessary to define the use of some terminology.

School librarian, media specialist, librarian, learning resources teacher, teacher-librarian and school library media specialist. Terms used synonymously to

refer to the person in charge of the school library. In this thesis, for consistency, the following definitions will apply:

School library media specialist. A member of the teaching staff who has professional preparation in educational media, is certified as a teacher, and has competencies in curriculum development, instructional development, and educational technology; and is an expert in using resources to make teaching and learning more effective, efficient, and rewarding. Usually this person has the degree of Master of Education (M.Ed.).

Teacher-librarian. A person who is a teacher but who may or may not have training in school librarianship or educational technology. Though such a person may work part or even full-time in the school library, his or her training and professional orientation is towards the classroom rather than school librarianship.

School librarian. The person in charge of the school library, regardless of qualifications.

Professional librarian. A graduate from a school of library science, usually with the degree of Master of Library Science (MLS).

School library media program. Is the total expression of all media functions for a school. It is a combination of resources that includes the people, materials, equipment,

facilities, as well as the purposes and processes. It reflects applications of educational technology, communication theory, and library and information science. It contributes at every level in the school, "offering essential processes, functions, and resources to accomplish the purposes of the school" (American Association of School Librarians [AASL] & the Association for Educational Communications and Technology [AECT], 1975, p. 1).

School library, library, media centre, resource centre, learning resource centre, school media centre, school library media centre. Terms used synonymously in the literature to refer to the area or system of areas in the school where a full range of information sources, the necessary equipment, and media staff are accessible to students, teachers and the school community.

School library media centre. The name used in this thesis to emphasize that the centre functions both as a traditional library with print materials and as a media centre with all other forms of instructional materials and equipment.

Learning resources, resources, materials, instructional materials, library materials, educational materials, learning materials. Terms used synonymously to refer to the print and non-print materials which are collected in the school library media centre for use in the school

program in general. Materials include all forms of media: books; other printed materials; audio-visual equipment, supplies and software, such as filmstrips, films, videotapes, computer programs, audio tapes, phonograph records; realia; globes; models; specimens.

Standard of school library service. Refers to "the very best statements of our collective judgement--a clear and unequivocal vision of what a library media program should be" (Loertscher, 1980, p. 54). Leaders in education, school librarianship and educational technology cooperate in formulating standards for school library media programs.

Several terms referred to often in the literature on educational change need to be defined as they may mean different things to different people. The definitions provided here are based on those used by Havelock (1973).

Change. A significant alteration in the status quo. In this thesis it will mean an alteration which is intended to benefit the people involved.

Innovation. A change which represents something new to the people being changed. In this thesis, to introduce a school library media specialist to a school which has not had one before is an innovation. It will also mean a change which is intended to benefit the people who are changed.

<u>Change process</u>. How the change or innovation comes about.

<u>Planned changes</u> or <u>planned innovations</u>. "Changes or innovations which come about through a deliberate process which is intended to make both acceptance by and benefit to the people who are changed more likely" (Havelock, 1973, p. 5).

<u>Change agent</u>. A person who facilitates planned change or innovation.

<u>Implementation</u>. To put theory into practice.

Design of the Study

First, there will be a review of the literature pertaining to the concept of the school library media program. In order to understand the evolution of the program an historical survey will trace the origins of the concept. American and Canadian standards for school library service will be examined. It is necessary to examine the American standards, for until 1967 Canadians used them as their standards, and even today they continue to be a major influence.

Before any change can be introduced in the school system, it is necessary to understand the school system itself. Researchers such as Goodlad (1963, 1970, 1983,

1984), Lortie (1975), Jackson (1968), Lieberman and Miller (1978), Crocker (1979, 1983, 1984), and Sarason (1982) have provided insight into the world of the school. In Chapter Three, this literature will be reviewed, focusing on the characteristics which impinge upon the implementation of a school library media program.

In the past twenty years a strong base of research on educational change has been formulated; some from Canada, some from England, the most from the United States. The findings are consistent in suggesting the meaning of educational change, and the prime factors which influence it. This literature will be reviewed in Chapter Four.

Chapter Five synthesizes the views presented in the preceding chapters, pulling the ideas together in a discussion of how the modern school library media program could successfully be implemented. Out of this discussion will arise implications for any who wish to introduce such a program into the school.

Significance of the Study

This thesis is based on the view that to introduce a school library media program into a school is to undertake a major change which will require a new approach, asking

teachers to change the way they teach and to adopt team teaching, resource-based techniques. This is a very difficult job to undertake for it becomes a matter of changing beliefs about teaching which may be firmly held. Those attempting such change will need to clearly understand the school library media concept, the school setting itself, and the relationships which must exist between the the school library media specialist, the classroom teacher and the administrators. Would-be reformers will also need to understand the meaning of educational change, and be aware of the factors that will encourage or discourage innovations. Whether those attempting such change are school librarians, teachers or administrators, it is hoped that this study will give some insight into the complex process involved in introducing this change into the schools.

Chapter II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA PROGRAMS

Early Beginnings

The concept of the school library can be traced
back to 1578 to Lord Ashton's ordinance for setting
up Shrewsbury School, in which he stated that the building
should include: "a library and a gallery for the said
school, furnished with all manner of books, mappes,
spheres, instruments of astronomy and all things apperteyning
to learning" (cited in Beswick, 1977, p. 62). In North
America as early as 1740 Benjamin Franklin included
a library in plans for his academy. Almost a century
later New York State really began the school library
movement in the United States. In 1835 the state legislature
passed a law allowing school districts to use a portion
of their tax monies to establish and maintain school
libraries. In 1837 the State of Massachusetts passed
similar legislation:

> By the law of April 12, 1837, the Legislature
> of Massachusetts authorized each school district
> in the State to raise, by tax, a sum not exceeding
> thirty dollars for the first year, and ten
> dollars for any subsequent year, for the purchase

of a library and apparatus for the schools.
(Mann, 1891, p. 298)

Educators generally showed interest in the need
for a school library. In 1892 New York State formed
a School Libraries Division within the Department of
Public Instruction. In the report of 1900 a standard
was reported for elementary school libraries:

> A small library is becoming indispensable
> to the teachers and pupils of the grammar
> school. In order to give definiteness to
> this idea of a small library, suppose it to
> consist of five hundred to one thousand books,
> containing the best classic stories, poems,
> biographies, histories, travels, novels, and
> books of science suitable for the use of children
> below high school.... It is evident that
> a carefully selected library of the best books
> of this character should be found in every
> grammar school. (cited in Gillespie and Spirt,
> 1983, p. 3)

Nationally other developments revealed a rising
interest in school libraries. In 1896 the National
Education Association (NEA) created its Library section,
partly because of a petition requesting action circulated
by the American Library Association (established twenty
years earlier) and partly because of the "impassioned
speech on the importance of libraries in education delivered
by Melvil Dewey at the NEA Convention" (Gillespie and
Spirt, 1983, p. 4).

Melvil Dewey, founder and influential member of the American Library Association, made it clear that a library was not restricted to a collection of books. In 1906 he wrote:

> Libraries are rapidly accepting the doctrine for which we have contended for many years. The name "library" has lost its etymologic meaning and means not a collection of books, but the central agency for disseminating information, innocent recreation, or, best of all, inspiration among people. Whenever this can be done better, more quickly or cheaply by a picture than a book, the picture is entitled to a place on the shelves and in the catalog. (cited in Beswick, 1977, p. 63)

This key concept of information dissemination in all forms is evident in all school library development since.

In the first quarter of the twentieth century the school population had increased tremendously. Following World War I there was a general growth in public education and new ideas abounded in how best to educate the young. Of particular note in the United States was the rise of interest in what later became known as audiovisual instruction. In 1910 the public schools of Rochester, New York became the first to use films for regular instructional use, and leading citizens predicted changes in the educational system. One such person was Thomas Edison who was quoted by the New York _Dramatic Mirror_, July 9, 1913 as predicting, "Books will soon be obsolete

in the schools. Scholars will be instructed through
the eye. It is possible to teach every branch of human
knowledge with the motion picture. Our school system
will be completely changed in ten years" (cited in Beswick,
1970, p. 167).

John Dewey had published The Child and the Curriculum
in 1902 and his influence was being felt. New teaching
systems were being recommended, with the use of a single
textbook and rote memorization being discouraged. Dewey
maintained, "The child is the starting point, the center,
and the end.... Not knowledge or information but self
realization is the goal.... Learning is active. It
involves reaching out of the mind" (Dewey, 1977, p. 178).
Dewey's influence was profound and he, with other educators,
in particular William H. Kilpatrick, attempted to reform
education. Both Dewey and Kilpatrick believed that
motivation was important in learning and that children
learned best when they were interested in the material.
They believed that children should have contact with
educational materials and people as well as learning
by reading and hearing about things. They saw schools
as containing not only classrooms but also science labo-
ratories, art studios, gardens, gymnasiums and kitchens.
They believed that children should go to many sources

to find information, not just to one textbook. The
activity or project method was born.

With new curriculum structures focusing on indi-
vidualized study being suggested, the Dalton Plan (1920)
and the Winnetka Plan (1920) came into being. These
new curriculum proposals stressed the need in schools
for various new kinds of educational materials. The
logical source for the material was seen as a well-stocked
school library supervised by one teacher who was qualified
both as a teacher and as a librarian. To a few the
school library was seen not only as the source for the
materials but also as a laboratory in which students
could acquire learning skills. In 1913 Lucille Fargo
spoke at the NEA Convention. She saw the function of
the school library as: "a laboratory and a workshop,
...putting into the hands of the pupils the necessary
tools for further achievement" (cited in Davies, 1979,
p. 36).

In 1915 Mary E. Hall published "The Development
of the Modern High School Library" in the September
issue of the Library Journal. She quoted a high school
principal as saying:

> I believe I am safe in saying that the school
> library will be the proof of the educational
> value of the new curriculum. When our schools
> have outgrown their cloister days and are

aiming to prepare our boys and girls for the
life they must live in a work-a-day world
the library will be the open door to the
opportunity of the present. (cited in Davies,
1979, p. 36)

She described what the modern high school library

should be:

It is a carefully selected collection of books,
periodicals, clippings, pamphlets and illustrative
material, chosen to meet the needs of the
average high school student, organized according
to modern library methods by a trained librarian
who can devote her entire time to the school
library, and who is thoroughly interested
in boys and girls. (cited in Beswick, 1970,
p. 168)

Mary Hall was a librarian at the Girl's High School,

Brooklyn, New York. She described how a library classroom

was to be added to her own library during the next year.

That room would have "as little of the regular classroom

as possible", and would include:

Cases for large mounted lithographs...cases
for maps and charts, lantern slides, mounted
pictures and clippings. A radiopticorn or
lantern with a projectoscope in which a teacher
can use not only lantern slides but postcards,
pictures in books, and magazines, etc....is
a most important part of the equipment. For
the English work, and indeed for the German
and French, a Victrola with records which
will make it possible for the students to
hear the...songs sung by famous singers will
help them to realize what a lyric poem is.
(cited in Beswick, 1970, p. 168)

Miss Hall explained how the modern concept of the school library was more integrated into the curriculum of the school than it had been before:

> The old high school library was static. The new is dynamic. The old was largely for reference and required reading in history and English; the new is all things to all departments, if in any way it may serve the school. It is not only a reference library, but a training school in the best methods in using library aids in looking up a topic.... The new library is dynamic, because it is not content with storing, and organizing and recording the loan of books and other material, but because it uses every method known to the best college and public libraries for encouraging their use, stimulating interest in good reading, arousing intellectual curiosity, and broadening the horizon of the students. (cited in Davies, 1979, p. 36)

Miss Hall was not alone in advocating what may now be called resource-based teaching or learning. Davies (1979) pointed out that in 1915, Henry Johnson, a Columbia University Professor of history, argued that "casts, models, pictures, maps, charts, and diagrams as well as printed materials were essential to teaching history effectively" (p. 36-37).

Changing Standards to Reflect Changing Times

The Certain Report, 1918

The actual state of school libraries in 1915 did not however measure up to the aspirations of the early leaders in the field. C.C. Certain, who was Head of the English Department at Central High School, Birmingham, Alabama, in 1915 wrote an article, "The Status of the Library in Southern High Schools":

> In our own southern high schools alone, more than a million obsolete, unclassified textbooks are stacked away as so much worthless trash.... High school inspectors state that unfavorable conditions are frequently accepted with indifference. Under crowded conditions, the books are sent to the attic or to the cellar, or they are stacked in heaps beneath the stairs or back of doors. In a few instances no books are allowed in the school, because the principal regards them as a nuisance, serving only to clutter up the building. (cited in Beswick, 1970, p. 169)

The National Council of Teachers of English, concerned about the situation, in 1915 recommended a thorough investigation of school libraries. The National Education Association undertook to do this, and appointed a committee for this purpose. Its chairman was C.C. Certain.

The committee worked for three years collecting data and formulating standards. Their report, entitled "Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary

Schools of Different Sizes", was presented to the National
Education Association at its annual convention in 1918.
That year, the Certain Standards were adopted as official
standards for high school library development by both
the National Education Association and the American
Library Association, who published the report as a pamphlet
in 1920.

School library standards attempt to suggest an
ideal picture as a goal for further development. Of
the Certain Standards, Beswick (1970) wrote:

> The Certain Standards...were the first attempts
> at codification of acceptable high school
> library practice to be ratified by three major
> American Associations. They were recommendations
> only, lacking teeth, but it is a sign of their
> timeliness and quality that they remained
> the basis of state and regional standards
> and accreditation minima for more than twenty
> years. They may very justifiably be called
> a landmark in the history of school librarianship.
> (p. 163)

Of the report, Mr. Certain said that it "represented
actually a consensus of what, in the minds of high-school
principals and librarians, the library should mean in
the school" (National Society for the Study of Education
[NSSE], 1943, p. 271). In the foreword to the report,
Jesse Newton, the Superintendent of Denver schools,
wrote: "For the first time administrators see that
the library is the very heart of the high school" (Certain,

1918, p. 3). Having coined the phrase that later became a cliche, Mr. Newton went on to say, "This report represents the best thought of those who have studied libraries thruout the country. Great good will come from that" (p. 4).

The report itself was forty pages long and dealt with six areas: housing and equipment; library staffing and qualification; selection and care of materials; instruction in the use of books and libraries; finance; state supervision. Some of the recommendations are summarized as follows:

> In establishing a new high school or a new library in a high school, the librarian should be secured in ample time to aid in planning the library room and in selecting the equipment and books. No school superintendent or high school principal should undertake to plan a new library without the expert assistance of a trained librarian. Crudely designed libraries are wasteful of funds, of space, of time, and of educational force. (p. 7)

> The library must be an integral part of the high school.... (p. 7)

> The librarian in the high school should combine the good qualities of both the librarian and the teacher and must be able to think clearly and sympathetically in terms of the needs and interests of high-school students (p. 10)

> The standard requirements for future appointments of librarians in high schools should be a college or university degree.... In addition

the librarian should have one year of postgraduate
library training. (p. 10-11)

In high schools having heads of departments
the librarian should be made head of the library
department with status equal to that of the
heads of other departments. (p. 12)

Clerical works...should not be demanded of
the librarian.... To require such work of
trained librarians is wasteful of educational
resources and money. (p. 12)

The librarian should be present at all teachers'
meetings and should have the ability to work
for and with teachers so well that mistakes
in adaptation of book collections to needs
may not occur. (p. 12)

Ample accommodation should be provided for
assembling in the library all illustrative
materials used in the high school, such as
maps, pictures, lantern slides, and victrola
records. In the library these can be made
available to all departments thru proper classi-
fications, cataloguing, and filing. (p. 9)

The Certain Report is still relevant today. The
recommendations were well in advance of their time.
Seven years later in 1925 Mr. Certain was chairman of
the Report of the Committee on Elementary School Library
Standards. Together those two reports lay the foundation
for the modern resource centre. They emphasized that
the collection would be a multi-media one, that the
school library would be an integral part of the school

and that the school librarian would be qualified both as a librarian and a teacher.

NSSE Yearbook, 1943

Spain, (1943), writing in the NSSE Yearbook, stated: "For more than twenty years the Certain Standards, with modifications, were the basis of all school-library standards" (p. 271). Other standards based on the Certain standards appeared. As Spain (1943) explained, "Practically all of the states recognize the importance of the library in the school and have established some means by which its efficiency may be measured" (p. 275). By 1943 thirty-one states had formulated their own standards for high-school libraries, with ten states formulating standards for elementary schools.

In describing the effect of these standards Spain (1943) stated emphatically: "they have been in operation for a number of years and have contributed to the improvement of school libraries" (p. 289). Some of the effects which she described were: (a) standards initiated discussions about school libraries; (b) they brought school libraries to the attention of educators; (c) they led to the hiring of more and better qualified school librarians; (d) they led to the hiring of school-library specialists at the state-level; (e) they improved conditions of

school libraries through an increase in funds and resources;
and (f) they necessitated the teaching of school library
courses at universities.

The Post-War Standards, 1945

The national standards for school programs in 1945
were developed by the American Library Association's
Committee on Post-War Planning. Entitled School Libraries
for Today and Tomorrow, they attempted to further define
the educational purposes of the library:

> The school library is an essential element
> in the school program; the basic purpose of
> the school library is identical with the basic
> purpose of the school itself. (p. 9)
>
> The purposes of the school library are to
>
> 1. Participate effectively in the school
>   program as it strives to meet the needs
>   of pupils, teachers, parents and other
>   community members.
>
> 2. Provide boys and girls with the library
>   materials and services most appropriate
>   and most meaningful in their growth and
>   development as individuals.
>
> 3. Stimulate and guide pupils in all phases
>   of their reading that they may find increasing
>   enjoyment and satisfaction and may grow
>   in critical judgement and appreciation....
>
> 5. Help children and young people to become
>   skillful and discriminating users of libraries
>   and of printed and audio-visual materials....
>
> 7. Work with teachers in the selection and

use of all types of library materials
which contribute to the teaching program.

8. Participate with other teachers and admin-
   istrators in programs for the continuing
   professional and cultural growth of the
   school staff. (pp. 9-10)

These standards identified the cooperative relationship
of classroom teachers and school librarians as a major
concern: "Unless they plan together the use of materials
already available and the selection of materials to
be added, the library cannot function effectively in
the educational program" (p. 11). They also recognized
the growing importance of audio-visual materials:

To serve as an instructional agency without
regard to grade levels or to subject fields,
the library must have a wealth of materials
of all kinds--books, pamphlets, recordings,
prints, and other audio-visual aids--organized
with the educational needs of the particular
school in mind and directed by personnel familiar
with the school program, keenly interested
in young people, and knowing many materials
and sources of materials. (p. 11)

Beswick (1971) pointed out that educators generally
had been impressed by the use of audio-visual materials
in the military during the war. Saettler (1968) concluded
that the use of training films by the military marked
the transition from "regarding films as an educational
luxury to regarding them as a necessity" (p. 179).
As a result of the war experience there was a recognition

that scientific theories of learning could be applied to practical problems of instruction. Saettler (1968) also maintained that there was an increased awareness "concerning the function and role of the media and/or communications specialist within the total context of instructional technology" (p. 180).

These standards exerted an influence on regional and state standards. By 1954 standards for high-school libraries were either established or being planned in all but two states, with thirty states also having standards for elementary school libraries.

Instructional Materials Centres, 1956

By 1956, the perceived importance of instructional materials prompted the American Association of School Librarians to publish an official statement, "School Libraries as Instructional Materials Centers" (American Association of School Librarians [AASL], 1960, pp. 11-12). The statement began as follows:

> The American Association of School Librarians believes that the school library, in addition to doing its vital work of individual reading guidance and development of the school curriculum, should serve the school as a center for instructional materials. Instructional materials include books—the literature of children, young people and adults—other printed materials, films, recordings, and newer media designed to aid learning. (p. 11)

The statement further claimed that the need for the
materials was determined by the teaching methods advocated
by leaders in curriculum and by new concepts of how
learning occurs. It saw an expanded role for the school
library:

> Historically, libraries of all types have
> been established to provide convenient centers
> for books and reading, and for locating ideas
> and information important to the communities
> they serve. The interest a modern school
> now has in finding and using good motion pictures,
> sound recordings, filmstrips and other newer
> materials simply challenges and gives increased
> dimension to established library roles. (p. 11)

This statement reflects a more definite stance
concerning a multi-media collection. It defines the
function of the school library as follows:

> To locate, gather, provide and coordinate
> a school's materials for learning and the
> equipment required for use of these materials...
> trained school librarians must be ready to
> cooperate with others and themselves serve
> as coordinators, consultants, and supervisors
> of instructional materials service. (p. 12)

Standards for School Library Programs, 1960

Goodlad (1966) in examining educational trends
in the fifties and early sixties attempted to examine
the curriculum reform movement of the period. Various
groups and individuals had developed new courses and
instructional materials to go with them, in high school

mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, economics, geography, English, foreign languages, as well as elementary school courses. These projects, supported primarily by the National Science Foundation, sought to identify the structure within each discipline and to help students learn the methods peculiar to each discipline.

Goodlad (1966) traced the roots of this movement to the "intense dissatisfaction with the science and mathematics backgrounds of many high school graduates recruited in World War II" (p. 77). He claimed that attempts to deal with the problem went back to 1952. In any event, Goodlad (1966), Beswick (1971), Jones (1982), and others, all agreed that the reform movement was greatly accentuated when the Russians launched Sputnik in 1957. Jones (1982) concluded:

> The national state of mind following the Russian launching of Sputnik I into orbit in 1957 led to a revived determination that all American children who could do so would have the opportunity to acquire basic learning skills, that students would learn more science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages, and that challenging experiences would be offered for the development of gifted students. The 1960 standards mirrored these trends and developments. (pp. 14-15)

Davies (1979) called the 1960 standards "the single most important document in the history of school library development" (p. 38). Beswick (1971) described them

as follows, "Standards for School Library Programs...is
the fullest statement of aims, methods and necessary
accommodation, staff and contents that the school library
profession (in consultation with nineteen interested
bodies) had till then produced" (p. 132).

Many school librarians consider the 1960 standards
as "the best written and most successful standards"
(Jones, 1982, p. 14; Loertscher, 1980, p. 54) for a
number of reasons: (a) they were well-researched and
authoritative; (b) they were very influential because
of the successful campaign which acquainted educators
with their meaning and value; and (c) they were well-
written, free of jargon, so that other educational organi-
zations accepted them.   In addition, as Loertscher (1980)
stated: "The library program it envisioned was forward
looking but achievable" (p. 54).

Part one of these standards is entitled: "The
school library as an educational force".   It begins:

> Whatever form the soul-searching regarding
> the education of youth may take, sooner or
> later it has to reckon with the adequacy of
> the library resources in the schools.   Any
> of the recommendations for the improvement
> of schools, currently receiving so much stress
> and attention, can be fully achieved only
> when the school has the full complement of
> library resources, personnel, and services....
>
> In the education of all youth, from the
> slowest learner in kindergarten to the most

>   intelligent senior in high school, an abundance
>   of printed and audio-visual materials is essen-
>   tial.   These resources are the basic tools
>   needed for the purposes of effective teaching
>   and learning. (AASL, 1960, p. 3)

These standards leave no doubt of the necessity of the school library at all levels, from elementary to senior high school. They emphasized that the school library is also an instructional materials center. To clarify its role, they maintained:

>   A school library has always been, and will
>   continue to be, flexible in its program of
>   services and in the scope of the materials
>   of communication contained in its collections,
>   as it meets the changing needs of the school
>   that it serves.... Services, not words, portray
>   the image of the school library. The school
>   library is a materials center, an instructional
>   materials center, an instructional resource
>   center, or any of the equivalent terms now
>   springing into existence. (p. 13)

The ideas of Melvil Dewey and C.C. Certain are evident in these standards, projecting a vision of the school library which, "Through books, films, recordings, and other materials, goes beyond the requirements of the instructional program and unfolds for the many private quests of children and young people the imagination of mankind" (p. 13).

The general principles outlined in the 1960 standards for the library program require that the library program

would: (a) reflect the philosophy of the school and help to enrich all parts of the educational program; (b) offer a cumulative program of library skills; (c) be involved throughout the school, not just within the library facility; (d) meet individual needs of students; and (e) be a laboratory for research and study where students can learn to work independently.

The standards placed the responsibility for the provision of successful school libraries primarily on the administrators at various levels:

> These educational leaders are not only primarily responsible but also ultimately accountable for the presence or absence, success or failure of libraries in the schools; and no individuals are more influential than they in determining the status and nature of school library programs. (p. 29)

Roles are defined for state officials, the school board, the superintendent, school principals and the school librarian. The school librarian is seen as having the status equivalent to that of a department head, working cooperatively with classroom teachers.

One important result of the publication of these standards was the funding by the Knapp Foundation of the Knapp School Libraries project. The first and primary objective was, "To demonstrate the educational value of school library programs, services, and resources

which fully meet the national standards for school li-
braries" (Sullivan, 1968, p. 6). The five year project
was conducted in five elementary and three secondary
schools, from March 1, 1963 through February 29, 1968.
The schools were visited by 16,000 educators, while
thousands of others learned of these ideal school libraries
through written reports, sound filmstrips, brochures,
and films.

At the same time in the United States there was
increased financial aid for school libraries through
federal sources. The National Defense Education Act
of 1958 provided the first such aid, aimed at the improvement
of teaching in science, foreign language and mathematics
by such means as purchasing new equipment, library books
and other educational materials. Of greater significance
was the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education
Act in 1965. Bomar (1966) saw this act as an historic
event, reflecting a belief by the President of the United
States and the Congress that every child should have
access to a good school library. Through Title II of
the act, provisions were made for millions of dollars
to be spent developing school libraries.

Gillespie and Spirt (1983), in looking at the sixties,
declared that decade to be one of the greatest periods
in school library growth. They concluded:

The effect of these new sources of support
was phenomenal--hundreds of new libraries
were founded, others were able to expand con-
siderably their collections and services,
and the demand for qualified librarians far
exceeded the supply. Although federal support
has subsequently varied considerably, the
momentum for developing school libraries has
continued. (p. 12)

Standards of Library Service for Canadian Schools, 1967

The first Canadian standards appeared in 1967.
The introduction stated:

Over the last fifteen years Canadian school
librarians and educators have become increasingly
aware of the need for standards to set guidelines
for the development of school library programmes.
Librarians and educational administrators
in Canada used the 1945 publication School
Libraries for Today and Tomorrow prepared
by the American Library Association. Also,
they turned for guidance to the 1960 publication,
Standards for School Library Programs. (Canadian
School Library Association [CSLA], 1967, p. iii)

The 1967 Canadian standards reflect the trends

of the school library movement in the United States.

The concept was the same; that of a school library as

an integral part of the school, providing a multi-media

approach to learning. The main function of the school

library was stated, "The unique role of the school library,

however, is to serve the instructional needs of a limited

clientele--students and teachers" (p. 5). To a lesser

extent the library was to provide reading materials

to meet recreational needs. Both quantitative and quali-
tative standards were given, with responsibilities of
provincial officials, school board trustees, superintendents,
principals, teachers, and school librarians carefully
defined.

Media Canada: Guidelines for Educators, 1969

In 1969 a second Canadian publication appeared,
Media Canada: Guidelines for Educators, produced by
the Educational Media Association of Canada. Although
the 1967 standards, Standards of Library Service for
Canadian Schools, provided for non-print materials,
they did not receive the emphasis thought necessary
by the Educational Media Association of Canada. In
the preface they stated:

> This work represents a first attempt to set
> down national guidelines and specifications
> for Canada in the very complex field of educational
> media.... These guidelines are designed to
> assist teachers, principals, administrators,
> and trustees in setting goals for the implemen-
> tation of an eductional media programme.
> Necessarily, the guidelines will be adapted
> to meet the needs of the local situation.
> (unpaged)

The program outlined by these standards was not integrated
with the school library. Instead, personnel and space
was to be provided for an educational media centre,
a separate facility from the library resource centre.

Standards for School Library Media Programs, 1969

The sixties ended with the publication of the first
joint standards, prepared jointly by the American Library
Association and the National Education Association,
Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI), in cooperation
with an Advisory Board consisting of representatives
from twenty-eight professional and civic associations.
Beswick (1977) described these standards as, "Embodying
what was undoubtedly the most advanced and breathtaking
model of the role of the school library media centre
that had ever received official imprimatur" (p. 64).
The move towards a multimedia approach to learning is
evident in the introduction of new terminology adopted
by these standards, "In this publication, the term media
refers to printed and audiovisual forms of communication
and their accompanying technology. Other basic terms
include media program, media specialist, media center"
(Joint Committee of the American Library Association
& National Education Association, 1969, p. xi). The
school library media centre is seen as playing a critical
role in the teaching-learning process:

> In this entire...process, the media program,
> its staff and its center play vital roles.
> Media convey information, affect the message,
> control what is learned, and establish the
> learning environment. They will help to determine
> what the pupil sees and what his attitude

will be toward the world in which he lives.
Therefore, it is important that every media
specialist participate actively in shaping
the learning environment and the design of
instruction, and that every media facility,
piece of equipment, book or material be selected,
produced, and used so that the students in
our schools are challenged to a dynamic partici-
pation in a free, exciting, and enriched life....
(p. 1-2)

Today, educators and other citizens realize
that educational programs of vitality, worth,
and significance to students and to society
depend upon excellent media services and resources
in the schools. (p. 5)

These standards made it clear that the school library

media centre would combine both print and audiovisual

materials:

Many schools now have unified media programs.
For those others that have separate audiovisual
departments and school libraries, it is recommended
that, wherever possible, these services be
combined, administratively and organizationally,
to form a unified media program. New schools
should start with a unified media center and
program of services. (p. 2)

The media centre envisioned in these standards

is "a fundamental part of [the]...educational process"

(p. 2). It is "a resource for learning" (p. 2), mostly

related to curriculum requirements, but also related

to other interests and needs, for groups or for individuals.

The collection is "in the format appropriate for the

learning task" (p. 3), and "The emphasis is always upon

the learner and upon the function of the media staff
as a supportive arm to the teacher in achieving the
goals of the instructional program" (p. 3). The media
centre is also a resource for teaching, with "an ongoing
partnership" (p. 4) existing between teachers and media
specialists. The collection will provide the resources
needed for innovative instructional methods, and services
provided will include: information about new materials
and teaching methods; production of needed materials;
inservice sessions on new media; and assistance in the
analysis of instructional needs and the design of learning
activities. The emphasis is placed upon selecting media
most appropriate for the specific learning tasks.

Media Programs: District and School, 1975

The latest American standards are again published
jointly by the American Association of School Librarians
(AASL) and the Association for Educational Communications
and Technology (AECT) (formerly known as the Department
of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education
Association [DAVI]). These new standards reaffirm the
1969 standards, but are even more emphatic that the
school library media centre is an integral part of the
instructional program. The word "service" is dropped,
and instead the school library media centre is seen

as "offering essential processes, functions, and resources to accomplish the purpose of the school" (p. 1).

In these latest standards, media is seen as the varied ways students learn about the world.

> Programs of media services are designed to assist learners to grow in their ability to find, generate, evaluate, and apply information that helps them to function effectively as individuals and to participate fully in society. Through the use of media, a student acquires and strengthens skills in reading, observing, listening, and communicating ideas.... The media program exists to support and further the purposes formulated by the school or district of which it is an integral part, and its quality is judged by its effectiveness in achieving program purposes. (AASL & AECT, 1975, p. 4)

The complete acceptance of media in many formats, and for many uses is also affirmed. The standards stated:

> A media program represents a combination of resources that includes people, materials, machines, facilities, and environments, as well as purposes and processes. The combination of these program components and the emphasis given to each of them derive from the needs of the specific educational program. The more purposeful and effective the mix, and the more sensitively it responds to the curriculum and the learning environment, the better the media program. (p. 4)

Fast (1976) saw these standards as presenting "goals of excellence for the learner" (p. 138). The new guidelines represented "a well-developed idea for a method for

achieving quality education which is truly individualized and learner-centered" (p. 138).

The new standards emphasize production as a necessary element in the instructional process. In what Fast (1976) called "one of the most innovative parts of the 1975 standards" (p. 141), the standards stated:

> Student production occurs as a natural component of the educational experience and develops capabilities to translate elements of the environment into meaningful modes of communication. Creating materials in all formats sharpens the student's critical response to media, expands dialogue and the transmission of ideas, and fosters growth in precise and effective written and oral expression. (p. 47)

Production is not, however, limited to students. The standards advocated "the creation, adaption, and duplication of materials needed by teachers and students not readily or economically available elsewhere" (p. 46), so that the media program "is concerned with production by the media staff, teacher, aides, students, and even parents" (p. 46). The school library media centre provides the work area, and gives consultative and technical assistance, as well as engages in production itself.

The 1975 standards address the many pressures and social forces affecting education, and also try to come to terms with the information revolution. Applying the knowledge found in technology, communication theory,

education, and library science, they strive to provide an ideal of the kind of education needed by students of differing abilities, backgrounds, and interests. The aim of the school library media program is the aim of the school. The standards began, "The human worth that democratic societies seek to protect and develop rests upon commitment to educational programs which meets the individual purposes and developmental needs of students and prepare them to resolve the problems that continually confront them" (p. 1).

Media Programs: District and School is a program that aims to help individuals confront the problems. It firmly declares that library media programs are an essential part of any quality education, providing the resources for teaching and learning. It challenges all media professionals to "increase educational opportunities at all levels through the design and implementation of effective, responsive media programs" (p. 107).

Resource Services for Canadian Schools, 1977

The two Canadian professional organizations, Canadian School Library Association (CSLA) and the Association for Media and Technology in Education in Canada (AMTEC), authorized the first joint Canadian standards, Resource Services for Canadian Schools, to replace the two previous

volumes: <u>Standards of Library Service for Canadian Schools</u> by CSLA (1967), and <u>Media Canada: Guidelines for Educators</u> by AMTEC (then known as the Educational Media Association of Canada). Edited by prominent members from each association, F. Branscombe and H. Newson, these standards were written between 1972 and 1975, and published in 1977. Because they were joint standards, they brought together all learning materials, regardless of medium, type or format: "Information is presented in many forms. The form is important only insofar as it contributes to student and teacher needs" (p. 2). They affirm that students must have access to resources of all kinds if adequate learning experiences are to be provided. The general guidelines for quality programs include the principles that (a) all learning materials and services must be integrated at school and district level, and (b) that classroom teachers and learning resource teachers must cooperate in curriculum planning and implementation. At the school level they maintain that classroom teachers need the help of a teaching associate, a learning resource teacher, "The latter, an experienced and creative teacher with specialized knowledge of materials and expertise in their use, collaborates with the classroom teacher in the planning

and implementation of learning experiences for students"
(Branscombe & Newson, 1977, p. 11).

These standards emphasize the need for "the total
integration of learning resource services with all aspects
of curriculum and instructional development in the school"
(p. 41), and stress the need of individual learners
for a variety of learning experiences. But they stop
short of deleting the word "services" in the defining
of the function, as the 1975 American standards had
done.

The Concept of the School Library Media Centre Today

Harold Shane (1977) wrote: "If we lack a clear
vision of the future we seek, we lack both goals and
the guidelines that help us to reach them" (p. 14).
The national standards for school library media centres
(culminating in the 1975 American standards) have provided
the clear vision from which have followed goals and
guidelines. The ideal school library media centre which
has emerged is an integral part of the instructional
process of the school, offering essential processes,
functions and resources so that the school can accomplish
its purposes. It reflects the application of educational
technology, communication theory, and library science,

in an attempt to make teaching more scientific and to match learning resources to user needs. The standards maintain that a school library media program is essential in providing quality education.

Beswick (1977) notes that throughout the development of school libraries there has been continuity:

> On the one hand, the wealth of recorded information and its producers (authors, editors, directors, photographers, researchers) and on the other hand, the readership and audience, the people needing access not only to the items stored but to their subject contents. The task is to devise an organization that gives the greatest and most flexible access to the items and their contents, in a manner that takes note of the needs and the habits of the clientele.... There is a sense in which this task has remained the same since libraries began. (p. 62)

The standards for school libraries have focused on the way to perform this task from C.C. Certain's first standards of 1918. In these standards, and all standards since, the collection is to include all forms of media, and the school library is to be an integral part of the instructional program of the school.

The concept of the school library has expanded to cope with the increasing number of formats used to record information and to meet the requirements of the curriculum. The new methods of teaching and learning, ranging from the enquiry approach to independent study,

demand different strategies for teaching and learning. The move from school library to school library media centre indicates a different approach to teaching and learning; a move from reliance on a single textbook, a chalkboard and a teacher to a much more complex concept whereby knowledge is sought in many forms, with the school providing learning experiences which will help the students successfully meet the demands of a modern society. Media Programs: District and School (AASL & AECT, 1975) sees the user involved in the following kinds of activities:

1. Finding needed information on an appropriate level and in an acceptable format.

2. Selecting and using appropriate means for retrieval of information in all media formats.

3. Obtaining resources from the media centre, local agencies, and networks.

4. Communicating in many modes, demonstrating an understanding of the structure and language of each mode.

5. Utilizing instructional sequences of tested effectiveness to reach personal and program objectives.

6. Designing and producing materials to achieve specific objectives, as well as using materials designed and produced for them by the media staff.

7. Employing a variety of media to find, evaluate, use and generate media.

8. Enjoying the communication arts and gaining inspiration from them.

9. Receiving assistance, both formally and informally, in the use and production of learning resources.

10. Functioning in learning environments that reflect their developmental level as well as the tasks at hand.

11. Locating space in which to accomplish a variety of activities responding to curricular and personal needs.

12. Participating in the formulation and implementation of both general and specific media program policies. (p. 5-6)

School library media centres should reflect the goals and objectives of the school program. Haycock (1982a) sees the school library media centre program requiring teachers and school library media specialists to work co-operatively, "to plan and implement units of study as teaching partners" (p. 241). This is a current expression of the role which the standards have outlined consistently since 1918, that the school library be an integral part of the school. Fargo (1947) stated: "It goes without saying that the basic aims of the library must in the last analysis be those of the school itself" (p. 21). Robb (1984) wrote, "Librarians are so central to education that a seasoned educator can look at a school's library and its usage and obtain from it the

best single indicator of the school's quality and effec-
tiveness" (p. 126). The ideal which the school library
standards provide is one in which the school library
media centre is indeed at the very heart of the instructional
program of the school. Davies (1979) described it:

> Direct involvement in the instructional process
> requires that the school library media specialist
> become directly involved in the total teaching
> and learning enterprise. Such involvement
> requires that the library media specialist
> develop and maintain a library media program
> that will serve as the launching pad for learning
> to take off, will provide not only the fuel
> to power the thrust for learning but also
> the flight plan, and then provide the needed
> expertise in readjusting the flight plan to
> accommodate unexpected adventurous flights
> of fancy. "The heart of education is the
> student learning," and the responsibility
> of the library media specialist is to humanely
> and creatively manage the library media program
> so that learning will become more lastingly
> significant, more permanently meaningful,
> and more personally satisfying. (p. 32)

Such a concept is indeed a challenge to implement,
for it is a vision of the school library media program
as "an instructional force for excellence" (Davies,
1979).

The Role of the School Library Media Specialist

Media Programs: District and School recommends
that the school library media specialist have a master's

degree in media, from a program which combined library sciences, educational technology and curriculum studies. The Canadian School Library Association (CSLA) prepared a report on the qualifications for school librarians which was approved by their annual meeting in 1979. These qualifications are in agreement with the ALA recommendations, and are recommended as guiding principles for the education of school librarians. The report recommended that a valid teaching certificate and successful classroom teaching experience be prerequisites for entry into a program, and that programs should be offered on graduate or post-baccalaureate levels only. It further stipulated that the program should reflect the integrated approach, combining print and non-print information. In such a program, the school library media specialist is seen as, "A highly skilled teacher, able to function on the school team as a professional with competencies from teacher education and classroom experience as well as competencies from school librarianship and media services" ("CSLA Report", 1980, p. 3).

Partners in Action: The Library Resource Centre in the School Curriculum, published by the Ontario Ministry of Education in 1982 as a resource guide to help educators use library resources effectively, examined the role

of the school library media specialist. It identified
six major responsibilities which help define the role.

Curriculum Development

The school library media specialist has an important
role to play as a partner in planning, implementing
and evaluating the curriculum. If teachers are not
to rely on a single textbook but create learning experiences
tied to the students needs, they will need professional
assistance in designing situations in which learning
will take place. Objectives will need to be formulated,
needs assessed and materials will need to be chosen
carefully to meet the curricula needs. The school library
media specialist must be involved at all levels of planning,
helping in the decision of what to teach, how to teach,
and how to evaluate what has been taught.

In order to fulfill this role, the school library
media specialist must have knowledge of:

1. teaching theories, methods and practices;

2. subject content and curriculum design
    and implementation;

3. how to select, organize, administer, and
    utilize instructional media and equipment;

4. types and kinds of instructional media
    and media content;

5. the science and art of communication;

6. how to integrate the resources and services
   of the library media program with the
   ongoing instructional program;

7. how to make instructional technology a
   viable art; (Davies, 1979, p. 64)

Partners in Action (Ontario, 1982) provides sample
planning guides to be used by teachers and school library
media specialists, as they work together in curriculum
development. One sample breaks unit planning down into
the steps of: goals; aims; objectives; unit development
including persons involved, time allotment, unit content,
resources, teaching strategies, and learning activities;
and evaluation techniques of the student, of the process,
and self-evaluation of the teachers.

Robb (1984) sees the curriculum role as central.
He stated:

> School libraries and curriculum connections
> can be very simply stated. In my view, librarians
> ought to be prepared to be the curriculum
> coordinators in the school, reporting directly
> to the principal, working collaboratively
> with teachers to articulate learning resources
> with lesson plans, and serving the special
> needs of individual children and classes.
> (p. 125)

Instruction

Haycock (1982b) claims that "the single most important
role of the teacher-librarian is cooperative program
planning and teaching with classroom teachers" (p. 5).

This involves teachers and school library media specialists planning units together, and then participating in team teaching, with the library media specialist assuming the main responsibility for the teaching of learning skills. This provides opportunities for effective use of learning resources, and the integration of media, research, and study skills with classroom instruction. Where the teaching occurs may vary. The library media specialist may go to the classrooms, or the teachers may work with groups in the library media centre.

Skills necessary for learning have been listed by various organizations and individuals. Perhaps Davies (1979) has the most comprehensive listing, with over fifty pages of a Thinking-Learning-Communicating Skills Continuum, K-12. The CSLA Report (1980) lists, as an indicator of competence, that the library media specialist can "develop cooperatively with teachers a sequential list of media, research, and study skills for cross-grade and cross-subject implementation" (p. 6).

Wall (1974) points out that the vital function in education is the interaction between the adult and the learner, and that a resource centre or library, or any piece of technology or method, is auxiliary to this interaction. All resources, he argued, must contribute to or improve this interaction, or else they are "hindrances

or mere gimmicks" (p. 7). One important objective of
this interaction, he stated, must be to teach students
how to learn, "a capacity much more important than knowledge
itself since knowledge may go out of date, whereas skill
in learning is the key to all knowledge" (p. 11). Learning
how to learn independently is a matter of training,
and the school library media specialist is instrumental
in that training, acting as "the expert on how to learn"
(Wall, 1974, p.12). To teach students how to use a
card catalogue, an index, a bibliography, an encyclopedia
are obvious needs, but the skilled library media specialist
will also recognize other needs of the learner: to
evaluate and synthesize ideas; to make use of various
modes of presentation and information, such as the verbal
and the visual; to know how to ask the right questions;
and to look for other sources of information in the
instructional process:

> The heart and soul of a resources collection
> is not material at all; it lies in the structure
> of thought it exhibits, in the creative associ-
> ations it provokes and in the opportunities
> for training the young learner in how to learn
> and think it provides. (Wall, 1974, p. 17)

Selection of Learning Resources

If the school is to design effective learning environ-
ments, then the resources selected must be carefully

matched to the needs of the curriculum, the learner, and the teacher. The library media specialist must know the curriculum, and by cooperatively working with teachers assist in the difficult task of providing the learning resources that will suit the teaching strategies employed by the teacher, and also meet the varying abilities and learning styles of the students. This involves keeping up to date with new learning materials, new equipment, new teaching strategies, as well as new theories of learning and technology. To realize pre-defined objectives the teacher may need help in designing the instructional package. The library media specialist must realize the strengths and weaknesses of different forms of media, and be willing to assist in determining which format will best suit the learners' needs.

The CSLA report (1980) listed selection of learning resources as a basic competency needed by the library media specialist. Indicators of that competence included the ability to:

1. develop and implement criteria for the evaluation and selection of a wide range of resources;

2. develop policies and procedures for the selection of learning resources which meet curricular, informational, and recreational needs;

3. build a collection of bibliographic and
    evaluative sources to provide current
    information about learning resources and
    equipment;

4. organize teacher involvement in the preview,
    evaluation, and selection of learning
    resources;

5. develop extensive "consideration for purchase"
    files of book and nonbook media. (p. 5)

The literature is unanimous in advocating a team
approach to selection. The library media specialist,
the teachers, and the administration all have parts
to play. The teachers have insights into the subject
matter, the needs of their students, and as well they
are the best judges of the usefulness of items for the
specific purposes they are considering. Since they
are the ones constantly involved in the teaching/learning
processes, they have vested interest in insuring the
wise selection of the school's learning resources.
Library media specialists, whose main function is to
provide "the essential processes, functions, and resources"
(AASL & AECT, 1975, p. 1), so that effective learning
and teaching can occur, will have special training in
selection. They will develop criteria to use in selecting
any resources, with views on the qualities of good visuals
(whether photographs, charts, or illustrations), or
the potential for most software (whether audiotapes

or computer software). They will have particular interest in sources of information, and techniques for producing resources when that is necessary. They will have knowledge of the entire collection, not just that of a particular subject or grade level, and expertise in locating by subject or title any item in the collection needed for a specific purpose. They will also have the ability to probe and ask questions of the users (whether teachers or students) to draw out what is really needed, in order to select wisely. They will contribute most to the selection process in the long-term planning for building a collection, as well as in their training and experience in the use of bibliographical and other selection aids. Skilled library media specialists can anticipate needs, close gaps in the collection, and in cooperation with colleagues, can prepare for subsequent demands. They have the time and the responsibility, while teachers are busy with classes, to use selection aids in order to find resources which can be provided for examination by the subject or classroom teacher.

Selection of the learning resources determines the success of the library media program and cannot be left to chance or whim. Every school will need to have a policy for the selection of media which will outline the role of teachers and library media specialists.

The principal's role is crucial here, to see that policy, in keeping with the district policy, is formulated and implemented.

Media Programs: District and School (AASL & AECT, 1975) accurately describes the media collection as "the essential informational base of the instructional program" (p. 62). Selection policies and procedures, approved by the Board of Education and reflecting the objectives and priorities of the school, are seen as an essential part of building a collection. Such policies will outline the responsibilities of the school library media specialist and provide the support needed for the cooperative process which selection requires.

Consultation

The school library media specialist is involved in the identification of teaching and learning strategies, in working with teachers in selecting, evaluating and producing learning resources, and serving as a consultant in planning effective learning activities. This role requires that the library media specialist make time to keep informed on new developments in educational media and technology, as well as educational theory and methodology, and assume general responsibility to share such knowledge with teaching colleagues.

Media Programs: District and School (1975) see the following activities encompassed in this role: participating in curriculum development and implementation; recommending media application for specific purposes; serving as learning resource specialist; developing user understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of different media formats; planning and providing instruction in how to use the media centre and learning resources; helping students develop good study habits, learn how to be independent learners, and learn critical thinking skills; helping students develop competencies in listening, reading, and other communication skills; helping users to find, use, abstract, translate, synthesize, and evaluate information.

Management

The school library media specialist must have the ability to manage the school library media program, in order that these services may contribute to the educational goals of the school. One important activity in this function is to establish an effective system of processing learning resources. This will include ordering, cataloguing, physically processing, and distributing materials and equipment. Both AASL and AECT (1975) and Branscombe and Newson (1977) recommends

that such technical duties be centralized at the district office level, or that commercial processing services be obtained. Robb (1984) explained why this should be so:

> If librarians are to function effectively as curriculum resource people, they cannot afford to spend much time processing books. This should be centrally done by the school system or by the book vendor. The bulk of a librarian's time should be spent with pupils and teachers. (p. 125)

The supervision of media personnel is an important management function, and includes supervision of voluntary as well as paid media centre staff. If parents and/or students are involved as volunteers then training sessions are required, and this is the responsibility of the library media specialist. Increasingly, if the library media specialist is to be directly involved in the teaching and learning process and the other roles outlined by present standards, the library media program will require other personnel, such as technicians, and clerical assistants. The AASL and AECT Standards (1975) recommends staffing for school media programs: a school of 500 students would have 1 head of media program, perhaps another professional staff, 1-2 technicians, 2-3 media aids, for a total staff of 4-6 (AASL & AECT, 1975, pp. 34-35).

A quality library media program requires careful planning. The planning of the facility itself, if new, or the organization of existing space, requires careful consideration to ensure that space is used carefully to provide for as many functions as possible. Collection development, planning for future needs, and determining present priorities are all time consuming management functions.

It is the responsibility of the library media specialist to prepare a budget for the library media program. Since the resources used are the "informational base of the instructional program" (AASL & AECT, 1975, p. 62), teachers and administrators will be involved in this process. The resources needed will reflect the instructional priorities of the school (for example, new computer software programs may be required if the school is to realize its objective of providing each student with a computer literacy course), so the school principal may have to fight to secure the necessary funding.

As an efficient manager, the library media specialist will have numerous administrative tasks to perform or administer. Production services may need to be established and maintained; learning resources, including books, equipment, and various forms of media, will require maintenance.

Program Advocacy

Partners in Action states that the school library
media specialist has a responsibility "to interpret
the role of the library resource centre in the teaching
and learning activities of the school to the principal,
teachers, supervisory officers, parents, trustees, and
students" (Ontario, 1982, p. 13). Burdenuk (1984),
Haycock (1984b), and Birch (1981) all argue convincingly
that school library media specialists have to take an
active role in a campaign to draw attention to the importance
of school library media centres in providing quality
education programs. As Burdenuk (1984) exclaimed:

> Teacher-librarians must stop blaming others
> for not understanding the role of the library
> in the school. They must also stop believing
> that eventually good will triumph and everyone
> on the school staff will see the light and
> come to believe in the importance of the library
> in the educational process. (p. 20)

An active program advocacy role will demand that school
library media specialists have a clear perception of
their role, and that they communicate this role to members
of the staff. It may also require an involvement in
the community, seeking support for school library media
programs.

Some writers, in particular Haycock (1980, 1982,
1984b) and Burdenuk (1984) see the survival of school

library media centres depending upon the success of program advocacy. Haycock (1980) sees it as a role requiring commitment and dedication, as well as an awareness of the political process. He concluded:

> Start with small groups and build influential contacts. If we really believe in the product then we must get out and sell it! It is crucial that we be articulate and assertive! If we don't speak for the best library services for the young, no one will. (p. 4)

Summary

Since the Certain Standards of 1918, the concept of the school library has been the same: to provide a multi-media collection as the informational base for the instructional program of the school; to function as an integral part of the school; and to be staffed by a school librarian who has dual qualifications, that of a teacher and that of a librarian. The introduction of new formats, the findings of educational technology, the increase in knowledge about how children learn-- all have influenced the school library. Since its beginnings, however, the school library has attempted to put curriculum theory into practice, to be at the forefront of education, interpreting new technology and new curriculum theories, translating the new thoughts and ideas into

practical activities and teaching strategies. Today the concept of the school library media program advocates resource-based teaching and learning, planned educational programs that actively involve students in the meaningful use of a wide range of appropriate print and non-print resources. Teachers and school library media specialists, working together as teaching partners, will focus on the learning styles and learning needs of individual learners. Teachers may select from a wide range of learning activities, locations or facilities, and resources, to create curriculum plans that actively involve the learner.

To transform the traditional school library into a school library media centre that is fully integrated with the school's curriculum is a major challenge. It will require an understanding of the school itself as well as an understanding of how to plan and manage the changes that will be required. For that reason, it will be necessary to first examine the school as it currently exists.

Chapter III

THE WORLD OF THE SCHOOL

Introduction

The school does not operate in isolation but is
very much a part of its community, society and times.
Sarason (1982) has been instrumental in establishing
the importance of the culture of the school in any attempt
to introduce change. But factors outside the school
are also important in establishing the type of environment
in which educational change is possible. Many seemingly
good ideas are never implemented because they are not
introduced at the right time: they may be costly at
a time when money is scarce; they may require trained
personnel who are not available; they may be based on
a philosophy of education that is not widely accepted.

The industrial societies of the world have recently
faced major social and economic crises. Unemployment
rates have been high; inflation rates have soared.
Although government measures have reduced the rate of
inflation, the effects of the recession are still being
felt. In Canada over one million Canadians are presently

out of work. Despite talks of oil production and prospects of a more stable economy, Newfoundland has imposed a freeze on wage increases for government workers, including teachers. The Canadian Teachers' Federation (CTF), concerned with this situation, commissioned a study by Burke (1984) to examine the economic recession and its effects on the quality of education. Burke concluded that a depressed economy can affect the quality of education. The study includes quotations from teachers who tell how the economy has affected them. A New Brunswick teacher stated:

> The outlook for the 1983/84 year looks much bleaker due to projected cutbacks in school personnel, money for school supplies, supply teachers. We are faced with fewer recreational programs in the fall, restrictions on the use of school buses.... We now have to account for all the paper we use to duplicate and teachers have to buy many supplies previously provided by our school budget. (Burke, 1984, p. 9)

A Saskatchewan teacher reported similar effects. He wrote: "Despite improvements in education (materials and methods) the downturn in the economy has generally prevented significant changes in area schools" (Burke, 1984, p. 9). The study concluded that there is no doubt that teacher morale is low. The threat of budget cutting and teacher layoffs has increased the insecurity of

teachers, thereby lowering morale. An Ontario teacher
wrote:

> The financial constraints upon the education
> system are very noticeable. In our province,
> the central government support is minimal.
> They introduce all sorts of programs and curriculum
> guidelines and then expect the local boards
> to pay for it. Our particular board does
> not have a large tax base and unemployment
> is higher than average. Higher taxes hurt
> a lot! As teachers, most of us pour as much
> as we can into our jobs, but now stress is
> taking a toll on us as well. (Burke, 1984,
> p. 69).

It is little wonder that few districts or boards
attempt change in such a climate. Principals feel that
they are winning if they can only maintain their present
staff and program.

On the national scene teachers have been bombarded
with negative reports on education. Although most originate
in the United States, their impact is felt in Canada.
Newsweek (May 9, 1983) carried on its front cover the
headline: "Saving Our Schools; a Scathing Report Demands
Better Teachers and Tougher Standards", in reference
to the American report, A Nation at Risk, the report
of the National Commission on Excellence in Education.
This report and approximately a dozen others that were
published in 1982-1983, expressed concern that standards
seem to be falling, and placed most of the blame on

the school system, recommending changes in the present
system.   The reactions to these reports are reminders
that the school is indeed a part of its society.   Block
(1983), a superintendent in Minnesota, angrily reacted
to A Nation at Risk which he called "a foul shot at
American education" (p. 183):

> Mediocrity?   Maybe--but we know the roots
> of it.   We are a nation that has become so
> materialistic that we refuse to give up the
> second snowmobile or the second car or the
> bigger house or the speedboat so that we can
> pay for excellence in education. (p. 183)

Chandler (1983), a secondary school teacher, believed
that teachers would try to change in response to the
mood of the nation, but he too recognized the shortcomings
of A Nation at Risk:

> The Commission chooses to ignore one fact
> that teachers cannot forget: we are members
> of a larger society, and although we like
> to think that we have great influence on our
> students--and, through them, on U.S. culture--
> we face stiff competition for children's time
> and attention.   But we teachers will try to
> implement as many of the Commission's recommen-
> dations as we can, since A Nation at Risk
> reflects the mood of the country and we teachers
> are experts at responding to the country's
> mood. (p. 182)

Schools are very much a part of their society and the
1980s is not a particularly good time for schools or
teachers.   To understand the world of the school it

is necessary to look beyond the school, at the external
factors which affect it, and which are a major influence
on what changes can or will be implemented. Since this
study is primarily concerned with the implementation
of a school library media program, the focus will be
on the factors which will affect such a program.

Characteristics External to the School District

Provincial Departments of Education

In Canada education is a responsibility of the
provinces, hence provincial departments of education
play a major role in the development of school library
media services for the provinces. In Newfoundland,
The Schools Act (1970) delegates responsibility for
the provision of school libraries to the school board:

12. Subject to this Act and the regulations,
every school board shall

(e) wherever possible, provide and make
regulations respecting the operation
of, a suitable library for each school
under its control, equip each school
with the teaching aids required for
the proper instruction of pupils
and provide such recording, reporting
and testing supplies as are necessary
for the operation of the school.
(The Schools Act, Revised Statutes
of Newfoundland, 1970, Chap. 346;
Amended 1974, No. 28)

All provinces in Canada have similiar legislation (Haycock, 1982a), and they have the right and responsibility to articulate the educational expectations for the schools.

Goodlad (1984) in a comprehensive study of the role of the state in education in the United States, noted that at the state level, leaders were reluctant to delineate precise requirements for local districts or schools. He concluded that the goals for education as articulated at the state level provided no clear mandate to the schools:

> My major conclusion from perusing most state guides to education in schools is that this entire area is a conceptual swamp...there remains enormous ambiguity regarding the states' responsibility for leadership and execution.... Schools suffer from lack of a clearly articulated mandate and so are peculiarly susceptible to fads and fashions. (p. 48)

To avoid this, Goodlad's belief is that it is at the state level that goals must be clearly stated. This level of government is responsible for providing the clear mandate to the schools so that they know what is expected of them.

Goodlad's observations apply to educational goals as defined by the provinces in Canada. The Newfoundland legislation is a good example of vagueness. Who defines what a suitable library is or what teaching aids are

required for proper instruction? In Canada generally
there is not broad acceptance of a leadership function
in the development of school libraries by the departments
of education. A study of the four Atlantic provinces
and the three Prairie provinces by the Nova Scotia School
Library Association (NSSLA) revealed that, of these
seven provinces, only the province of Alberta has produced
guidelines and provincial standards for school libraries
("School Library Agencies," 1984). The Alberta document,
Proposed Policy, Guidelines, Procedures and Standards
for School Libraries in Alberta (Alberta Education,
1984), is tied directly to the policy which the province
has adopted, "Students in Alberta schools should have
access to an effective school library program designed
to support and enhance instructional programs and to
provide improved opportunities for student achievement
of the Goals of Basic Education for Alberta" (p. 2).
Although the responsibility for "the development, imple-
mentation, and assessment of school library programs"
is given to the local school boards, the province of
Alberta clearly states that school library programs
"should be integrated with the goals and objectives
of the school's instructional program" (p. 2). The
province assumes the responsibility to assist the local
school boards by: reviewing and updating standards;

providing funding and consultative assistance; producing professional resources and inservice materials; and by providing recommended models for an integrated school library program. The standards recommended are viewed as "minimum rather than desirable" (p. 4) but provide for a full-time school librarian and one or two technical/ clerical support staff for schools with 500-1000 students.

As demonstrated through the study of the development of school libraries in the United States in Chapter Two, standards are important in providing a vision of what quality school library media programs should be. The Alberta document stated: "there is a need for a provincial statement of policy, guidelines, procedures, and standards to guide the development and implementation of effective school library programs" (p. 1). By providing such a statement, Alberta Education has made it clear to their educational leaders what the province feels school library service should be. Williams (1980) recognizes this clear statement as crucial for top levels of management:

> The attitude of management is the first and by far the most important factor in improving implementation. <u>Wanting better implementation will go a long way toward achieving it</u>. But "wanting it" does not mean that top-level management can mouth platitudes about the need for good implementation. Rhetoric is not enough. Management must make the hard choices required to institutionalize implementation

as a critical part of programmatic activity.
(p. 101)

Goodlad (1984) leaves no doubt of his views on
the need for the state to be held accountable "for articu-
lating a comprehensive consistent set of educational
goals for schools" (p. 275). Without clear direction
from the state, he noted: "Current expectations for
schools constitute a hodgepodge.... Principals and
teachers often are caught in a paralytic inertia created
by the bombardment of changing and often conflicting
expectations" (p. 275).

Provincial School Library Consultant

In most provinces, departments of education do
not support a strong school library office at the provincial
level. Haycock (1982a) found that "the norm is one
professional position, working in a consultative capacity"
(p. 241). The NSSLA study ("School Library Agencies,"
1984) found that in Atlantic Canada, the consultant
was the only member of the provincial school library
unit. "All consultants had access to secretarial services,
but none had full-time secretarial, clerical or technical
support" (p. 6). In Manitoba a larger provincial staff
was reported; included were a supervisor, a library-
media consultant and a secretary.

Davis (1980), the school libraries consultant with the Manitoba department, saw her role as being that of a change agent. Whatever the concern, she points out, "the provincial coordinator is viewed as the-one-to-see-about school libraries" (p. 9). Given authority by virtue of the position within the government hierarchy, she argues, the provincial consultant can help clarify the school library media concept to those working in schools, but equally important, the consultant can be an advocate for the concept within the department of education.

Viewing her role as that of being a catalyst for change, the position permits her to visit every district, talk to many educators, see new programs in action, and communicate her insights to others. This face-to-face personal contact is seen by House (1974) as a critical factor in the spread of an innovation: "Who knows whom, and who talks to whom are powerful indicators of where and when an innovation is accepted, or if it is accepted at all" (p. 6). As Davis (1980) shows, the provincial consultant is in an excellent position to fill an advocacy role.

The Prairie Provinces place considerable emphasis on printed services to schools. The NSSLA study showed that all three provided brochures on several topics

to schools. Manitoba provided manuals, bibliographies, curriculum guides and occasional papers for both trained and untrained library personnel ("School Library Agencies," 1984).

All the provincial consultants provide opportunities for inservice training. The general pattern is that of irregular visits to schools and districts in response to individual requests, with fifty to one hundred school visits reported annually by three of the consultants. Workshops are also arranged upon request.

National and Provincial Professional Associations

In tracing the development of school libraries, particularly in the United States, it becomes clear that a strong professional organization is necessary to articulate the function and the role of school library professionals. Professional gains occur when teachers, school librarians, administrators, parents, and other members of the community share a common vision and work together to realize them. The American Library Association (ALA) and the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), in association with the Association of Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) have been responsible for the formulation and publication of standards for school library services which have had major influence

in school library development in the United States, Canada, Britain, Australia and New Zealand. Educational associations, such as the National Education Association (NEA) and National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) have a long history of supporting school library interests. Cooperative ventures between ALA and NCTE have led to joint publications such as basic book collection lists. Professional articles are published in the journals of the professional associations, such as ALA's <u>Booklist</u> and the AASL's <u>School Media Quarterly</u>.

In Canada, the Canadian School Library Association (CSLA) was formed in 1961 as a division of the Canadian Library Association. Since its inception it has promoted school library service, most notably through its publications. It published <u>Standards of Library Service for Canadian Schools</u> in 1967, and a subsequent edition of standards, <u>Resource Services for Canadian Schools</u> was prepared jointly by CSLA and the Association for Media and Technology in Education in Canada (AMTEC) in 1977.

There is little doubt that CSLA has served an important function. However as Wright (1979) pointed out: "the real strength of Canadian school librarianship remains at the provincial level" (p. 15). Practicing school teacher-librarians do not generally join CSLA, choosing instead to be members of the special interest councils

within their provincial teachers' associations. In 1977/78, Wright (1979) discovered that there were 3,360 members in provincial associations, while CSLA only had 700 members. One major reason why so few school teacher-librarians become members of the CSLA may have to do with CLA. At present, to become a full personal member of CSLA it is necessary to join the parent organi- zation, CLA. However, studies have shown that most teacher-librarians have little in common with most of the CLA membership. Teacher-librarians see themselves as professional teachers, not professional librarians. Haycock (1984a) recently surveyed teacher-librarians of the Vancouver School Board, all of whom are members of CLA/CSLA. They indicated that neither of the CLA publications, (Feliciter and Canadian Library Journal) met their information needs.

CSLA tends to attract a different membership than the provincial associations. Wright (1979) observed, "CSLA...has attracted a limited but influential membership: those with professional library degrees, those with full-time library positions (mostly in secondary schools) and those who are supervisors or consultants at district or provincial levels" (p. 15). Haycock (1984b) believes that the problem with CSLA has to do with differences in professional orientation. He maintains that school

libraries are quite different from other libraries, and that the school librarian's connection with libraries in general has only served to confuse the perception of the role. He stated:

> I personally feel it may have been a mistake that we ever used the term school library and school librarian. Everyone has their personal vision of the purpose of a library because of their own experience in a public library or university library--I would submit that this is totally irrelevant. The school resource centre serves quite a different function from other types of libraries, due to an emphasis on teaching young people how to process and use information. Even the subtle move to the term "teacher-librarian" designates the school librarian more clearly as a teacher and member of the teaching staff. And, of course, most school librarians are not professional librarians at all, we're teachers, professional teachers, and should be proud of it. (p. 93)

Most school librarians are teachers, and the role which is demanded of them in the latest standards requires that they have training in curriculum development and instructional development as well as in library science. The developments in educational technology and instructional development, now seen as essential to the school librarian's role, lead some school library media specialists to consider membership in the Association for Media and Technology in Education in Canada (AMTEC). The association's professional journal, The Canadian Journal of Educational Communications carries articles of interest on such

topics as computer technology, television studies, visual literacy, and Telidon. However, examination of the current president and board of directors reveals that the organization tends to draw its membership from universities, technical colleges and school board district offices. Instead of professionals in library science, AMTEC appeals to professionals in educational technology.

It appears that professional teachers who specialize in the fields of library science and educational technology have created a unique profession for which there is at present no national association which fully meets their needs. Hamilton (1984), a past president of CSLA, saw the need for a new national organization:

> My energies would go to the Association that can provide leadership for school libraries in Canada as the provincial teacher-related associations do for school libraries in each province. CLA has never fully been able to "understand" the school librarian or the school library and that has been reflected in its relationship with CSLA. (p. 19)

Haycock (1984a) is perhaps Canada's strongest advocate for a new organization: "I now conclude that Canada needs an organization of teacher-librarians at the national level, separate from the library community as a whole" (p. 20).

The United States has demonstrated that a strong national association can be crucial in shaping a vision of what quality school library service is. The standards for school libraries, described in Chapter Two, were developed by the national associations and were instrumental in promoting school libraries at the state and local level. National standards and national publications can give leadership to the development of school librarianship, but this will only occur if the profession organizes for common goals and purposes. Only then can the profession speak clearly and unequivocally of what a school library media program should be.

Qualifications of School Librarians

Part of the confusion over the role of the school librarian can be traced to the lack of consensus at the national level as to what qualifications are necessary. CSLA felt that they had satisfactorily answered the question of qualifications in 1979 when they identified nine areas of competencies, after extensive research and consultation with 150 leaders in the field. They saw the school librarian as:

> A highly skilled teacher, able to function
> on the school team as a professional with
> competencies from teacher education and classroom
> experience as well as competencies from school
> librarianship and media services.... in the

> forefront of curriculum and professional develop-
> ment services; ...familiar with the full range
> of instructional strategies and learning styles,
> ...able to organize time, personnel, and materials
> to maximize utilization of each and...active
> in professional concerns within the school
> and district. ("CSLA Report", 1980, p. 3-
> 4).

To perform this role, which reflects the modern concept
of the school library media specialist described in
Chapter Two, demands competencies in: administration;
selection; acquisition; organization and circulation;
reading, listening and viewing guidance; design and
production of learning resources; information and reference
services; promotion of resources and services; cooperative
program planning and teaching; and professional leadership.

In Canada there is presently disagreement within
the professional community as to how best to train school
librarians; either a Master's degree in Library Science
(MLS) with a school librarianship concentration or a
Master's degree in Education (M.Ed.) with a concentration
in learning resources and school librarianship. To
resolve this problem CSLA developed a Recommended Curriculum
for Education for School Librarianship which recommended
better communication between faculties of education
and library science, including the possibility of transfer
of credit and cross-listing of courses where possible.
Haycock (1981a) who chaired the CSLA committee which

led to the proposed curriculum, reported the reaction
of The Canadian Council of Library Schools, (a body
composed of the dean and one faculty member from each
library school in Canada).

> The "scholars" rejected the recommended curriculum
> quickly and with minimal discussion. From
> later reports it is obvious that few read
> the document carefully, let alone examined
> research in this field. An MLS degree, regardless
> of relevance, is the only approved ticket
> to professionalism. Period. (p. 5)

This quarrel over training can only serve to weaken
the profession. It has contributed to confusion in
the perception of the role by school administrators,
supervisors and school librarians. Those who are to
work as school librarians need the specialized teaching
skills required to plan cooperatively with classroom
teachers and to team teach units which integrate study
or information skills, as well as the skills necessary
to process and use information, regardless of its format.
The needs of the school library profession should be
paramount, not the affiliation, accreditation or lack
of accreditation of degree-granting institutions.

Development and Use of Research

Loertscher (1988), Jones (1982) and Beswick (1983)
are among those who feel that standards for school library

media programs should derive from a strong research base. Beswick (1983) wrote:

> Librarians' fervent advocacy of the school library as a major force for good within the school system (and the harsh criticism sometimes directed at schools and teachers not entirely convinced of the true faith) rests not on a thorough grounding in educational thought and practice, but on intuition, the understandable prejudice of their personal position, and a warm-hearted belief in individual development which they have rarely fully thought through. Their descriptions of what is involved in information-using are often quite naive. They can be sympathetically described as representing "the school library religion", lacking a soundly worked out theory, lacking a solid evidential base. (p. 2)

"School library religion" is not sufficient if the school library media program is to be successful. As Jones (1982) observed, the present quantitative standards for school library media programs have no data to support them. In agreement with Beswick (1983), he stated: "it is time that the profession began to realize that much of our body of 'truth' may well rest on unproven past practice, belief, emotion, and intuition rather than the findings of research" (p. 16). If school librarianship is to be treated with respect, the standards for school library media programs must be based on carefully focused research studies.

The American Association of School Librarians,
in recognition of this need, has focused on research
and school librarianship in their official journal,
School Library Media Quarterly. A regular column entitled
"Current Research" appears in each issue, while special
features appear in which entire issues are devoted to
Research and School Librarianship. The association
also published School Library Media Annual, a section
of which is devoted to Research and Development. Despite
this emphasis Loertscher (1983), writing in the School
Library Media Quarterly observed:

> We now find ourselves in the midst of creating
> standards for school library media centers
> for the sixth time in five decades. Unhappily,
> our research base is not much better than
> that available for the last several editions.
> The task, therefore, will again rely heavily
> on "best professional judgement" rather than
> upon traditional evidence. The temptation
> will be to repeat again the platitudes of
> the past that already lack credibility by
> major segments of the educational community.
> (p. 74)

He cites that the 1975 standards, if implemented, would
mean a budget of $240,000 for a high school media centre
serving twelve hundred students, and asks, "Just who
do we think we are trying to kid?" (p. 74). Neither
in the United States nor in Canada do public schools
have that kind of funding. As Loertscher (1983) concluded:

> Each person reading or writing drafts for
> our new standards will need to keep up a close
> watch for platitudes versus supportable state-
> ments. What can we truthfully say about the
> worth of library media centres to education?
> While research can never give a complete answer
> (and hasn't even scratched the surface, yet),
> we must be ethical enough to reject grandiose
> statements that have little or no basis in
> fact. Our credibility is at stake. (p. 74)

If the concept of the school library media centre is

to be understood, platitudes and grandiose statements

without basis in fact should be avoided. In Canada

there is need for research and need for a national publi-

cation which will publish such research. School Libraries

in Canada, the official journal of the Canadian School

Library Association, currently places emphasis on "Children's

literature and services and 'library' matters" (Haycock,

1984a, p. 21) rather than on research and issues relating

to school librarianship.

Aaron (1982) reviewed 151 doctoral dissertations

on school library media programs completed from January,

1972 through December, 1980. She questioned the quality

of much of the research: "Unfortunately, many lack

the skills to evaluate the quality of research studies,

so questionable findings generated through defective

research designs are utilized to support inadequate

practices" (p. 231). Seeing school library media research

as largely "noncumulative and fragmentary" (p. 233),
and considering present economic restraints, she recommends
that school library media professionals concentrate
on priority areas. Some of the areas identified by
Aaron as being priority areas needing more research
included:

1. <u>Studies on the needs of the users</u>. What information
is needed, how might it be used, how might it be obtained,
how can the school library media centre best meet these
needs, what method of organization best meets teachers'
and students' needs?

2. <u>Studies on school librarianship</u>. Should services
be primarily for teachers or students? How important
are the recreational needs of students? What are the
implications of new curriculum development and theories
of child development?

3. <u>Studies concerning newer technologies</u>. What
is the role of the school library media centre and new
technology? How can the new technology improve instruction?
How can the use of desirable technologies be best promoted?
What is the role of the school library media centre
for staff inservice?

4. <u>Studies concerning the role of the school library
media centre and instruction</u>. How best can the school
library media specialist work with teachers in planning,

implementing and evaluating instruction? Is it possible
for teachers and school library media specialists to
work as partners in the instructional program? What
factors influence such a relationship? How can the
school library media centre best help students to become
independent learners? What factors facilitate or hinder
changes in the school library media area?

Many other areas have also been identified by Aaron
as needing study. The effects of the school library
media program on teaching and learning is a major area,
as is also the need of preservice and inservice education
for school library media personnel. Answers to these
and other related areas can gradually be discovered
through properly designed research studies. Such answers
are needed if school library media programs are to be
perceived as providing necessary and quality services.

Research need not be conducted by those outside
the school. Loertscher (1980) advocated the need for
locally based research, where those presently working
in the schools would engage in research and communicate
their findings to the profession. If formal and locally
based researchers would share their findings and cooper-
atively explore the many areas requiring investigation,
the gap between theory and practice might eventually
be bridged.

Summary

Factors outside the school system affect the perception of the function of school library media centres and the implementation of the modern concept in the schools. The need for a clear national voice communicating a vision of quality school library media service is evident. A national professional association of school librarians could be a vital force in clarifying and developing the concept, if those currently involved in provincial associations were to unite nationally. National standards and national leadership would help raise awareness at the provincial and local level, and hopefully would influence provincial guidelines for quality education requiring strong library media programs.

The claims for school library media programs must also be supported by the findings of research. National organizations and institutions of higher education must provide the leadership and research opportunities required to substantiate the need for such programs.

To implement a program of school library media services is to challenge the way most teachers presently teach. To be successful a broad base of support is needed, part of which will come from institutions and associations located far away from the local school. A vision of quality school libraries and high standards

originate at national and provincial levels, at departments
of education, and through findings of research into
teaching and learning. However it should also be remembered
that the formulation and endorsement of standards are
not in themselves sufficient. There must be the constant
pressure from those active in the profession; there
must be cooperation and support from other educators;
there must be commitment from the provincial departments
of education to show that school library media programs
are important; there must be funds to provide the resources
and personnel needed to assist in professional development
for the teaching staff.

Characteristics at the District Level

Politics and Economics at the District Level

School districts in Canada have had to contend
in recent years with declining enrolments and declining
dollars. Elementary and secondary enrolments in Canada
declined from 5.8 million in 1970-1971 to 4.7 million
in 1983-1984, or by 17 percent; with predictions that
they may reach a low level of about 4.6 million in 1985-1986,
or 18 percent below the 1970-1971 high (Brown, 1985,
p. 4). This decline has occurred at the same time that
provincial governments have experienced the effects

of the recession. The result has been that money allocated to elementary and secondary education has declined dramatically between 1970 and 1981, "from 22 percent to 16 percent, and the downward trend is continuing" (Brown, 1985, p. 7). Brown also pointed out that since 1981, spending for elementary and secondary education has not been keeping pace with inflation.

Burke and Bolf (1985) noted that school boards have been unable to maintain the quality of education. After surveying 3,724 educators across Canada in 1983, they concluded that the school environment had deteriorated in the previous two years, especially "when it came to availability of funds for repairing or replacing supplies, equipment and buildings, increased class size, professional development and supply teachers" (p. 9).

At the same time, school boards are faced with the demand for new programs. Legislation has been passed requiring schools to mainstream special education students who require special programs and teachers; French immersion has become popular, requiring the setting up of special classes and hiring of bilingual teachers. In Newfoundland the introduction of grade twelve and a reorganized high school program has meant that extra funding and teacher allocations have been necessary in order to offer the full complement of elective courses available,

A further problem facing district offices is that
of redundant teachers. The collective agreements signed
with teacher unions demand that redundant teachers be
given first opportunity for placement if vacancies occur
within the district. For many local school boards this
has prevented the hiring of new staff members with expertise
desired within the school system.

MacIsaac (1985) saw this period as one in which
schools could "rethink the mission of schooling" (p. 26).
The scarcity of resources forces districts to look at
what is basic to schooling and what is not. It is a
time when those attempting to introduce change will
need to provide good reasons why the change is necessary
and important.

District Support Services for School Library Media Programs

Not all school boards provide support for school
libraries. As Haycock (1982a) points out the range
of services provided will vary considerably. The provincial
departments of education, as noted earlier, delegate
this responsibility to the school districts and the
mandate to the districts tends not to be clear. Two
notable exceptions to this are the governments of Alberta
and Ontario which have clearly outlined the services
that the district office should provide. The Ontario

guide, Partners in Action (Ontario, 1982) recommended
that board services be developed under five broad cate-
gories: (a) consultant services, (b) research and develop-
ment, (c) curriculum support, (d) technical support,
and (e) cooperative sharing.

Consultant Services

The primary role of the library media consultant,
at a district level, is to provide leadership in the
development of school library media programs in the
schools. In order to fulfil this role, the consultant
acts in an advisory capacity for schools in: planning
programs, facilities and inservice programs for the
teaching staff; assisting in determining staffing; developing
selection policies; selecting and purchasing appropriate
learning resources; organizing the collection for effective
retrieval; developing a learning-skills continuum; designing
and producing new learning resources; and interpreting
and communicating the library resource centre needs
to principals, supervisory personnel, school board members
and parents.

Haycock (1982a) noted that more and more boards
are placing emphasis on staff development through profes-
sional inservice programs aimed at clarifying the role
of the library media specialist, and the ways in which

research and study skills can be integrated into the
instructional program through cooperative planning of
units of study by classroom teachers and school library
media specialists. He observed that boards which placed
priority in this area rather than on more technical
or business areas "have tended to maintain their services
rather than see them reduced to a minimal level" in
times of financial restraint (p. 245).

The advocacy role performed by the district office
consultant is also well documented in Canada, according
to Haycock (1982a). This role is particularly important
in working with administrators, board office personnel,
school board members, and principals of the schools
in the district, to ensure an understanding of the role
of school library media programs.

Research and Development

Systematic research, ongoing assessment and long-
range planning are seen as part of the district office
function. The library media consultant is involved
with: initiating policies for board approval and adoption
(on selection of learning resources, staffing, budgets);
assessing the needs of the district and providing plans
on how these needs may be met; formulating long-term
plans for resource centre growth; promoting the district

media services throughout the district; developing in-
service programs for teachers, school librarians, curriculum
consultants, principals and superintendents; planning
for demonstrations, pilot projects, school based research
and other types of investigations which will improve
the library media program; and in communicating with
school administrators, school board members and parents
about learning resources and library media programs.

Curriculum Support Services

The purpose of district support is to assist teachers
and administrators in improving the quality of instruction.
The district library media office can fulfil this role
by establishing a central library resource centre that
provides a collection of: professional materials; reference
materials beyond that normally found in schools; local
and provincial curriculum guidelines and programs of
study; selection aids; archival materials of interest
to the district; bibliographies; specialized or expensive
learning resources too costly to be purchased by individual
schools (such as 16mm films); curriculum-related materials
which can be borrowed by schools; media required for
inservice programs; and displays or previews of learning
resources and professional materials.

Technical Support Services

In this area the district media centre attempts to facilitate the use of resource materials, and to provide technical assistance in the production or reproduction of learning resources. Such services include: centralized cataloguing and processing of all print and non-print materials which are not purchased already processed; centralized ordering services; maintenance and repair of learning resources and equipment; circulation of learning resources and equipment; production service (for example, videotaping, film developing, sound recording); reproduction and laminating service; regular technical assistance.

Cooperative Sharing Services

The district office staff are able to coordinate arrangements for the sharing of resources at the district level. With microcomputers becoming more readily available, schools may soon be able to participate in networks that provide on-line cataloguing and bibliographic data. Board office personnel can play a major role in developing networks and systems for sharing resources through the coordination of: interlibrary sharing of resources and information; participation in provincial, national and local resource-sharing networks; sharing of computer

programs; contributing through meetings and conferences
where ideas are exchanged; participation in networks
that share cataloguing and bibliographic information.

The board office media centre can become the centre
where schools may obtain the help and encouragement
they need in order to participate in the mainstream
of education and school librarianship.

District Media Services: The State of the Art

Unfortunately, many school districts have not provided
the services that the literature recommends. Oberg
(1983) described the Alberta situation:

> There are vast differences in the levels of
> school library development in Alberta. In
> some school districts, school libraries are
> seen as a priority. In such areas, students
> can select from a wide range of learning re-
> sources. They are instructed in locating
> and using information by professional educators.
> Teachers and teacher-librarians cooperatively
> develop lesson plans and learning activities
> for their students. In some districts, although
> facilities and basic resources appear to be
> in place, the staff or time needed to plan
> learning activities is not provided. In other
> districts, no library services or programs
> exist. (p. 29-30)

Hopefully the Proposed Policy, Guidelines, Procedures
and Standards for School Libraries in Alberta (Alberta
Education, 1984) will help to create consistency in
the quality of service provided in Alberta. But the

same inconsistency exists in all other provinces. Wright (1981) examined school libraries in Canada, and concluded that the percentage of full-time personnel working in school libraries is in a definite decline (p. 16). Burdenuk (1984) examined the Ontario statistics, and found that "in 1984 we have fewer teacher-librarians in Ontario, fewer library consultants and fewer school libraries than we had in 1974" (p. 18). In Newfoundland, only four boards out of the thirty-five in the province have full-time coordinators for school library media services, with seven other boards having coordinators assigned part time responsibilities for this area. The other twenty-four boards provide no coordinator. In Newfoundland part of the problem is that twenty-seven of the boards are very small, having less than 5,000 students (Newfoundlan, Department of Education, 1984-85). Present coordinator allocations create difficulty for these boards in assigning a full-time coordinator for library media services. The most these small boards can do, under present conditions, is ensure that a coordinator in some other subject area will be assigned responsibility for media services as well. Unfortunately most coordinators are qualified in only one content area. The result, in many of these small boards, is

that no library media services are provided at the district
level at all.

Boards that have no library media consultant often
have nobody to make them aware of what quality library
media programs can offer. The provincial school library
consultants could provide leadership in this area, but
present practice is generally that they visit districts
by request only, so boards where awareness is lowest
are liable to request assistance the least. District
support commitment was recognized by Branscombe and
Newson (1977) as essential to school library media devel-
opment:

> To ensure that the design and the continuing
> development of learning materials services
> remain "on course", it is essential that there
> be a commitment by the school district to
> a fundamental philosophy which shapes the
> objectives, and thus the organizational structure,
> of system-wide resource services. (p. 5)

That commitment appears to be lacking in many boards.
One person who could change that is the superintendent.

The Role of the Superintendent

Fullan (1982), following examination of numerous
studies, concluded that the superintendent, with his
or her staff, was a powerful advocate for change and
could sponsor or block the adoption of any change program:

> The district administrator may not be interested
> in innovation and little may happen. But
> when there is an interest for whatever reason--
> mandate from a board, or a reform-minded or
> career-orientated administrator--it is the
> superintendent and central staff who combine
> access, internal authority, and resources
> necessary to seek out external funds for a
> particular change program and/or to obtain
> board support. (p. 45)

Those wishing to implement a school library media program

must win the support of the superintendent. House (1974)

provides insight into how this can occur. His studies

demonstrate that the superintendents' chief source of

new ideas were fellow superintendents. As the chief

executives in school districts, superintendents have

extensive contacts with other superintendents, and this

face-to-face personal contact is seen as crucial to

the flow of new ideas. House (1974) concluded:

> If any innovation is to diffuse at all, it
> must follow the social paths blazed by repeated
> personal contact. (p. 14)

> Personal contact is critical for innovation
> diffusion because it allows a full-fledged
> information exchange and the full exercise
> of personal and social influence.... It is
> the "private" information, defined by the
> person's "information field" that is most
> influential. Anything that structures the
> flow of face-to-face contacts is likely to
> have a profound effect on innovation diffusion.
> (p. 15)

It is clear that those wanting to introduce the school
library media concept in school districts will need
to win the support of those key superintendents who
have major influence with their peers. If provincial
and national guidelines specified that every school
should have quality school library programs, and that
such programs were essential for the provision of quality
education, the task would be easier for those attempting
such a change. The challenge for school library media
advocates is to find effective ways to communicate their
vision to this influential group. House (1974) found
that to limit contact to newsletters and conference
methods was relatively ineffective (p. 7). Leaders
in the field, and in education in general, need to show
why it is important to provide library media services.
For long term success this is critical, for as House
(1974) concluded, "the superintendent acts as carrier,
catalyst, and gatekeeper for new innovations" (p. 44).

The superintendent's key role in relation to school
libraries is the same as it is with other elements of
the school system; to provide leadership and establish
policy, drawing on his or her own insights and those
of the staff. Elseroad (1966), a superintendent of
schools in Maryland, saw the superintendent as crucial
to the development of good school libraries:

> He should indicate clearly his intent to have
> good libraries in every school and accept
> only quality performance from principals and
> librarians. Where the superintendent does
> not play this role, a dedicated staff may,
> with difficulty, develop school libraries
> which can make a contribution to their school.
> There are, undoubtedly schools where this
> has happened. But in a system where the super-
> intendent recognizes the importance of instruc-
> tional materials and translates this knowledge
> into action, school libraries can support
> instruction so well that they are indispensable
> to the education of young people. (p. 5)

Superintendents have the authority necessary to provide inservice programs required to implement such a program; they are in a position to inform district staff, school principals, teachers, and school board members of provincial or national expectations for library service; they have the right as leaders to draw on the professional expertise of their school staffs in order to provide quality school library media programs which meet the needs of each school in the district; and they are the ones who can introduce policies for school libraries for adoption by school boards.

Summary

The school district has an essential role to play in the implementation of a school library media program. Without commitment from the district office successful implementation is not likely to occur. Although individual

schools may occasionally implement isolated school library
media programs, there is little chance for these isolated
programs to continue over a period of time; they are
likely to fall victim to staff reductions or transfers
or lack of resources. The school district, led by the
superintendent, is important in establishing policy
and goals for local school library media programs.

Characteristics at the School Level

Introduction

In recent years researchers have studied teachers
as they work in schools, and a consistent body of findings
has been recorded. Major studies used in this review
include: Sarason (1982); Goodlad (1984); Lortie (1975);
Crocker (1983, 1984); Jackson (1968); Lieberman and
Miller (1978); Eisner (1979, 1983). These findings
provide insights into the nature of teaching and the
problems teachers face in their daily activities. They
demonstrate that schools are very complex institutions
requiring different relationships among all those who
work there. They call for reformers to know very well
the place which is to be reformed. Crocker (1984b)
expressed clearly the message which these studies all
convey:

> Those who attempt to change teaching from
> the outside, through curriculum or organizational
> change, must be clear as to the way teachers
> will interpret such change and the limits
> to which one feature of a setting can change
> without impinging on other features. (p. 18)

The Research on Teaching

The work of John Goodlad over the past twenty years
has provided insight into the nature of teaching. His
many studies, the most recent being A Place Called School
(1984), consistently present the same picture of classroom
life:

> Four elements of classroom life in the schools
> of our sample come through loud and clear
> from our data. First, the vehicle for teaching
> and learning is the total group. Second,
> the teacher is the strategic, pivotal figure
> in this group. Third, the norms governing
> the group derive primarily from what is required
> to maintain the teacher's strategic role.
> Fourth, the emotional tone is neither harsh
> and punitive nor warm and joyful; it might
> be described most accurately as flat. (p. 108)

The classrooms observed generally all looked alike.
The teacher was usually explaining or lecturing to the
whole class or to a single student, often asking questions
which required recall answers. When not lecturing,
the teacher was usually observing or monitoring students
who worked individually at their desks. Students were
generally involved with one of three types of activities,
all of which were marked by passivity--written work,

listening to the teacher, or preparing for assignments.
Goodlad saw little evidence of other modes of learning.
Despite curriculum guidelines over the past fifteen
years suggesting that teachers provide for student indi-
viduality in learning rates and styles, there was little
indication that individual differences were considered.
"Students worked independently at all levels but primarily
on identical tasks, rather than on a variety of activities
designed to accommodate their differences" (Goodlad,
1984, p. 105). In general there was a greater variety
of instructional activities in elementary schools where
occasionally teachers changed their grouping and teaching
practices to suit different learner needs, but in secondary
schools there was rarely any attempt to individualize
classroom procedures. On the whole Goodlad (1984) con-
cluded, "Teachers at all levels apparently did not know
how to vary their instructional procedures, did not
want to, or had some kind of difficulty doing so" (p. 106).

Goodlad's findings support the findings of others
active in this field. Eisner (1983) reported, "As I
look at schools I see largely teacher dominated classrooms
with mostly passive students" (p. 51). Crocker (1983b)
concluded:

> There is no question that classroom activities
> are overwhelmingly academic and task oriented

> in nature. Furthermore, the tasks at hand
> are strongly teacher defined and directed.
> In general, pupils are found at their desks,
> attending to the teacher or engaged in seatwork.
> Classroom communications are highly teacher-
> oriented. On the surface, these features
> of instructional practice suggest that the
> classroom does, indeed, conform to the conventional
> image of a place which is teacher dominated
> and textbook oriented. (pp. 81-82)

Studies such as these give ample evidence that the many

changes currently advocated by curriculum developers

and recommended in curriculum guidelines are not being

integrated into classroom practice. Goodlad (1984)

concluded, "Over the years, these ways of schooling

have proved to be extraordinarily resistant to change,

encouraging the view that 'nothing changes; there is

only the appearance of change.'" (p. 267).

The Nature of Teaching

Studies on teaching practices have led to general-

izations about the nature of teaching.

Teaching is an isolated activity. Teaching usually

occurs behind closed doors, in a self-contained classroom.

Sarason (1982) wrote:

> We noted these findings in terms of "teaching
> is a lonely profession" by which we meant
> that the teacher is alone with problems and
> dilemmas, constantly thrown back on personal
> sources, having little or no inter-personal
> vehicles available for purposes of stimulation,
> change or control. (p. 196)

Teachers become accustomed to working alone. In fact,
Sarason (1982) observed that some teachers said that
they could not work with another adult in the room (p. 193),
and refused to use a teacher aide.

Lortie (1975) found that the isolation of teachers
made it difficult for individual teachers to verify
collegial claims. Sometimes new teaching methods reportedly
used by others were unclear, as this teacher's comment
reveals:

> I think it is very difficult. You don't have
> any means of comparison.... You have no idea
> of what is going on across the hall or next
> door.... You know what people tell you.
> You take that with a grain of salt. (p. 146)

Seldom do teachers have the opportunity to observe a
colleague teaching. Goodlad (1984) reported that "Most
teachers taught alone in a classroom. A large majority
said they never observed instruction in other classrooms"
(p. 188). Yet three-quarters of the sample at all levels
of schooling indicated that they would like to have
the opportunity to observe other teachers at work.

Goodlad's study also revealed that teachers did
not feel they were greatly influenced by sources outside
their classroom. Over 75%, regardless of subject area
taught or level of schooling, felt that they were "greatly
influenced in what they taught by two sources--their

own background, interests, and experiences; and students' interests and experiences" (p. 186). They were only moderately influenced, they said, by textbooks and curriculum guides; only slightly or not at all influenced by district consultants, parents, or teacher unions. Resource people outside the district were perceived as having limited value. The teachers were rarely involved with collective endeavours such as district committees, and they did not visit other schools or receive visitors from them very often. "There was little in our data to suggest active, ongoing exchange of ideas and practices across schools, between groups of teachers, or between individuals even in the same schools. Teachers rarely worked together on schoolwide problems" (p. 187).

Within schools, teacher-to-teacher links were either weak or nonexistent, especially in the high schools. Most did not really know how their colleagues actually behaved with students, their educational beliefs, or their teaching competence. Goodlad (1983a) noted that teaching is not discussed by school staffs, "teaching has not been legitimated as an institutional concern. It is still a highly individualistic, isolated endeavor. The teacher closes the door and does what he or she pleases" (p. 56). Sarason (1982) proposed: "It is extremely difficult for a teacher to state to the principal,

other teachers, or supervisors that she does not understand something or that in certain respects her teaching is not getting over to the pupils" (p. 48).

Teachers perceive themselves to be autonomous in their classrooms. Related to the isolation of their position is the belief most teachers hold that they are in control of their own classrooms. Goodlad (1984) concluded: "The classroom is indeed the teacher's domain, and here, according to our data, teachers perceive themselves to be quite autonomous" (p. 188). Two-thirds of the teachers in Goodlad's study indicated that they had "complete" control in their selection of teaching techniques and students' learning activities (p. 189).

Autonomy really has to do with the teacher's relation to his own superiors. Jackson (1968) discovered that teachers' sense of professional pride is threatened by superiors making demands that reach into the classroom. Teachers recognize that they have to teach certain subjects, but how and when they do is seen by them as their decision. Jackson quoted a second-grade teacher:

> I think that it's important that a teacher is respected for her own ideas about teaching and isn't told how to do it. I personally wouldn't like to be handed a curriculum guide and told "Follow it." I like to do what I want to do when I want to do it. (p. 131)

Crocker (1983a) observed that teachers involved with a pilot science program expressed a strong desire for a prescribed curriculum. Few wanted to construct their own programs. But despite established guidelines, consultants, staff members and inspectors who were concerned with the teachers' activities "teachers perceived themselves free to treat science as they wished, not withstanding the guidelines, as long as they could demonstrate that it was being taught" (p. 355). Crocker and Jackson concurred that, inside the guidelines, teachers want room for spontaneity and freedom to do what they wish.

Jackson (1968) noted that a perceived threat to the teacher's autonomy is the requirement in some schools of having the classroom teacher plan work in advance. He quoted a teacher who had taught for twenty-nine years:

> In neighbourhood districts, teachers have to have lesson plans made for nine weeks ahead of time and they have to be checked through. I don't believe I've made a lesson plan since I did my practice teaching. So I suppose if I ended up with a supervisor or principal that wanted lesson plans for nine weeks, it would shake me up. I'd probably get something down on paper; whether I'd follow it through or not I don't know. That would be something else. (p. 131)

Jackson (1968) noted that teachers resented the intrusion of visitors, mainly because they feared it as being critical or evaluative. He concluded that teachers

"feel most comfortable with the classroom door closed and the curriculum guides tucked away in the supplies closet" (p. 132-133). Lortie (1975) concurred:

> Positive events and outcomes are linked to two sets of actors--the teacher and the students.... But all other persons, without exception, were connected with undesirable occurrences. Negative allusions were made to parents, the principal, the school nurse, colleagues--in fact, to anyone and everyone who "intrudes" on classroom events. The cathected scene is stripped of all transactions save those between teacher and students. (p. 169)

Teaching goals are vague rather than specific. Educational goals tend to be vague and often in conflict. Lortie (1975) noted that "Terms like 'student potential' prove to be of little use in concrete situations" (p. 146). Teachers, working in isolation in their own classrooms, are often vague as to how to interpret these goals, and are uncertain as to whether or not they have realized given objectives.

Lieberman and Shiman (1973) were surprised to discover that what happens in the school is radically different from the rational model. They found that instead of a linear progression from objectives, to change, to evaluation of how objectives were met, teachers tended to allow action to precede goals. Being trained in the rational model, the researchers were "quite unprepared

when we saw teachers begin to team teach, change their reporting procedures, create a totally new classroom atmosphere, and years later begin to talk about the goals of the school" (p. 53).

Jackson (1968) described teaching as "an opportunistic process" (p. 166), rather than a careful following of educational objectives. The opportunistic process indicates that neither the teacher nor the students can predict with any certainty, what will happen next. Even when teachers make plans in advance, they are aware that there is a likelihood of changing them. Plans do not always work out and experienced teachers learn how to read the behaviour of the class. They can detect signs of restlessness and inattention which tell them when things are going wrong, or alert expressions and raised arms which tell when students' attentions are caught. Teachers adjust their instructional procedures accordingly.

Teachers work with groups, not with individuals. Lortie (1975) pointed out that teachers must meet goals in a group context. Teachers are responsible for a class, which may include thirty or forty students. When they make rules for class conduct, it is for the whole class. If teachers attempt to make special arrangements for individual students, other students are likely to resent it as being inequitable. This presents diffi-

culties in attaining goals. It is difficult to individualize
instruction while teaching a class of thirty students.
Jackson (1968) estimated that a teacher engages in "as
many as 1000 interpersonal interchanges each day" (p.11).
Crocker (1983b) found that "individual pupils average
about one minute per lesson in interaction with the
teacher" (p. 60). Goodlad (1984) saw the classroom
as "a crowded box", (p. 175) in which teachers had to
work at maintaining tight control so that academic learning
could take place. In order to manage a large group
in a small space, certain instructional practices are
adopted, maybe as a policing device. Goodlad (1984)
observed, "In the secondary schools no teacher could
get to know many students well. Many students were
not well known by any teacher" (p. 126).

Teachers rely on textbooks and are concerned with
coverage of all the content. Eisner (1979) saw the
types of demands placed on teachers as important factors
in the enormous influence of the textbook. All studies
agree on the importance of the textbook in influencing
what is taught in the schools. Eisner (1979) indicated
that the reasons for its importance are not difficult
to determine. Teachers in elementary grades are teaching
many subjects: reading, language arts, arithmetic,
social studies, science, art; within language arts they

teach penmanship, grammar, punctuation, spelling, creative writing, library skills. He asked, "Given the variety of these demands, is it any wonder that many teachers-- perhaps most--would welcome textbooks and other kinds of workbooks that in effect decide for them what children shall study, in what order, for what ends?" (p. 27). Textbooks also provide instant expertise in the subject matter; are arranged in topics suitable for class presentation; usually have a teacher's version which provide questions, answers, test items, and student activities. The workbook that often accompanies the textbook provides a simple way to keep students occupied. Eisner (1979) also saw the textbook as providing security for both teacher and students, "it lays out the journey that students and teachers will take; one knows what follows what and where it all ends" (p. 27).

Reliance on textbooks has been shown to lead to concern with coverage of the content. Eisner (1979) linked this concern with the composition of the text, "Implicit in the textbook is the idea that if the children do not cover all the material they are being cheated" (p. 27). Crocker (1983a) noted teachers' preoccupation with coverage of content, as did Goodlad (1984). The trend in schools seems to be: "The textbook and its partner, the workbook, provide the curricular hub around

which much of what is taught revolves" (Eisner, 1979, p. 27).

Teachers have to control the class in order to teach. The matter of classroom management, discipline and control has been shown to exert influence on the delivery of curriculum content and activities introduced in the classroom. The fact that teachers deal with fairly large groups in relatively small spaces creates problems. Crocker (1983a) found that a major reason why teachers did not want to use small groups, discovery learning, and other recommended teaching methods had to do with problems of management, discipline and control (p. 355). Goodlad (1984) felt that teachers in his study were aware of better pedagogy than they used, but the necessity for them to maintain control discouraged the adoption of other strategies. He concluded:

> My interpretation is that teachers, aware of the rather crowded box in which they and their students live each day, see the need to be in control, to prevent unruly students from dominating, as a necessary condition for student learning--even though they might prefer simply to act on their beliefs about good pedagogy. (p. 175)

Eisner (1983) saw the teacher's need for control as a major barrier to teaching students to work in an intellectually independent way. Teachers are reluctant

to allow students to formulate their own problems, and instead provide "pseudo-problems" (p. 53) which require the use of skills previously taught. He noted:

> Again, the reasons for this approach to instruction are not too difficult to understand. To give students the opportunity to formulate their own aims, or to couch their own problems and then to pursue them is inefficient; it deregularizes the system we feel we need to control, and it leads to unpredictability. Who knows what problems students might formulate? (p. 53)

Eisner (1983) expressed sympathy for the teacher's dilemma, "Few of us can tolerate an utterly differentiated approach to teaching. Thirty students, each on his or her own journey, is more than most of us can endure" (p. 53).

Jackson (1968) saw other obstacles which influenced the teacher's need for control. The very fact that there is compulsory education means that some students may be attending against their will. In addition, students may not want to do certain activities when the timetable indicates they must be done: "Johnny may be interested in learning how to play the recorder, but not always at precisely the time when he is expected to be" (p. 110). There is also the ever-present distraction of the crowd. The classroom puts friends together in a small room, and then requires them to pay attention to the teacher and ignore each other. For the teacher, there is a

delicate balancing of roles--on the one hand to maintain control and on the other hand, to maintain a positive relationship with students. Lortie (1975) quoted a sixth grade teacher:

> I don't mind at all when children think I'm strict just as long as they don't think I'm mean or anything.... It's much easier to start out that way and to let up...you can't change in the middle of the stream and you cannot bear down after because they lose respect for you. They become very fresh and they can really make life miserable. (p. 155)

Maintaining discipline and control is a time-consuming part of the teacher's job. Lortie (1975) estimated that forty percent of the teacher's time is directed toward this end. Teachers know that this is one aspect of their job for which there is universal agreement; university professors, supervisors, school principals all agree that it is the teacher's responsibility to maintain order. The Newfoundland Schools Act (1970) describes as one duty of a teacher, "maintain proper order and discipline in carrying out his duties" (Chap. 346, Section 81, p. 4762). The studies show that it is difficult for many teachers to know what "proper order and discipline" is.

Teachers see themselves as the essential catalyst

in the learning process. Lortie (1975) noted this in
his study:

> Teachers believe that the teacher is the essential
> catalyst for student achievement. Teacher
> leadership stands at the center of this benign
> and desirable activity; it is portrayed as
> the sine qua non of student learning. The
> role of the teacher approaches the heroic.
> (p. 172)

Crocker (1983a) drew the same conclusion. His study
showed that although they limited their teaching strategies
partly due to the need for classroom control, they also
based their actions on the "perceived inability of most
students to operate without direct teacher guidance"
(p. 355).

The view that students must be subject to direct
instruction in order to learn explains why the teachers
in these studies made limited use of small groups, self-
instructional non-print materials and other types of
learning experiences outside the teacher-dominated,
whole class teaching method. It also explains why teachers
do the talking in classrooms. Crocker (1983a), reporting
on an earlier study he conducted in 1980, noted that
even when teachers break the class into small group
work, they do most of the talking, "Once group work
began, teachers clearly attempted to orchestrate the
work much as if each group was a whole class" (p. 357).

Goodlad (1984) observed that teachers "out-talked the entire class of students by a ratio of three to one. If teachers in the talking mode and students in the listening mode is what we want, rest assured that we have it" (p. 229). Eisner (1983) noted that even when teachers ask students questions, the response-time for students to answer is an average of three seconds.

It may also help to explain why teachers pay so little attention to independent study. UNESCO (1977) defined independent activity or study by the pupil as time allocated for home work, use of outside resources, or study periods in the school. They concluded, "Generally speaking, the school does not feel that it is concerned with the way in which this time is used, placing responsibility for it on the pupil and his family" (p. 17). Their statistics indicate that an average of five hours out of a total of thirty hours of school time is allocated for independent activity or study. They recommended that this time be tripled to fifteen hours a week. Five hours would be taken from time assigned to group instruction or supervised activities, and ten hours would be provided outside regular school hours, allowing students to utilize the premises and the resources of the school for independent work. Crocker's study (1983b) of how students spent their time in classrooms demonstrated

that time spent by any one pupil on academic activities
not related to the task of the whole class was minimal.
For example, in 560 grade two language arts lessons
observed, the average lesson lasted 48.7 minutes, but
only .82 (less than a minute) was the average time on
off-task academic activities (Table X, p. 53). In grade
five language arts 508 lessons were observed, with an
average of .42 (less than half a minute) spent on off-
task academic activities. Crocker's study (1983b) con-
cluded, "Pupils spent relatively little time on tasks
other than those chosen by the teacher" (p. 56).

The teachers observed in these studies wanted to
teach, and anything which distracted students or teachers
from classroom instruction was viewed as counterproductive.
Since they saw the teacher as the essential catalyst,
they believed that such a view was acceptable.

Teachers prefer to teach in self-contained classrooms.
Uninterrupted teaching can best occur when the classroom
is self-contained, and teachers can shut their doors.
Lortie (1975) observed that teachers attached great
meaning to the boundaries which set their classrooms
off from the rest of the school, and wanted to preserve
them, "Walls are perceived as beneficial; they protect
and enhance the course of instruction. All but teachers
and students are outsiders. That definition conveys

an implicit belief that, on site, other adults have potential for hindrance but not for help" (p. 169). Various teachers quoted by Lortie expressed this point of view: a fourth grade teacher said, "It's a day when you really have the children to yourself. You accomplish a lot" (p. 169); a first-grade teacher agreed, "a good day for me...is a smooth day. A day when you can close the doors and do nothing but teach" (p. 169). Interruptions and distractions detract from the teaching task. The teachers studied felt that they needed "a time-bound but definite monopoly over students' attention and involvement" (p. 170). To function effectively, they wanted clearly defined boundaries, a self-contained classroom, and no interference from other adults.

This desire for what Lortie (1975) referred to as "boundedness" (p. 171) is undoubtedly linked to the teacher's notion of how learning occurs (the teacher as catalyst), the autonomy of the classroom, and the teacher's need to maintain control. It led Lortie (1975) to conclude that teachers want "a degree of boundedness around their classroom" (p. 201), they want more productive time with students, they perceive other adults as "intrusive and hindering" (p. 201). Yet, teachers are aware that they do need help from administrators, principals and parents, and that their status does not give them the

power to ignore these groups. Lortie's study (1975)
suggests that teachers seek a delicate balance with
those others involved in the classroom activities.
With parents, teachers want to determine the times and
conditions in which help is received.(With principals,
the relationship is more complicated. Their support
is necessary and teachers have to work out a relationship.
In many schools, the practice seems to be, "Granting
the principal hegemony over corridors and assemblies
and all other areas save their classrooms" (Lortie,
1975, p. 202). With colleagues the practice appears
to be that teachers want them to "stay out of their
affairs except when invited" (Lortie, 1975, p. 202).
The general rule seems to be that the teachers want
as much privacy as they can get while at the same time
receiving the help and support which they need.

Teachers obtain pride and satisfaction from their
teaching duties. Lortie (1975) concluded that for teachers,
the main regard is what he terms "Psychic rewards" (p. 101);
subjective rewards such as feelings of satisfaction
which come from their instructional outcomes and their
relationships with students. Seventy-six and one half
percent of the teachers he studied chose psychic rewards
as their major source of work satisfaction. In one
county he studied, 86.1% of the teachers selected as

their major source of work satisfaction the response:
"the times I have 'reached' a student or group of students
and they have learned" (p. 104). It was also clear
that these psychic rewards came from within the classroom.
There was little indication of teachers receiving satis-
faction outside their own classrooms. Lortie (1975)
concluded that the "teacher's work motivation will rotate
around the conduct of daily tasks--the actual instruction
of students" (p. 106).

Lortie (1975) examined the ways teachers tell that
learning has occurred. Essentially, they rely on testing
and observation of student behaviour in class. Sixty-five
percent of his sample indicated that tests were important
(p. 138). Tests included teacher-prepared tests, verbal
quizzes, student worksheets, and standardized tests.
A sixth grade teacher reported:

> Of course I test a great deal. In arithmetic,
> I test very often. I see each child work
> at the board every single day and then we
> have a test, if not every day, every other
> day so that I know what they can do. (p. 138)

Other teachers rely more on class observation, which
includes criteria such as class rapport, amount of work
covered compared with other classes, indications of
student interests, and questions asked in class. A
third grade teacher commented:

> You can tell...if you haven't got across what
> you're supposed to put across. You know where
> the other teachers are and what their children
> are doing and whether or not your children
> are ready for it. [Do you discuss this with
> other teachers?] Not too much. We don't
> get together and discuss it, but things come
> up in conversation and, of course, the children
> know too. "Miss So-and-So is doing such-and-
> such. Why aren't we?" Or, "We know this
> and they don't"; and the children will tell
> you. (Lortie, 1975, p. 140)

The studies reveal that teachers often have difficulty

in determining whether or not they have had some effect

on their students:

> You wonder at the end of a day or sometimes
> at the end of a lesson. I think that if you
> can occasionally...pick out one or two or
> hopefully more individuals and see the change,
> whether it is something they had difficulty
> with and now they understand. Even if it
> is only one child, I think you can get some
> accomplishment. (Lortie, 1975, p. 141)

The Importance of the Principal

Sarason (1982) stated, "We begin with the principal

because any kind of system change puts him or her in

the role of implementing the change in one's school"

(p. 140). By law the principal is responsible for "super-

vision over teaching, time-tables, examinations and

promotions, methods and general discipline pursued in

all the classes and over the conduct of all pupils in

his school" (The Schools Act, Revised Statutes of Newfound-
land, 1970, Chap. 346, Sec. 80(p), p. 4761). For some
the principal is the "key to educational change" (Tye,
1973, p. 25).

Many studies focus on the principal's role as a
leader who can establish a climate within the school
that will allow teachers the opportunity to perform
their tasks. Tye (1973), involved with John Goodlad
in the League of Schools project, found that schools
are more successful when the principal can create an
open climate that encourages and supports the teaching
staff. The open climate may be established through
building effective communications, preferably face-to-
face when possible, and also including listening to
what others need to say; settlement of conflicts which
may arise; involving teachers in decision making which
affects them, and supporting them at the district office
or in the community if necessary.

The working life of the teacher is very much influenced
by the principal. The principal has the final say in
the allocation of resources, which include money and
time, both of which are important to teachers. The
principal is also the liaison between the teachers and
students. Teachers may need the principal to fight
for funds or to defend school practices at the district

office: they may also need the principal to intercede
with parents and the community.

Goodlad (1984) found that teacher satisfaction
was greater in schools which exhibited strong leadership
by the principal. However he warned against simplistic
notions concerning the role of the principal. Taking
issue with the statement "everything depends on the
principal" (p. xvi), he argued:

> Good principals no doubt make a difference
> but perhaps not enough to overcome some of
> the negative effects of large school size,
> thoughtlessly prescribed curricula, restraints
> imposed through collective bargaining, warring
> factions in the school board, teacher shortages,
> and on and on. (p. xvi)

For Goodlad, good principals are important but the focus
must be on the entire school, "not just teachers or
principals or curricula or organization or school-community
relations but all of these and more" (p. xvi). His
point is that all are interconnected and to change any
one element is to affect the others. Emphasis must
be on the whole, the individual school.

Teachers, engaged in an individualistic, isolated
profession, have few who can recognize the value and
effectiveness of their work. The principal is undoubtedly
the one whose opinion matters immensely in the teacher's
daily work. Lortie (1975) quoted a fourth grade teacher:

"I don't have anyone criticize me. Like my principal, sometimes I wish she'd give me a compliment or a word or two on how I am accomplishing something" (p. 149). A physical education teacher also craved reassurance: "the principal never comes to see you or you never see some of the other teachers and you wonder, well, what do they think of you--are you doing a good job?" (p. 149).

Sarason (1982) reported that principals in his study recognized that their relationships with teachers occurred within the context of power and evaluation, hence they tried to minimize the negative consequences of the relationship by minimizing contact. Most principals are former teachers, and they respect the teacher's autonomy in the classroom. In Sarason's study, principals seldom visited classrooms. The average frequency of appearance of the principal in a-classroom during a two week period, was once or twice, and the length of the appearance varied from two to ten minutes. For some classrooms there were no visits at all. Seldom was there any discussion about the visit between principal and teacher.

Yet Sarason (1982) noted that principals feel a responsibility for the teaching in their schools. Principals, especially at first, want the school to reflect their conception of what a good school is. Principals'

are concerned with what is happening in the classroom, but find it difficult to provide leadership in the instructional process. As former teachers, principals are aware that teachers will not welcome classroom visitations.

Sarason's (1982) study reports on the activities of the Yale Psycho-Educational Clinic, whose members went into schools and, in cooperation with teachers, observed classroom activities. Principals were uncomfortable with clinic members working with teachers. When clinic members and teachers worked together and the result was some change in the teachers' procedures or practices, it appeared that principals felt threatened. Two principals were quoted as saying, "You are doing what I am supposed to be doing" (p. 157). It appears that many principals perceive their role to include that of instructional leader, even though this role may not be adequately fulfilled. Anyone who attempts to work with teachers, rather than students at the school level will have to work out a close relationship with the principal in order to remove the threat of conflict over roles.

The School Library

Studies of school libraries as they actually exist in practice are discouraging to those who envision a

school library program which mirrors the recent standards
and guidelines (see Chapter Two). Spring-Gifford (1983),
observing the situation in the province of Alberta,
reported:

> In some school divisions, teacher-librarians
> are being sent back to the classroom, often
> as relief teachers. In some school divisions,
> teacher-librarians are being replaced by library
> technicians and clerical staff. In some school
> divisions, teacher librarians were never there
> to be replaced. The picture is not always
> pleasant. (p. 2)

Inskip (1984) noted that in Alberta, in the previous
year, 100 schools had cut their teacher-librarian positions,
and 55% of the school libraries had clerks rather than
professional teacher-librarians in charge (p. 10).

In Newfoundland the picture is similarly bleak.
In 1983-84, 89% of teachers allocated to school libraries
were assigned to the library for less than half-time,
with 42% working less than 5% of their time at library
functions. In the whole province in 1983-84, only 30
teachers were allocated to the library for three quarters
to full time (Statistics Canada, 1985). The number
dropped by ten from the previous year, when 40 teachers
were working in libraries more than 75% of their time.

School libraries are obviously in trouble. Haycock
(1984b) summarized what the current position is:

> There is evidence of considerable cuts in school library positions and cuts in materials budgets, and the prospects for 1985 and 1986 appear even bleaker.
>
> There have also been a number of studies that show that the concept of the library as part of an instructional system responding to teacher and student needs, and even creating needs within that system, is perceived by relatively few school librarians and only dimly by most teachers and administrators. (p. 89)

Various studies have examined current problems which are facing the school library. The main problems are as follows:

School libraries are not part of the instructional program. Nordling (1978) observed that a partnership exists between the literature/reading teacher and the school librarian, but the teamwork disintegrates in the teaching of other subjects and research skills. She wrote:

> A deep chasm exists between the classroom and the library media centre. From elementary school on through the high school years, the classroom is separate, self-contained. The classroom seems not to need the school library for teaching and learning history or geography or science. Classroom sets of textbooks take the place of library use. Unlike the teaching of reading, where the school library makes the task easier for both teacher and student, teaching subject material through library use seems a laborious and uncertain task. (pp. 46-47)

The result has been that many school libraries do not contain material to support all the curriculum areas. Instead they serve those who use them the most, with collections geared to recreational reading.

Library periods are often schedules for the teaching of library skills. Nordling (1978) identified scheduled library class time as a major reason for the split between classroom and school library media center: "This insidious invention, used widely in elementary schools, sets the stage early for learning some misguided assumptions about the nature of library use" (p. 47). It begins when schools identify learning research skills as independent and isolated parts of the curriculum, and schedule library use as a separate subject to be taught by the librarian. Students eventually view library skills as just another subject, taught in a classroom which is the library. The skills they learn often are not related to their classroom work.

Scheduling is often arranged in order to provide free periods for the teacher (Nordling, 1978, p. 48; Haycock, 1984(b), p. 100; Bowman, 1981, p. 6). The result is that library periods become inflexible, scheduled for an entire class period, and without the presence of the teacher. Students, teachers and administrators

see the libraries as unrelated to classroom work, and hence not really important.

School librarians, where they do exist, are often not provided the help they need. In many schools, the school librarian may have no clerical help. Alberta Education (1984) recommended standards for the provision of library staff based on school enrolment (see Table 1). Many schools do not meet these standards, and most have no technical/clerical support at all.

Table 1

Standards for Staffing (Alberta)

School Size	Teacher-Librarian	Technical/Clerical Support
150 students	-	1/2
300 students	1/2	1/2 - 1
500 students	1.	1/2 - 1
750 students	1	1 1/2 - 2
1000 students	1	2
over 1000 students	1 1/2 - 2	2 1/2 - 3

(Alberta Education, 1984, p. 6)

The role of the school librarian (see Chapter Two) includes many responsibilities. Priority has to be placed on duties which keep the library functioning: reading book reviews and ordering books; administering budgets; maintaining circulation service; acting as reference librarian; processing new materials. It is not uncommon for overworked school librarians to concentrate on these tasks only, with no time available for working cooperatively with teachers to plan units, or to team teach with classroom teachers so that research skills are integrated into classroom assignments.

To avoid this some boards have centralized services. MacRae (1983) noted that the Calgary Board of Education has centralized services for materials selection, acquisition, cataloguing, processing, the loan of expensive and unique materials (films, models, realia, etc.) and the production of local materials. "Teacher-librarians should not be cataloguing books, processing audio-visual kits, or typing orders, as is still too frequently the case" (MacRae, 1983, p. 25). At the school level teacher-librarians should have time for their primary role-- to teach and work with teachers.

Teachers see the school librarian's role as being mainly clerical or technical. Not surprisingly, in light of the tasks school librarians perform, studies

have shown that classroom teachers do not perceive the school librarian's role as including curriculum development. Rainforth (1981) in a study of Nova Scotia secondary teachers, found that both principals and teachers expected the school librarian to perform many clerical duties which school librarians did not see as part of their job. "Teachers did not see a role for the librarian in being directly involved with curriculum development" (p. 89, 97).

Hambleton's findings (1979) were consistent with Rainforth's. She found that teachers did not accept the curriculum development role of the librarian, nor did they agree on the administrative role of the position. Review of the literature by Didier (1984) supported this finding. She found that many teachers have traditional role expectations for the school librarian, and they question the contribution which school librarians can make in team planning and other aspects of instructional development. Her study led her to conclude that "the curricular role of the library media specialist, however highly valued by the profession, can be determined or limited by the perceptions, expectations and knowledge of teachers and administrators" (p. 352).

School librarians tend to be confused over their role. Studies show that school librarians themselves

are very confused over what their role should be. Hambleton (1979) found little agreement among librarians about their role, and felt that they "are not prepared to communicate a definite role to principals and teachers" (p. 19). Teachers she sampled indicated that role conflict was a result of:

> Unclear guidelines, a realization that different groups serviced by librarians may operate quite differently, a too heavy work load, a lack of adequate resources or manpower, and the necessity of having to work on too many assignments at one time. (p. 19)

Pfister's study (1976) showed that school librarians in Texas preferred traditional roles such as selecting, acquiring, and organizing materials, rather than roles related to management functions. He concluded that the school librarians were "secure and comfortable in these traditional areas" (p. 34), and lacked confidence in the other areas.

Principals have a more professional view of the librarian's role. Surprisingly some of the studies show that principals have a more professional view of the librarian's role than teachers or school librarians themselves. Hambleton (1979) discovered this in her study of principals in Central Ontario, and concluded that principals may be expecting more of the school

librarian in the role of materials specialist, teacher and administrator than librarians assume (p. 19). Rainforth's study (1981) of Nova Scotia principals was in agreement with Hambleton's findings, but also found that principals "expected the librarians to perform many clerical aide duties which the librarians indicated were not part of their role " (p. 99). Pfister (1976) found that Texas principals see more opportunities for school librarians to assume responsibility than they themselves have undertaken. He concluded that school librarians are missing an opportunity to assume a larger role.

Pitts (1982) in a review of the literature noted that principals in schools with well-developed media programs were stronger in their support of library/ media programs than were their counterparts in schools with poorly developed programs. Differences in role expectations on the part of principals and school library media specialists may be caused by principals' ignorance of the potential of the media program. Hambleton's (1979) view is that teacher-librarians are so unsure of their role that they are not communicating effectively to principals. Principals appear to be ready to listen, but teacher-librarians themselves are not speaking with a strong, clear, professional voice.

The personality of the school librarian affects his or her performance. Hambleton (1979) found that "The majority of librarians scored high on cautiousness, emotional stability and responsibility and low on conflict scores" (p. 20) on a personality inventory she administered. She concluded that "School librarians with the potential for creative and innovative ideas may, in practice, be too cautious to implement these ideas" (p. 20).

Grazier (1979) reviewed research on the personality of school librarians and found that generally librarians with lower self-images spent more time on clerical tasks and less on reader service; that librarians identified as extroverted with diversified interests were more involved in curriculum work with teachers; and that librarians involved with successful library media programs tended to be extroverted, and involved in curriculum work.

Beswick (1977) noted the importance of the librarian's personality:

> A librarian must be able to show firm, out-
> going interest and competence, encouraging
> the trust of his clientele. The good librarian
> is sensitive to individual difference, omnivorously
> interested in all areas of knowledge and in
> all problems of access to it, politely at
> ease with people, able to assert authority
> when it is required, and to employ systematic
> thinking in relation to all aspects of his
> work. It is no job for a shy mouse, and some

of us have been sad to come across schools
which have preferred to appoint inexperienced
and nervous introverts rather than business-
like mature librarians with a clear idea of
their role. (pp. 79-80)

Summary

What happens in the school is not just the product
of careful planning. Rather, an array of social forces,
some of which are far removed from the local school,
have enormous influence. The political and economic
mood of the society itself sets a tone which will either
inhibit or facilitate change. The present mood of con-
servativism and restraint which has gripped the western
world following the economic recession means that the
climate is not right for innovation and change. Instead,
the public mood is one asking for accountability, and
schools feel they are progressing even if they can only
maintain the status quo.

For those in the school library media profession,
national associations have not provided the leadership
which would unite the profession so that the members
can speak with a clear voice. Instead, conflicts over
competencies and qualifications have tended to divide
the membership. For most teacher-librarians, provincial

associations which are part of their teachers' unions have provided the most meaningful professional support.

On the provincial level, most provinces have not provided strong leadership in communicating to the district, school or home what quality school library media programs should be. At the district level and at the school level, library media services may or may not be provided. There is no doubt that the support of principals and superintendents is important, but unfortunately there is little consensus on the role of the school librarian or the quality of school library services that ought to be provided. Even school librarians themselves cannot agree on what their role ought to be.

Schools operate so that students can learn. The literature reviewed shows that teaching, by and large, goes on beyond closed doors, that teaching is an isolated, individualistic activity, and that teachers would resist sharing their authority in curriculum and instruction areas in which they consider themselves autonomous.

It would be very easy to pessimistically conclude that the situation is hopeless, that the school library media centre is to remain on the periphery of instructional programming as a frill. However, a more optimistic view would indicate that research is slowly being accumulated which demonstrates that quality school library media

services do make a difference and can be provided. Arscott (1984) related the story of how one school did change, showing that success is possible. The standards of school library media services, described in Chapter Two, provide a vision of what education can be. This vision, the product of the collective thoughts of leaders in school librarianship and educational technology as they struggle with modern theories of curriculum and human learning, indicates how school library media programs can truly become a force for educational excellence.

THE PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

Introduction

The review of standards for school library media
services reveals that the changing needs of the curriculum,
and the changing conceptions of effective teaching and
learning have required new educational programs and
practices. Yet study after study has revealed that
the new educational programs, although adopted, are
seldom incorporated into regular teaching practices.
Comprehensive studies which support this fact have been
conducted by Sarason (1982), Goodlad (1983), Fullan
(1982), House (1974), Owens and Steinhoff (1976), Smith
and Keith (1971), and Mann (1978). House (1974) laments:
"How can so much effort directed toward changing the
schools produce so little change?" (p. 2). Or, as Sarason
(1982) so succinctly expresses it: "The more things
change, the more they remain the same" (p. 59).

These writings synthesize or summarize the considerable
amount of research which has been conducted in this
area in the past decade. As Fullan (1982) points out:

> Remarkably, it is only in the past twelve
> years (since about 1970) that we have come
> to understand how educational change works
> in practice. In the 1960s educators were
> busy developing and introducing reforms.
> In the 1970s they were busy failing at putting
> them into practice. Out of this rather costly
> endeavor (psychologically and financially)
> has come a strong base of evidence about how
> and why educational reform fails or succeeds.
> (p. 5)

Educational change implies a change in practice. This
has effects on individuals involved, particularly teachers.

The Personal Dimension of Change

Introduction

Change has become such a part of our daily lives
that most people tend not to carefully examine what
change really means to individuals. Marris (1975) sees
all real change as involving a struggle, leading to
anxiety, for "The will to adapt to change has to overcome
an impulse to restore the past" (p. 5). Marris' point
is that resistance to change is a fact of life, for
all humans have what he refers to as "the conservative
impulse" (p. 4), a tendency to assimilate the present
reality in previous experience. This conservative impulse
is necessary in order to give meaning to past experiences
and to make sense of the present. Events only become
meaningful when they can be fitted into the frame of

meaningful when they can be fitted into the frame of reference which past experiences have provided.

Marris' frame of reference is very similar to Ausubel's (1968) idea of cognitive structures. New ideas are anchored to established structures which are, in turn, modified. Marris' view is that with age and experience "the structures become more and more difficult to revise, by virtue of their very success" (p. 10). In fact, he claims, anything which threatens to invalidate those conceptional structures of interpretation is very disruptive.

Principles for the Management of Change

This being the case, Marris proposes three principles for the management of change:

> First, the process of reform must always expect and even encourage conflict. Whenever people are confronted with change, they need the opportunity to react, to articulate their ambivalent feelings and work out their own sense of it. Second, the process must respect the autonomy of different kinds of experience, so that different groups of people can organize without the intrusion of alien conceptions. Third, there must be time and patience because the conflicts involve not only the accommodation of diverse interests but the realisation of an essential continuity in the structure of meaning. (p. 156)

These three principles fit together as individuals go through a "crisis of reintegration" (p. 10), as new ideas are reconciled with past experience. Marris'

claim is that this period of reintegration is necessary
in order for the individual to find meaning in the new.
It is a stage which can "neither be escaped, nor resolved
by anyone on behalf of another, nor hurried" (p. 156).

These principles are seldom recognized when educational
reforms are being introduced. Individual teachers who
resist the intended changes are often regarded as ignorant
and reactionary, as impatient change agents attempt
to rush reforms into practice. Marris' point is that
the teachers who are expected to put educational reforms
into practice must first find meaning in the intended
changes. Reformers need to listen to teachers, as well
as explain to them. Reforms have to be adapted to fit
the needs of the particular individual involved.

Mann (1978) pointed out that those who are being
asked to change a teaching practice, usually teachers,
often disagree about the necessity for change. As pro-
fessionals, usually dedicated to their teaching, their
current practices often represent their best efforts.
They are unlikely to agree on the need for change.
Values are at stake, and they go to the "heart of the
professional's work in schools" (p. xiii). Mann (1978)
explained, "The people who are to change or be changed
get quite heated when it is suggested that their current
best efforts are lousy and that therefore they should

leap enthusiastically on the great bandwagon of change"
(p. xvii). His conclusion is that teachers often remain
unconvinced about the purposes of most proposed changes.
In the absence of convincing proofs, they resist the
change. This view of teachers, who have their own interests
to protect, makes it understandable why many will resist
introducing new ideas into their own teaching practice,
especially if the values from other levels of the system
(the school superintendent, the principal, the central
office staff) are not clearly discernible.

Rewards for Change

Marris (1975), House (1974), and Fullan (1982)
emphasize that to expect teachers to change their beliefs
and methods is demanding a great deal. Marris (1975)
commented:

> Suppose, for instance, that the changes involve
> ...the teaching in a school system. Everyone
> in the organisation has come to understand
> his or her job--the purposes it satisfies,
> its give and take, the loyalties and rivalries
> it implies--as a familiar pattern of relationships
> on which they rely to interpret the events
> of the working day. This definition of their
> occupational identity represents the accumulated
> wisdom of how to handle the job, derived from
> their own experience.... Change threatens
> to invalidate this experience. (p. 156-7)

House (1974), concerned with the same problem, feels
that rewards are few for teachers who attempt change:

The personal costs of trying new innovations
are often high, however, and seldom is there
any indication that innovations are worth
the investment. Innovations are acts of faith.
They require that one believe that they will
ultimately bear fruit and be worth the personal
investment, often without the hope of an immediate
return. Costs are also high.... The necessity
of relearning acts as a deterrent. New skills
make old skills obselete, and there comes
a time when it is no longer worth the effort
of learning new skills to master the innovation.
(p. 73)

Sarason (1982) feels that the failure of many reforms

has been caused by ignoring these facts, which he sees

as part of the culture of the school. Using the introduction

of new math as an example, he explains, "No one formulated

the problem as one requiring teachers to <u>unlearn and</u>

<u>learn</u>--to give up highly overlearned ways of thinking

at the same time that they were required to learn new

procedures and new ways of conceptualizing" (p. 53).

To do this, Sarason concludes, is to take into account

the important social and psychological dimensions of

the setting. In the past, such awareness was not present.

He sees change in the schools as affecting the social

relationships existing there, though changes being sought

rarely state that this will occur. Instead, intended

changes tend to have very general goals, leading to

what Fullan (1982) saw as two forms of non-change, "<u>false</u>

<u>clarity</u> without change, and <u>painful unclarity</u> without change" (p. 28).

False Clarity

The first non-change, false clarity, is described vividly by Goodlad, Klein, and Associates (1974), after close observation of sixty-seven schools in the United States:

> A very subjective but nonetheless general impression of those who gathered and those who studied the data was that some of the highly recommended and publicized innovations of the past decade or so were dimly conceived and, at best, partially implemented in the schools claiming them. The novel features seemed to be blunted in the effort to twist the innovation into familiar conceptual frames or established patterns of schooling. For example, team teaching more often than not was some pattern of departmentalization and nongrading looked to be a form of homogeneous grouping. (p. 72)

False clarity was so much a part of the perceptions of the teachers and principals that Goodlad and his staff noticed a great disparity between what teachers and principals said was happening in the schools and what the observers actually recorded as reality. Goodlad et al (1974) observe:

> A substantial number of principals and teachers perceived ongoing instruction to be characterized by some of our "reasonable expectations" when members of our staff did not. They claimed

> individualization of instruction, use of a
> wide range of instructional materials, a sense
> of purpose, group processes, and inductive
> or discovery methods when our records showed
> little or no evidence of them. (p. 73)

The problem is that people think they have incorporated
change into their teaching, but in actual fact, they
have only a superficial understanding of it. The intended
change, not being meaningful, has not been integrated
into the teachers' ways of doing things, into their
underlying philosophies. Instead the intended change
has been fitted into the old ways of doing things and
in the process has been distorted beyond recognition.

Painful Unclarity

The second form of non-change, referred to as "painful
unclarity" by Fullan (1982) occurs when unclear innovations
are attempted under conditions which do not support
them. Gross (1979) identifies the major circumstances
that influenced the outcomes of a change effort in an
urban elementary school. Through intensive daily obser-
vations and frequent interviews with the teaching and
administrative staff, he identified major barriers which
illustrate Fullan's concept of painful unclarity:

> Teachers were unclear about the new role;
> they lacked the skills required to perform
> it; essential instructional materials and
> professional services were unavailable; adjustments

in other aspects of the educational program required for implementation of the innovation were not made; teachers were exposed to role overload; and teacher motivation and support of the innovation steadily declined. (p. 23)

Part of the problem, according to Gross (1979) is that the director of the change effort held misconceptions about how changes are implemented. Basically he thought that the implementation plan consisted merely of sending teachers written documents explaining the philosophy and objectives of the intended change, giving them freedom to carry the plan out, and delegating responsibility to others to see that it was done (p. 23). This plan has obvious defects and leads to frustration and failure.

To avoid false clarity and painful unclarity, the effect of introducing change on individuals must be realized. Those planning a change in schools must be aware that "When people are asked or required to change, a part of them will resist changing, and if such resistance is then reacted to as incomprehensible human perversity, the level of hostility increases" (Sarason, 1982, p. 62).

Summary

It is clear that those introducing changes in the school system often have a simplistic notion of how change will occur. Owens and Steinhoff (1976) observed:

> Typically, problems of directing and controlling
> change in schools have been approached in
> a relatively unsystematic way. Faced with
> the need for some kind of change in the school's
> goals or the way in which it seeks to attain
> its goals, the administrator tends to proceed
> more or less intuitively and falls back on
> common sense and his own experience. The
> results generally have been less than spectacular.
> (p. 8)

Gross (1979) also found that those managing educational
change are seldom prepared for this role, relying heavily
on intuition and "common sense":

> Their decisions tend to be ad hoc in nature,
> uninformed by systematic analysis of problems,
> and made without reference to an overall change
> strategy. They soon discover, however, that
> many of their assumptions about educational
> change and its management are simplistic,
> misleading and dysfunctional. (p. 20)

The literature on the personal dimension of change
suggests that teachers (and most individuals) will resist
change. For teachers there is often great personal
and professional risk but little reward for attempting
something new. Failure by those introducing change
to take into account the need for teachers to accommodate
new ideas into their present conceptual structures,
a process which requires time and patience, has led
to hostility and frustration on the part of teachers
and those planning to implement change. It has also
led to what Fullan (1982) has called "false clarity"

and "painful unclarity". In both cases, the intended change does not occur. It is obvious that the educational change process needs to be closely studied.

Educational Change Defined

Dimensions of Change

Fullan (1982), in attempting to define educational change, draws on a considerable number of studies to conclude that it is not a single entity, but has at least three dimensions. The implementation of any educational change will involve:

1. The possible use of new or revised materials (direct instructional resources such as curriculum materials or technologies).

2. The possible use of new teaching approaches (i.e., new teaching strategies or activities).

3. The possible alteration of beliefs (i.e., pedagogical assumptions and theories underlying particular new policies or programs).

A proposed change may require changing in one, two or all of these dimensions. A common complaint is that teachers may use new materials and change some teaching behaviour, but not understand the concept behind the

change, and therefore not alter their beliefs, leading
to what has already been discussed as false clarity.

To implement a school library media program into
a school is a good example of how the three dimensions
of change might all be involved. Partners in Action
(Ontario, 1982) is a curriculum guide which clearly
incorporates a plan to change teaching materials, strategies,
and beliefs. The philosophy (or beliefs) behind such
a plan is clearly stated:

> Recognizing the diversity of individual abilities
> and interests, the Ministry views the learner
> as an active participant in education who
> gains satisfaction from the dynamics of learn-
> ing.... Teaching and learning are based on
> a process of continual interaction in which
> teacher and child are partners. (p. 6)

Teaching approaches are also clearly described and they
require cooperative planning and team teaching between
the school librarian and the classroom teacher, utilizing
different teaching strategies. Curriculum materials
and resources are important, and such a change would
require the use of many resources in various formats
rather than reliance on a single textbook. All three
dimensions would be interrelated in this change.

Surface Content and Deep Structure

Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel (1976), in their exploration of teachers' beliefs and thinking, made a distinction between what they called "surface content" and "deep structure". The former, surface content, focused on what was going on in the classroom, the perceptible form of the curriculum. The latter, deep structure, or the organizing content of curriculum, referred to the underlying philosophy and learning priorities. Their study indicated that some teachers operated on the level of surface content, were interested in materials, activities, and in seeing that students were kept busy, but did not understand the underlying purpose for the activities. Teachers who developed a deeper understanding of the principles involved in their classroom activities were seen as being more capable in transforming educational goals into meaningful learning experiences.

Fullan (1982) and Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel (1976) make the same point, that it is possible to change "on the surface", supporting certain aims, using specific resources and teaching strategies, without really understanding the underlying philosophy of the new concept.

Summary

Fullan's research has led him to conclude that anyone proposing an educational change in the schools must consider all three dimensions of change. If a change involves only a change of materials and resources it is the easiest to implement. A change that requires new teaching approaches using new materials will be more difficult, particularly if new skills must be acquired. The most difficult to implement is a change that requires a change in beliefs. The effects on the individual when core values are challenged can be traumatic. Often teachers' beliefs are not explicit, but rather they exist as unstated assumptions. As the studies have shown, individuals have to change their beliefs in order for real change and personal growth to occur. The change with which this study is concerned, introducing a school library media program into schools where none presently exists, requires more than the use of learning resources and getting teachers to use the library. What it means is getting teachers to change the way they teach and to adopt new strategies such as team teaching and cooperative planning with a colleague. It requires a new philosophy of how learning takes place, and how teaching can be most effective. This is a difficult change to undertake for it involves changing core values held by many teachers

and administrators, and may threaten their identity
as professionals.

Educational Change as a Process

Most studies identify three broad phases in the
change process. The first phase, usually called adoption
(Fullan, 1982), or mobilization (Berman & McLaughlin,
1978), consists of the events and activities which lead
to a decision to adopt a change. Phase II, referred
to as implementation, is concerned with the attempt
to put an idea or program into practice. Phase III,
referred to as continuation (Fullan, 1982) or institution-
alization (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978) is concerned with
how the change becomes part of the ongoing routine of
the school or disappears, either by intent or through
neglect.

Considered in this manner it becomes apparent that
change is a process, not an event. Although each phase
will be considered separately it must be realized that
the phases are interwoven. Decisions made at each phase
can influence the others. For example, a decision made
at the adoption phase may be modified during the imple-
mentation phase and may determine the final phase.
As well each phase has numerous factors which overlap

and influence each other. Also important is the total
time perspective. Time will vary considerably, but
Fullan (1982) suggests that the total time from adoption
to institutionalization is lengthy. He predicts from
three to five years for even moderately complex changes.
All studies indicate that change of any magnitude is
slow.

The Rand Study (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978) is generally
accepted as the most ambitious attempt to study efforts
at educational change. The results, which appear in
eight volumes, report on a four-year study of nearly
three hundred change efforts attempted in schools in
eighteen states. The conclusions of the study have
generally been accepted and used by other prominent
researchers in this field, including Sarason (1982);
Fullan (1982); Mann (1978); Neale, Bailey and Ross (1981);
and Gross (1979). The study also supports the findings
of an earlier study by House (1974).

Berman and McLaughlin (1978), in their summary
of the Rand study, describe the three phases which charac-
terize the change process. They explain:

> Within each phase, an innovation could follow
> different paths (i.e., processes) depending
> on local choices, concerns, and characteristics.
> These paths are of more than academic interest.
> Some paths typify projects with desirable
> outcomes--namely, effective implementation

and long-term continuation--and other paths
characterize ineffective or short-lived projects.
It is, therefore, important to policy to describe
these paths and to examine the conditions
leading to them. (p. 13)

Adoption Phase

Berman (1981) in defining the adoption phase, chose
to use the word "mobilization" (p. 266) rather than
adoption, because he wished to emphasize that for most
changes or innovations there is no simple or single
decision. Instead this phase is seen as a political
process involving conflict and power struggles within
the school system.

Why Schools Adopt Innovations

The assumption by many who attempt to change present
practices in the school is that the school, as a rational
organization constantly seeking for ways to improve,
will adopt innovations in order to solve educational
problems. The Rand Study (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978)
has not found this to be the case. Instead, it stated,
"Above all, the process did not consist of a "rational"
weighing of alternative educational treatments. Instead,
it consisted of a complex interplay among organizational
forces, political pressures, personal motivations, and
educational concerns" (p. 14). House (1974) in an earlier

study reached the same conclusion. He stresses the fact that any program change, even if it is an improvement, will mean encroachment upon the old rights of others. If a change is significant it means reallocation of resources, which then leads to conflict, for the school district consists of groups of people with different goals. He concluded:

> Only small-scale changes elude such conflict. The process of change is essentially a social and political one involving competition for resources among groups within a district, and conflict is inevitable and necessary. This view is quite different than that of the school district as a unified, rational, problem-solving entity. (p. 52)

Sarason (1982) is in complete agreement. His point is that the school culture is political, as those involved wrestle with the use of power. He wrote:

> Introducing, sustaining, and assessing an educational change are political processes because they inevitably alter or threaten to alter existing power relationships, especially if that process implies, as it almost always does, a reallocation of resources. Few myths have been as resistant to change as that which assumes that the culture of the school is a non-political one, and few myths have contributed so much to failure of the change effort. (p. 71)

Berman (1981) reemphasizes this point, citing research by himself and others to refute the assumption that

"perceived problems--economic, political, bureaucratic, or educational--generate solutions in the form of the adoption of innovations" (p. 268). Instead, his research has revealed that often "innovative ideas may 'search' for problems to justify their adoption" (p. 268).

The process of adopting a new idea, or introducing change into the school, is a complex process, much less rational than most educators think. The Rand Study (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978, p. 15) identifies four patterns of support for the adoption of innovations:

Opportunism. Many of the changes can be seen as opportunistic, undertaken for reasons unrelated to the educational needs of the district. Such changes are responses to political pressure, or a way to take advantage of grants or other special funds, but such changes "were invariably ancillary to the district's main educational priorities; they fulfilled their purpose simply by virtue of their adoption" (p. 15). Such changes are not usually well planned, instead no change in practice is anticipated. In reality there is no support for the innovation.

Top-down support. This is seen when district office staff genuinely attempts to improve educational practice but does so without involving the school staffs. Such attempts are "generally met with indifference or resistance at the school level" (p. 15).

Localized support. This attempt to change develops
at the school level, without support from the district
office. Attempts such as this are seen as "isolated
change efforts" (p. 15). The real problem for those
changes comes later, if district offices are expected
to allocate resources (either financial or personnel)
for continuation.

Broad-based support.. This is the ideal situation
in which all levels of the district will back a proposed
change. In this case, it is seen as "addressing a central
educational need of the district" (p. 15), and attempts
have been made to generate support from all those affected
by the change. Changes introduced in this context are
perceived as "a district initiative, not simply 'something
teachers wanted to do' or the superintendent's 'pet
project'" (p. 15).

Those who study the sources of educational innovation
have discovered that most come from outside the school
system, from demands for change from parents, citizens
or professional groups, or from other governmental agencies
[House (1974); Fullan (1982); Hawley (1978); Sarason
(1982)]. Hawley (1978), realizing this but also aware
that few of these intended changes ever are put into
classroom practice, concluded: "Innovation, I suggest,
is often symbolic politics" (p. 226). His view is that

the adoption and apparent implementation of new programs
can create the impression that government is taking
action, and that improvements are taking place in the
schools. This eliminates the pressure for change.
In reality, the change will never be given the support
needed to be implemented, an example of what has been
discussed as opportunistic support.

House (1974) looks at the role of the superintendent
in introducing new programs and ideas into the school
district. Seeing a new superintendent as an "educational
entrepreneur" (p. 37), he gives the profile of an ambitious
person, intent on establishing a career. His study
shows that "the career-bound superintendent's future
depends on establishing a reputation among his peers,
so he is inclined to change something" (p. 42). He
notes that the largest number of innovations are adopted
in the first three years of a career-bound superintendent's
tenure of office. After that, the system will tend
to stablize and fewer changes are introduced.

Pincus (1974) raises interesting ideas on why and
how school systems adopt innovations. After a comprehensive
study of educational change for the Rand Corporation
and examination of numerous other works in this area,
he concludes that three factors seem favorable to innovations
in the schools. They include:

1. __Bureaucratic safety__—When the innovation
   is perceived as favorable with respect
   to the current status and organization
   of the bureaucracy....

2. __Response to External Pressure__—When external
   pressures for innovation are perceived
   as irresistible (because school systems
   cannot be entirely unresponsive to external
   pressures and financial constraints)

3. __Approval of Peer Elite__—When key figures
   in the bureaucracy and their colleagues
   in other educational bureaucracies can
   agree about the acceptability of the
   innovation (because in the absence of
   clearly defined output criteria, consensus
   among the elite is often the primary
   decision-making criterion). (p. 120)

This being the case he feels that schools will voluntarily

adopt innovations which promote the school's self-image

by demonstrating that the schools are up-to-date, efficient,

professional and responsive. This means that the reforms

will include such changes as:

1. new buildings;

2. new curricula as long as it does not change
   the organizational structure;

3. new equipment, especially electronic-data
   processing;

4. new curricula that has been promoted or endorsed
   by the educational leadership;

5. liaison with groups, such as parents;

6. programs for groups with special needs or
   interests;

The current interest in microcomputers provides an example
of this need to appear up-to-date and efficient; the
movement towards French immersion is an example of the
adoption of a new program in order to appear responsive
to the needs of the public. The adoption of New Mathematics
in the seventies is a classic example of the school
adopting a new program in order to appear professional.
Subsequent work by Sarason (1982) has shown that many
teachers did not see the need for the new program, were
totally intimidated by the way the program was introduced,
and inserviced, and never properly implemented it.
Sarason used the new mathematics program as an example
of how not to introduce change into the school system.

Summary

Innovations that are widely adopted are generally
favored by the educational elite and present no major
bureaucratic or social problems. Those wishing to have
changes adopted and successfully implemented will need
to work closely with superintendents and board office
personnel in order to obtain a broad base of support.
Other important groups, such as government or professional

groups, can be important in establishing the legitimacy of the innovation.

The literature on the adoption phase agrees on the lack of input at this stage from teachers. House (1974) expresses the usual position of the teacher at this stage:

> The teacher's position is isolated, information is controlled, selection for projects is dictated, and resources are allocated by others. Much of the initiative in a school is in the hands of the administrative staff. For good or ill, the overall effect is to inhibit innovation. (p. 70)

Implementation Phase

Implementation, the second phase of the change process, involves the translation of theory into practice, with the emphasis on actual practice rather than assumed use. Whereas the administrators are the chief participants in the first phase, the ones who are to change are the chief participants in this phase. For educational change involving classroom practices the classroom teachers are those mainly involved, and in this phase their acceptance or rejection of the new ideas determines the fate of the intended practice. Mann (1978) wrote:

> With hindsight it is easy to see that designing and disseminating change is not implementing

> change. What happens inside the school, at
> the service delivery level, is absolutely
> related to our success or failure, yet the
> gap in our knowledge about implementing change
> in the schools is formidable. (p. xi)

Formidable though the information gap may be, much has

been learned about this phase of the change process.

One thing known is that it is complex, for people are

involved and their values are affected. Fullan (1982)

recommends that we constantly remind ourselves that

"educational change is a learning experience for the

adults involved...as well as for the children" (p. 55).

Being cognizant of this will aid in understanding the

forces at work.

Berman (1981) in describing this phase notes that

successful implementation is a very delicate affair,

a fragile mixture of people, events and ideas "at the

right times in the right places" (p. 270). If just

one of these elements changes the chances of success

are diminished. He concludes: "there are many ways

to fail and few ways to succeed" (p. 270).

The implementation phase is recognized as the most

crucial. Its importance has been emphasized by many

studies. Sarason (1982) expressed it well:

> You can have the most creative, compellingly
> valid, educationally productive idea in the
> world, but whether it can become embedded

and sustained in a socially complex setting
will be primarily a function of how you con-
ceptualize the implementation change process.
(p. 78)

Models of Implementation

Berman (1981) identifies three models of implementation
which he feels represent the ways the implementation
phase is conceptualized:

The managerial model. This is a model commonly
found in the educational administration literature.
Implementation is seen as a process where leadership
must be provided to overcome resistance to change.
This support might mean providing funds, engendering
community support, providing support for the change
at school or district level, or providing inservice.
This model stresses the responsibilities of the management
group to clarify the concept, provide training opportunities,
provide materials and equipment required, create a suitable
environment for the change, and motivate those affected.
This model focuses sharply on the role of the principal,
district office staff and the superintendent. Gross
(1979) is a good example of a researcher with this per-
spective.

The learning model. Fullan (1982) is an excellent
example of one holding this view, for he sees change
as primarily that of individuals learning new behaviour.

The organization, the school or the district has to learn to change its structure to accommodate new behaviours. Sarason (   ) is another leading researcher using this approach. In discussing effective implementation strategies he views the process as one "by which the project is adapted to the reality of its institutional setting, while at the same time teachers and school officials adapt their practices in response to the project" (p. 76).

The bargaining model. Implementation is viewed as a conflictual process in which various groups struggle with what is to be done and how. This bargaining occurs at all levels, provincial and district, district and school, school and community, and groups within the school. House (1974) is a leading researcher holding this view. He stated, "The process of change is essentially a social and political one...conflict is inevitable and necessary" (p. 52).

The Social Interaction (S-I) orientation. These three models can also be grouped as an approach which Havelock (1973) calls the Social Interaction (S-I) orientation, for all place emphasis on the interactions within the social system affected by the change. With such approaches Havelock sees the role of the change agent as important. Strategies employed in implementation include the identification of key leaders and circles

of influence within the social system. Also important
is the idea of network building, emphasized by House
(1974) with his emphasis on the importance of personal
contact, the influence of "educational entrepreneurs"
and advocacy groups.

The Problem-Solving (P-S) Strategic orientation.
Also identified by Havelock (1973), this approach sees
changes or improvements as part of a problem-solving
process. The normal process is that the user will feel
a need, which is translated into a problem diagnosis.
Then there follows a search and retrieval of ideas and
information which is satisfied by the formulation and
selection of a solution. The user then adopts the inno-
vation, tries it out, and evaluates its effectiveness
in satisfying the original need.

The problems associated with this approach have
been discussed earlier. Desirable as this rational
approach seems, many studies (particularly the Rand
Study) show that actual implementation seldom follows
this logical process. It is worth noting however that
the Rand Study did find that the most successful changes
were those that were felt by teachers and administrators
to be solutions to educational problems.

The Research, Development and Diffusion (RD&D)
approach. Havelock (1973) also identified this approach

which is based on the idea of a rational sequence of events involved in implementation. The ordinary sequence would include: research; development of the idea into a product; packaging of the product in an appropriate format; and dissemination. This model has been criticized for the relatively passive role of the potential user, evident in the "packaged" curricula, supposedly "teacher proof", which arose in the 1960's. Owens and Steinhoff (1976) observe that such an approach led to implementation problems as school administrators struggled to coordinate the tightly structured products into schools with vastly different settings.

One important strategy used in this approach is that of experimental demonstration, with a demonstration model or demonstration site where the particular innovation can be viewed in operation. The demonstration is designed to show the innovation in its purest form, under ideal circumstances. The Knapp School Libraries Project (Sullivan, 1968), which introduced the modern concept of a school library to thousands of visitors, is a good example of effective use of this strategy.

It must be realized of course that these models or approaches tend to overlap each other. In essence what they do is direct or focus attention on different aspects of implementation. The complexity of the process

is such that all views are necessary to gain insights into the meaning of educational change. As Berman (1981) concluded, "it seems unlikely that only one model can capture the multiplicity of events and activities characteristic of implementation" (p. 271).

Regardless of models or approaches used, the studies show various factors which affect implementation. Fullan (1982) and Fullan and Park (1981), after a comprehensive research of the literature, classified them into four main categories: characteristics of the change itself; characteristics at the district level; characteristics at the school level; factors external to the school system.

Characteristics of the Change Itself

Certain characteristics of the change itself will affect implementation. If teachers do not see any real need for the change, or if there is no clear discrepancy between what exists in practice and what ought to be, then the chances of successful implementation are slim. It is also necessary that the change be understood. If the goals and objectives are vague and general, teachers may not know what is expected of them. Yet the change cannot be too specific, for it must be capable of being

adapted to suit the particular needs of the teacher and the learners involved.

The complexity of the proposed change raises an interesting observation. Studies have shown that the more complex a change is, the more difficult it is to implement. However, studies have also shown that the more complex changes, requiring more effort from teachers, are more likely to be implemented. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) saw it as "Little ventured, nothing gained" (p. 25). They concluded that teachers became committed to larger changes partly because they appealed to their sense of professionalism. Such changes had the potential for large rewards, enabling teachers to improve their teaching and thereby benefit their students.

Characteristics at the District Level

The setting is a very important influence on whether or not change attempts will be successfully implemented. The same new programs will often work well in one district but not in another. School districts have been shown to be influenced by various factors, an important one being their past history of adopting changes. The more teachers have had negative experiences in introducing innovations, the less motivated they will be to try-

a new change, regardless of the merit of the new program or idea.

The reasons for adopting changes are an important factor in implementation. If programs are adopted for opportunistic reasons, inadequate planning will discourage any teachers from attempting to put the idea into practice. The research shows that teachers do not necessarily have to be involved in the planning, but they do need clear evidence from the district staff that this change is to be taken seriously. Superintendents and board office personnel help create an environment for change by taking an active interest in what is happening in the schools and by providing the support necessary for implementation. One important support is to provide the opportunity for teachers to learn through effective preservice or inservice sessions. Teachers need continuous support during the implementation phase, through specific training activities, ongoing assistance from consultants, and frequent contact with peers. To implement any program into classroom practice will require that teachers constantly make decisions related to implementation problems. To do so requires time, and numerous studies stress the need to permit sufficient time for teachers to work through the implementation phase. 'Impatience has led to unrealistic time-lines, often leading to frustration

and failure. Frequently the problem is that central
office staff, having worked through the adoption phase,
tend to overlook the complexities of the implementation
phase.

The geographical location of school boards has
been shown to influence the implementation of new ideas,
with rural boards often not having access to the information
or assistance needed to implement innovations. In addition,
community factors may hinder or facilitate implementation.
An urban community with high socio-economic status will
bring different social forces to bear on an intended
change than a community which might be rural and of
lower socio-economic status. The introduction of micro-
computers for student use in the schools is a good example.
In urban areas, students have access to private computer
lessons and are more likely to have computers in their
homes. Implementation of such a program would have
greater chances of success in such an area than it would
in a poor rural area where microcomputers are few.

Characteristics at the School Level

Even within school districts some schools will
implement innovations more successfully than others.
Goodlad (1984) after conducting many studies within
schools sees "the school as the unit for improvement"

(p. 31). Most studies agree with Goodlad and identify the importance of three main factors which will influence implementation. The importance of the principal is stressed, with the role being not as much one in which the principal can be the expert as in giving moral support to the teachers and creating the climate that will support the innovation. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) concluded, "All told, the principal amply merits the title of 'gate-keeper of change'" (p. viii).

The relationship existing between teachers also will affect the success of implementation. To learn new skills and acquire new meanings, teachers need to interact with each other. To maintain high morale, a feeling of trust and support needs to be evident. If teachers in a school have the opportunity to assist each other as problems develop in the implementation process, then change in practice will more likely occur. Above all, the studies show that teachers have to believe that they can improve student learning before they suc-cessfully implement improvements.

It has been observed that change becomes more difficult to implement and continue at the secondary level, and that the number of years teaching experience has negative effects. Berman and McLaughlin (1978) found that the longer a teacher had taught the less likely he or she

was to implement the project. Experienced teachers were less likely to change their own practices and less likely to continue with innovations: They noticed in particular that a powerful motivation for teachers to adopt innovation was what they called the teachers' sense of efficacy, or their belief that they could help students.

Factors External to the School System

In Canada, a major factor affecting the implementation of change is the influence of the provincial departments of education. Many new programs and curriculum ideas are presented at the provincial level, and how this is done has profound effects on implementation. If new courses or curriculum guidelines are produced for implementation in too short a time, with little support provided, the chances for successful implementation are shown to be slim. Government legislation and regulations, as well as curriculum directives and guidelines, need to provide clear policy and objectives if change is to occur. Support must also be provided for the difficult task of implementation, with resources allocated to establish professional development opportunities and to assess the impact of potential changes.

The federal government in Canada has limited influence
in elementary and secondary education. However, their
past record of funding programs in vocational education,
of building modern schools (known as DREE schools),
and, more recently, of funding French-Immersion education,
has revealed that often they do not consider the impact
that federal funding in only select areas will have
on other local factors. Studies show that school districts
will gladly adopt almost any new project in order to
obtain federal or external funding. However, the studies
also show that implementation may be rarely successful
and that local conditions must always be considered.

Continuation Phase

Continuation, or as it is also called, institution-
alization, the final phase in the change process, is
the stage when the change is no longer considered an
innovation, but becomes an accepted part of the regular
school operation, or is rejected. During implementation
the action moved to classrooms, with teachers being(1978)
key decision-makers in deciding whether or not the change
in theory became change in teaching practice. The decision
to continue (or reject) ultimately moves back to the
district office, where it began in the adoption phase.

Once more the decision becomes not as much a rational decision-making exercise but one subjected to organizational and political concerns.

Berman and McLaughlin (1978) observe that even continued projects are vulnerable to financial, political and personnel problems. They concluded that:

> To be secure project practices had to be used regularly by teachers, become identified as part of the standard district educational repertoire, and receive the necessary district budget, personnel, service, and facility support to become integral elements of district operations. Only when these requisites were met did a change agent project lose its special status and become institutionalized. (p. 19)

Havelock (1973) sees six considerations for ensuring continuation. First, the user must feel that the innovation is working. Either it will pay off directly in improved performance, or indirectly in winning the approval of others. Second, the innovation must become a routine part of the everyday way of doing things, something done automatically without extra effort. This requires time and practice. Third, the innovations that survive become integrated into the existing structure. Provision is made for funding, personnel and maintenance. Fourth, the innovation is constantly evaluated and re-evaluated. This ensures against loss of quality in program implementation, and as well reminds users that the innovation

is still important. Fifth, there must be a support
system to help maintain the program; to help if things
begin to go wrong. Sixth, the innovation must continually
be adapted to meet changing needs.

Berman and McLaughlin (1978) feel that the organiza-
tional structure of school districts creates a difficulty
for this particular phase. It is quite possible for
boards to adopt a policy that the schools pay only lip-
service to, and it is also possible for schools to use
practices no longer favored by district policy. They
maintain that a change can only be institutionalized
when both levels of the school system continue to support
the practice.

In examining the fate of various projects they
saw four paths which were generally followed:

Discontinuation. Occurs when both school and district
office decide not to continue the innovation. This
is either done with an explicit decision to drop the
project, or it will just die due to neglect. Watson
and Glaser (1965) described the latter condition:

> Many an innovation brought in with great fanfare
> is superficially accepted, and months or years
> later, things have drifted back to the way
> they were before. Nobody may, have openly
> resisted the change. Nobody revoked it.
> It just didn't last. (p. 46)

   Isolated continuation. Occurs when individual schools continue with the innovation in isolation from other schools; this usually occurs when the innovation is not adequately supported by the district office. It has been shown that without support from the district office, these isolated schools are likely to suffer financial, personnel or political difficulties in continuing the innovation. As Berman and McLaughlin (1978) point out, they "are quite vulnerable to staff turnover and principal transfers" (p. 28). For program innovations requiring special funding or teacher allocation, without district support there is no security for continuation.

   Pro forma continuation. Occurs when the innovation has been adopted by the district office as official policy, but teachers have not put the innovation into practice. It may be the case of false clarity, where teachers and schools appear to be using the innovation but in actual fact no change has taken place at all. Often district officials may be aware of what is happening but since the innovation was adopted purely for opportunistic purposes, they are content to let matters stay as they are. The mere existence of the policy may serve the purpose of creating a progressive image for the board, or help to decrease pressure for change from outside agencies.

Institutionalized change. Occurs when the innovation becomes an integral part of the school's and district's way of operating. Berman and Mclaughlin (1978) note that only a small proportion of projects become institutionalized. An important difference with these projects is that their eventual continuation was planned right from the adoption stage. They also received broad-based support from adoption to continuation. After special funding for such projects was discontinued, Berman and McLaughlin (1978) observed that:

> Mobilization efforts were increased to pave the way for the project's transition from its special status to its incorporation into key areas of district operations: the budget, personnel assignment, curriculum support activities, and the instructional program. In short, the groundwork and planning for sustaining a change agent project had the early, active, and continued attention of school district managers. (p. 20)

Whichever path a project follows becomes obvious during adoption and implementation. Projects adopted for political or social reasons lack the support of the district staff and the teachers, are poorly implemented or not implemented at all, and are discontinued if resources are required to maintain them. These innovations are doomed for failure from the start.

The studies show that district office staff must be committed to the change from the adoption stage. Successful projects or innovations have broad-based support and are adopted to meet the needs of ~~teachers~~ and the particular school. There is a commitment to the new idea so that it becomes meaningful to the users, and an integral part of the organization's way of doing things.

Staff Development

Lortie (1975), in his discussion of change in the schools, expresses a view which has reappeared throughout the literature on educational change and the studies on schools. In reference to the revolutionary new ideas which have been suggested as alternatives to the traditional approaches to schooling, he concluded:

> ... it is risky to jump to the conclusion that the aforementioned revolution has taken place. It seems that some of the announcements of the death of the old order are premature; like Tom Sawyer, the deceased has a way of showing up at the funeral. (p. 217)

For Lortie, what does exist is not as much actual change in practice but the possibility for greater differences in school practice. Yet the variations do not occur, as his work and Goodlad's (1984) latest work confirm.

> If there has been a revolution, I suspect
> it has occurred in people's expectations for
> schools, not in practice; the gap between
> the possible and the actual has become an
> issue. That issue is likely to grow in importance
> in the years ahead. (p. 218)

Bridging the gap between the possible and the actual

is a difficult task. It requires knowledge not only

of the school setting and the curriculum but also of

how adults learn.

The Teacher as Learner

The literature on educational change discussed

earlier, in particular the literature on the personal

dimensions of change, reflects that for professionals

to learn new ways (particularly if it means discarding

the old ways of doing things) is often a painful process.

Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) concur with this

view in their discussion of an instructional model for

professional growth. Drawing on the growing body of

theory on cognitive development (from theorists such

as Piaget, Kohlberg, Loevinger) they provide a cognitive

developmental framework which has potential for staff

development. This framework is based on the following

assumptions:

1.   All humans process experience through cognitive

structures called stages--Piaget's concept
of schemata.

2. Such cognitive structures are organized in
a hierarchical sequence of stages from the
less complex.

3. Growth occurs first within a particular stage
and then only to the next stage in the sequence.
This latter change is a qualitative shift--
a major quantum leap to a significantly more
complex system of processing experience.

4. Growth is neither automatic nor unilateral
but occurs only with appropriate interaction
between the human and the environment.

5. Behavior can be determined and predicted by
an individual's particular stage of development.
Predictions, however, are not exact. (p. 16)

Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall's (1983) aim is to provide
professional development which starts where the learner
is and then provides the experiences necessary to stimulate
growth to the next highest stage of development.

Although their studies on the effectiveness of
this approach is in early stages, the findings are en-
couraging (p. 27). They offer tentative guidelines
as a means of illustrating important components which
would be part of such an approach:

1. <u>Teachers should be involved in significant</u> <u>role-taking experiences</u>. This is necessary because "growth toward more complex levels of cognitive-developmental functioning appears to be somewhat influenced by placing persons in <u>significant role-taking experiences</u>" (p. 27-28). Rather than participating in role-playing or vicarious experiences, the preservice or inservice teacher is expected to actually perform a new and perhaps more complex task than his or her current practice.

2. <u>There will be major differences in the initial</u> <u>ability of teachers</u>. Teachers at modest conceptual level stages may have difficulty understanding and accepting the concepts being discussed. For those planning preservice or inservice activities it is essential to determine exactly at what stage of development the learners are, in order to provide experiences which "are neither beyond the reach nor below the grasp of an individual learner" (p. 28).

3. <u>There must be opportunity for "careful and</u> <u>continuous guided reflection"</u> (p. 29). Once teachers try out something new, there must be time and opportunity to examine the experience. Part of the model is to teach how to ask questions, how to examine the experience from a variety of views. "Structured reflection seems requisite to promote rigorous examination" (p. 29).

4: <u>There must be a balance between real experience</u> <u>and structured reflection</u>. Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) <u>found</u> that providing more actual experience did not have greater impact than providing more modest amounts. A peer teaching program which they inserviced showed that tutoring two or three hours a week was as effective as tutoring ten to twelve hours a week "as long as a weekly seminar was provided" (p. 29). Without the guided reflection, no discernable effect was evident. "<u>Guided</u> <u>integration</u> appears essential" (p. 29).

5. <u>Programs need to be continuous</u>. The studies conducted and reviewed by Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) "clearly document the ineffectiveness of brief, episodic, weekend-type learning" (p. 29). In-depth experience is necessary to produce significant change. This plan suggests a time period of at least one year. Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall have found that working at the school level with teachers made it more possible to provide continuous supervision as teachers transferred newly learned models to their classrooms. Continuity of support during the acquisition and transfer phase is seen as crucial for success.

6. <u>Programs need to provide for personal support</u> <u>and challenge</u>. The cognitive-developmental framework assumes that development "involves the process of upsetting

or upending one's current stage (and state of equilibrium),
thereby creating dissonance" (p. 30). The individual
reacts by attempting to incorporate the new into the
old without any real change taking place. Earlier
discussion of the personal dimension of change has emphasized
that change is painful and difficult. Often it threatens
the individual's sense of professionalism. Effective
inservice programs must provide major personal support
as a direct part of the instruction. Sprinthall and
Thies-Sprinthall (1983) concluded, "Our work with in-
service teachers convinced us that significant professional
development is often painful" (p. 30).

The School as the Unit for Change

Goodlad (1983b, 1984) has been forceful in presenting
the view that "the individual school is the key unit
on which to focus for effecting improvement within the
formal educational system" (p. 36). Goodlad (1983b)
observes that staff development tends to focus on the
improvement of individual skills. Seldom is there evidence
of school staffs working together on instructional improve-
ment as a total staff. The normal professional development
process is seen as, "Teachers attending activities focused
on teaching materials and behavior, usually designed
to improve what they customarily did, and with few exceptions

away from rather than in their own places of work" (Goodlad, 1983b, p. 44).

Courter and Ward (1983) agree with Goodlad, and see school improvement as "an orderly 'tuning' process required of all schools and school staffs on a continuing basis" (p. 186), an integral part of normal operations of schools. Guidelines for effective staff development include: (a) the recognition that the participants (teachers, administrators) will have differences in how they perceive learning to take place; (b) the importance of recognizing the teacher as a central figure in school improvement projects; (c) the importance of school staffs working together for school improvement; (d) the recommendation that change efforts focus on "the school level as well as at the classroom level and involve the entire school staff" (p. 193); (e) the recommendation that school improvement be viewed as an on-going process; and (f) the recommendation that support be provided in the form of "time, materials and expert guidance and assistance" (p. 193).

The consensus in the literature on staff development is that change will not occur through isolated and occasional inservice staff development activities. Teachers need time for guided reflection and integration, they need personal support and challenges, and they need opportunities

to try out the new roles in a non-threatening environment.
The best place to provide this is the school itself.
Staff development then can be a process involving the
whole school staff, including the principal, as they
work together to improve the instruction at the school
level.

Neale, Bailey and Ross (1981) made a comprehensive
review of the literature on how best to improve schools.
Their findings concur with those of Goodlad and the
Rand Study. They stated, "The local school, as a social
organization, is the optimal focus for change; successful
change can best be brought about by continuous efforts
to improve the local school building organization as
a total unit" (p. 23). Looking back over the unsuccessful
attempts at educational change which occurred in the
1950s and 1960s, they conclude:

> Generalized efforts to install new educational
> practices have failed to pass through most
> school house doors. On the other hand, we
> have repeatedly seen that selected local schools
> have been able to make dramatic improvements
> in their operations. Unless conditions for
> change exist at the school building level,
> no change will occur. (p. 27)

The school as the focus for change does not mean however
that schools operate best in isolation. Neale, Bailey
and Ross (1981) further state that "The local school

building organization, as a part of a larger educational
system, must be linked to other organizations for maximum
success in school improvement" (p. 23). By this they
mean that the local school must be the target for educational
change, but support must come from other agencies and
people or change is not likely to occur. Teachers'
working conditions (isolated and autonomous in self-
contained classrooms), the conservative nature of most
teachers, and the lack of rewards for change all contribute
to a school organization which had proven extremely
reluctant to change. Neale, Bailey and Ross (1981)
recommend that "the resources devoted to school improvement
can best be mobilized through partnerships whose purpose
is to improve local schools, but whose membership transcends
the school itself". (p. 28). What they have in mind
is the linking process such as Goodlad's League of Coop-
erating Schools. Bentzen (1974) gives a detailed account
of how schools can band together to support each other
as they solve problems in staff development. An outside
agency, such as a college of education or a teacher
centre, can provide assistance as schools link together
to find ways in which change can occur. The district
office can also provide the support which the schools
need.

Strategies that Do Not Work

The Rand Study (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978) found that certain implementation strategies usually did not work, and in fact could lessen the chances for continuation. As they pointed out, these generally ineffective strategies might help in particular instances but they are not compatible with the view of professional development which has been outlined in this section. The strategies Berman and McLaughlin (1978) saw as ineffective are:

1. <u>Outside consultants</u>. The assistance provided by outside consultants was viewed by teachers as "too general, untimely, and irrelevant to the problems of their classrooms" (p. 27). The Rand Study found that outside consultants had "neither the time nor the necessary information to tailor their advice to the individual school or classroom" (p. 27). They also were not usually available to provide assistance when problems arose during the implementation.

2. <u>Packaged management approaches</u>. These were usually too inflexible to allow local adaptation necessary for effective implementation. Local conditions were normally not foreseen.

3. <u>One-shot, preimplementation training</u>. This approach has often been taken for reasons of economy and efficiency. This method cannot provide the assistance

teachers need during the implementation stage, and usually cannot anticipate the problems that may arise. Even if such problems could be identified, "training that treated issues before they became problems was usually not meaningful to project staff" (p. 27).

4. __Pay for training__. The Rand Study found that teachers will spend the time and energy to carry out a new practice out of professional concerns, in order to be a better teacher. Extra pay for training was either viewed as not significant, or to be negatively related to implementation outcomes.

5. __Formal evaluation__. In deciding whether or not to continue a project, formal evaluation findings were generally not important. For school districts, local bureaucratic and political concerns were more important.

6. __Comprehensive projects__. Projects that attempt to do too much often fail, frequently because the different needs of those involved could not all be met. Sometimes, too, such projects spread people and resources too thinly, thereby weakening the whole project.

Strategies that Do Work

The Rand Study found that strategies that promoted mutual adaptation, in which the project could be adapted

to its settings, and in which teachers could adapt their practices in response, were generally effective. Such approaches are "essentially learning-by-doing" (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978, p. 28). These strategies usually were effective, but the authors are quick to point out that "these strategies are not a panacea. They obviously do not work if they are poorly executed, as was often the case when they were routinely applied" (p. 28). They also stress that such strategies may not work at all if applied separately, rather they work well together as an overall implementation strategy.

  1. Concrete, teacher-specific, and on-going training. "Teachers required concrete, 'hands on' training in translating often very general and fuzzy project guidelines into classroom practice, and adapting project concepts to the reality of their particular situation" (p. 29). This strategy was particularly effective when teachers themselves helped determine the training. Mutual adaptation was best when training continued for more than a year.

  2. Classroom assistance from project or district staff. Local resource personnel provided opportunities for mutual adaptation by being available to offer "relevant, practical advice on an 'on-call' basis" (p. 29).

  3. Observation of the project in other classrooms or districts. When teachers could visit other schools

or districts (for at least a day) it tended to aid implementation. It was also found that other teachers were the "most effective counselors when it came to advising implementors-to-be about problems they could expect, suggesting ways to remedy them, and encouraging new project staff that 'they can do it too'" (p. 29).

4. <u>Regular project meetings</u>. Regular meetings which focused on practical problems proved useful for mutual adaptation, problem solving, and building staff morale.

5. <u>Teacher participation in project discussions</u>. The more teachers were involved with the project, the more they identified with it. They tended to see problems as they arose, suggesting remedies, and were more willing to spend time on the project.

6. <u>Local materials development</u>. The process of developing materials needed was seen as "providing staff with a feeling that their professional judgement was valued" (p. 29).

7. <u>Principal participation in training</u>. The Rand Study saw the active support of the principal as vital. Most important perhaps was that "it signalled the staff that their efforts were supported and valued" (p. 30).

The literature on staff development emphasizes that people are involved in the change process, and

that significant professional development may be painful.
The teacher, as an adult learner, must be respected
as a professional and given time to reflect and integrate
new ideas into his or her conceptual frameworks. Those
planning programs of professional development must provide
personal support and challenges for those they want
to change. The literature suggests that, in order to
best accomplish this, the school is the key unit with
the whole staff involved. · Strategies that work best
are strategies which have this view of staff development,
and therefore provide opportunities for mutual adaptation.

Summary

The research studies concur on many points. They
agree that educational change is a process, not an event,
and that each of its phases--the adoption, the implementation
and the continuation--have factors that influence them,
affecting the outcome. They agree also that the imple-
mentation phase, that of actually putting change into
practice, is the crucial phase. This fact points to
the importance of the setting which, in educational
change, is frequently the school. The studies stress
the importance of adapting any new change to its setting,
making it fit the needs of teachers and their classrooms.

The literature also destroys the rather naive view
of the school district as a rational, problem-solving
entity. Educational change is often motivated by social
or political concerns as individuals or groups compete
for limited resources or power. Priorities established
within districts often reflect the pressure of external
groups, or they are a means of improving the image of
the district officials. Only a small proportion are
logical, rational solutions to the educational needs
of the district.

For teachers, innovations are often seen as threats
to their image of themselves as professionals. Those
implementing change must expect conflict and resistance,
and they must allow individual teachers to find their
own meaning in the proposed change. Only when teachers'
beliefs are changed, and the proposed change becomes
integrated within the belief systems that teachers live
by, can real change be achieved. Teachers have to work
out their own meaning of the changes confronting them.

Successful change requires many things. It requires
that anyone involved in changing the school must understand
the culture of the school and must understand the way
things are done. It requires that teachers be given
time to work out the meaning of new programs and curriculum
directives, and to adapt the innovations to solve their

particular problems. It requires that changes be clear
and that teachers realize the need for change. It requires
that inservice programs use strategies that have been
shown to work, and discard methods proven to be ineffective.
Above all the literature shows that successful change
in teaching-practice requires that people change their
behaviour; that they unlearn old ways of doing things
and learn new ways. Those who aspire to implement change:

> Must listen as well as explain, continually
> accommodating their design to other purposes,
> other kinds of experience, modifying and rene-
> gotiating, long after they would like to believe
> that their conception was finished. If they
> impatiently cut the process short, their reforms
> are likely to be abortive. (Marris, 1975,
> p. 156)

The literature on change reiterates that change
is ongoing; that innovations which become part of a
way of doing things almost immediately needs to be re-
evaluated; that the desire for growth will launch the
cycle of change all over again. Only by this means
is on-going change and improvement possible. Progress
is made in meeting the challenge of change but there
is always the awareness of the many tasks which lie
ahead. Teachers and administrators may be forgiven
if they sometimes feel like Alice in Wonderland as she
ran to keep up with the Red Queen:

"In our country," said Alice, panting a little, "you'd generally get to somewhere else--if you ran fast for a long time as we've been doing."

"A slow sort of country" said the Queen. "Now, here, you see, it takes all the running you can do, to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere, you must run at least twice as fast as that." (Carroll, 1966, pp. 144-145.)

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This study began as an attempt to understand why the gap exists between theory and practice, particularly in school libraries. The standards for school library media services provide the vision for what quality programs should be, but few schools provide such programs. The study has examined the literature on schooling and on educational change in an attempt to find answers as to why the gap exists and how it can be bridged. These answers are important to anyone concerned with implementing school library media programs.

This study is based on the hypothesis that to introduce the modern concept of school library media programs into schools where none currently exist is to introduce major change into those schools. Whether or not such major change can be successfully implemented depends on many factors--some associated with the larger society of which the schools are only a part; some which are found at the district level; and perhaps most important, some factors which are present within the schools themselves.

The Change Itself

The school library media concept described in Chapter Two[1] makes certain assumptions. It assumes: that teaching is a rational activity, based on teachers attempting to meet clearly stated objectives; that teachers and school librarians will team teach in an effort to integrate library or research skills and classroom instruction; that teaching is an active process, requiring a variety of formats to meet different learner needs; and that teaching is a problem-solving process in which those involved try to find the best methods and the best resources to meet the needs of individual learners. The school librarian is seen as a teacher, a librarian, an instructional developer, and a curriculum developer at the school level.

This role is not one that the school librarian has sought. Instead it is a role that the changing curriculum has demanded. New theories of how learning occurs, new programs of studies, new technologies which are introduced into the school system, the rapid increase

---

[1]See Chapter Two, pp. 20-69.

of knowledge have all changed current expectations of what education should be.[2]

However the literature has shown that these curriculum innovations have seldom been implemented into teaching practice.[3]   The teaching strategy still used in most classrooms is the teacher talking, the students listening or working independently, with the textbook and chalkboard occupying dominant positions.   There is little evidence of innovative teaching practices.

Table 2 (p. 205) summarizes the main differences that exist between the assumptions inherent in the modern school library media concept and the realities of teaching as revealed in the studies reviewed.

Because there has been a change in expectations for schools rather than a change in actual teaching practice, the modern school library media program has rarely been implemented.   The school library in practice reflects what is happening in the classroom.   Teaching that is based on textbook learning and use of workbooks or worksheets has little need for a media centre.   Table 3 (p. 206) summarizes the main differences in the school

---

[2]For full discussion, see pp. 1-8, 20-69.
[3]For full discussion, see pp. 107-133.

libraries that exist[4] and the ideal school library media centre as outlined in the standards.[5]

Table 1

The Nature of Teaching and The School Library Media Program

Nature of Teaching[6]	School Library Media Program[7]
Isolated activity	Cooperative planning
Teacher autonomous	Team teaching
Vague goals	Precisely defined goals and objectives
Group instruction	Individualized instruction
Reliance on textbook	Variety of resources, different formats
Teacher control	Maximum freedom for learner
Teacher as essential in the learning process	Teacher as creator of learning experiences leading to students becoming independent learners
Self contained classrooms	Different locations

[4]Discussed in detail in Chapter Three, pp. 133-142.

[5]See Chapter Two for a full discussion.

[6]These findings are described in detail on pp. 110-128.

[7]For full discussion, see pp. 50-54.

Table 3

The School Library--In Practice and Theory

Practice	Theory
Not part of the instructional program	An integral part of the instructional program
Library periods scheduled	Flexible library scheduling based on need
Library skills taught in isolation	Research skills integrated into classroom work
Scheduled library periods provide free periods for teachers	Teachers work with librarian to provide meaningful library experiences
School librarians are not provided clerical help	Clerical and technical help provided at school or district level
School librarian's role perceived as mainly clerical and technical	School librarian's role perceived as primarily working with teachers and students in curriculum development
School librarians confused over their role	School librarians with clear perception of role
School librarians do not communicate their role to teachers and administrators	School librarians interpret and communicate their role to teachers and administrators
Personality of librarian not seen as important	Confident, extroverted personalities needed to fill the role

The gap between expectations for schools and what schools are actually doing affects the implementation of a school library media program. The literature on educational change identifies four characteristics of the change itself which will affect successful implementation: its perceived need and relevance; its clarity; its complexity; its quality and practicality.[8] Each will be examined as it pertains to the introduction of the school library media program.

Need and Relevance

Teachers and administrators who are content with the present practice, who perceive teaching to be textbook and teacher dominated (as shown in Table 2) perceive little need for a school library media program. Research has demonstrated that unless there is a perceived need, the chances of implementation are slim.[9] Teachers are more likely to implement a school library media program if they recognize it as necessary and relevant for good teaching.

---

[8] See pp. 174-175 for discussion.

[9] See p. 174.

Clarity

A proposed change must be clearly understood. Lack of clarity has led to what has been discussed as "false clarity".[10] The literature has shown that the concept of the school library media program is not understood. There is confusion at all levels as to what such a program should be. This confusion is caused, for the most part, by the gap which exists between theory and practice. The role and the concept of the school library media program must be clarified before it can be implemented.

This particular concept is easily misunderstood. School libraries are often confused with public libraries; jargon from library science, education and educational technology tends to be interspersed; and new terminology from curriculum developers (for example, resource-based learning) tends to be used but not clearly understood. The result has often been confusion.

Complexity

The more complex a proposal change, the more difficulty there is in successfully implementing it.[11] To introduce

---

[10]See pp. 151-152.

[11]See pp. 155-156, 175.

a school library media program is a very complex change.
It requires not only that teachers change the materials
and teaching approaches they use, but also that they
change their basic beliefs about what constitutes good
teaching and learning.

The literature on the personal dimension of change[12]
reveals that a change in core beliefs is very difficult
for those individuals being asked to change, for it
threatens their identity as professionals. Those intro-
ducing such change must expect conflict and resistance
at the start. Time and personal support is necessary
if individuals are to make such radical changes.

Studies have also shown that teachers are more
likely to implement complex changes than simpler changes,
if they believe the change will improve their teaching.[13]
The concept of the school library media program is based
on the notion that such an approach improves teaching
and learning. Those attempting to introduce the program
would be wise to make sure teachers understand this
to be the case. The findings of research, whenever
available, would be advantageous in convincing teachers
of the value of such a program.

---

[12]Discussed on pp. 146-155.

[13]See p. 175

Quality and Practicality

Changes which are successfully implemented tend to be those which are perceived to be of high quality, and which are practical to implement in the school.[14] Those introducing a school library media program must provide the needed support, in the form of necessary resources and personnel. If a school board adopts a policy of resource-based teaching and neglects to provide resources or a qualified school-librarian, teachers may well doubt the sincerity of the policy.

Teachers should also see that a school library media program can be adapted by them as they integrate such a program into their normal classroom work. The introduction of this type of program will require that the role of the school librarian and the role of the teacher in the teaching/learning process be modified. Teachers and school librarians must have time to work out their own classroom strategies and techniques within a broad philosophical framework. The specific school library media centre's goals and procedures must be made concrete over time through the school staff working as a team.

---

[14]See pp. 174-175.

Implications

1.   School library media programs must be shown to be necessary and relevant to good teaching.

2.   The concepts and the roles of the school library media program and the school librarian must be clarified by defining them and by eliminating jargon.

3.   The concept of school library media programs is complex, requiring, for most teachers, a change in teaching materials, teaching approaches, and basic beliefs about teaching.

4.   To change basic beliefs is difficult. Individuals who are being asked to change must be given time to integrate new ideas, and given personal support as they change old practices.

5.   Those attempting to introduce such complex change must expect resistance and conflict initially.

6.   Those introducing such change should provide empirical research whenever possible to provide evidence to teachers that the change will improve their teaching.

7.   The resources and personnel necessary for a school library media program must be provided, in order to demonstrate the commitment on the part of the school districts to quality programs.

8. Those introducing the program must demonstrate that it is a practical program, capable of being adapted to meet the needs of particular schools.

Factors External to the District

Factors which exist outside the school district have been shown to be influential in the successful implementation of a school library media program.

National and Professional Associations

Examination of the history of the development of school libraries in the United States has described the considerable influence which a strong national organization can have.[15] National standards, formulated by national associations, have clarified the concept and given a vision of what school library media programs can be. In Canada there is no strong national organization which clearly articulates this vision, and which unites school librarians across the nation.[16]

School librarians have strong organizations at the provincial level as part of their provincial teacher

---

[15]See Chapter Two, pp. 20-54.

[16]This point is discussed fully on pp. 80-85.

associations or unions.[17] These groups have organized
conferences and their provincial executives speak in
a united voice to provincial bureaucrats and educational
associations. Through their newsletters and journals,
the current ideas on school librarianship have been
disseminated. The impetus for a national organization
must come from these provincial groups. Provincial
associations also have the responsibility to articulate
to provincial educators at all levels the concept of
the school library media program.

The history of school libraries in the United States
has demonstrated the necessity for national standards.
But national standards must emanate from a national
organization which speaks for school librarians. The
profession itself must be able to collectively formulate
realistic standards for quality programs. Only then
can school librarians work with others in the field
of education—school administrators, educational researchers,
supervisors, classroom teachers and parents—to develop
standards of school library media services which will
lead to new ideas, new ways of thinking about the functions
of the school in an electronic era, and new ways to
meet the needs of students and teachers. The profession

[17]See pp. 81-82.

itself has a responsibility to point the way to the realization of these goals.

Provincial Departments of Education

The provincial departments of education must provide leadership by stating the goals for school library media programs. They must provide the mandate so that school districts will know what is expected of them.[18] They must provide provincial standards, so that educators will accept that school libraries are a necessary part of every child's education. They have a responsibility to make the educational community aware of requirements for adequate school library media programs. If there is no knowledge of national or provincial standards, the expectations of teachers and administrators will be based on the familiar; the school library as it presently exists. Since quality school library media programs are rare, to accept what is as the norm is to lower standards indeed.

Provincial standards are needed which are clearly articulated, based on the needs of the curriculum and what is known of the teaching/learning process. They should be based on the best information available, drawn

---

[18]For a full discussion of this point, see pp. 74-80.

from standards developed by the professional associations (national and provincial) who in turn draw on the collective experience of leaders in the field. They must reflect the ideal, yet be within the range of what schools might reasonably implement.

The language of provincial standards must be free of jargon and easy to read, for once formulated the provincial department has a responsibility to ensure that school administrators at all levels are aware of these standards. A copy of the standards should be in every school so that the school principals, classroom teachers and school librarians will know what is expected of them.

The provincial school library consultants are in key positions to communicate the role and the concept to educational officials at the provincial level, to the superintendents and supervisors at the district level, and to the principals and teachers at the local school level.[19] They can be powerful advocates, interpreting the concept and the role at all levels of education. By disseminating new ideas and providing personal contacts within the province, the consultant's chief function may be that of change agent.

---

[19] See pp. 78-80 for discussion of this role.

Qualifications of School Librarians

The competencies identified by the various standards[20] are in agreement that school librarians need to have training in education, library science, instructional development and curriculum development. The role demands that at the school level the school librarian is first a teacher, working with other teachers to cooperatively plan and teach units of work which integrate classroom assignments and research skills. Faculties of education and schools of library science must be guided by the needs of the school. Cooperation between the two, with transfer of credit and cross-listing of courses where possible, would serve to strengthen the profession. Schools of library science could provide needed assistance if they permitted part-time study, thus allowing interested school librarians to upgrade professional skills at summer school (a practice common in faculties of education).

The lack of recognition of master of education programs by schools of library science[21] has caused a rift among school librarians. The profession would be stronger if faculties of education and schools of

---

[20]See pp. 55-68 for complete discussion of the competencies required by school librarians.

[21]Note in particular Haycock's (1981) quote on p. 87.

library science worked together on the improvement of training to meet the needs of those in the schools.

Development and Use of Research

The field of school librarianship has been revealed as an area in which little valid empirical research has been conducted.[22]   There is a growing awareness of the need for research studies in almost every area of school librarianship. Educational researchers in faculties of education could make a contribution, but research by school librarians themselves at the school level would also add immensely to the knowledge of the field.

In order to carry out valid research, it is necessary for school librarians to be trained in research design and methodology. Faculties of education and schools of library science should also provide assistance to practitioners in the field who are involved in research. Faculties of education, schools of library science, educational associations, national and provincial associations of school librarians can provide valuable assistance by publishing research articles in their journals.

---

[22]For full discussion on this topic, see pp. 88-93.

Implications

1. There is a need for a strong national association for school librarians in Canada.

2. Provincial associations must provide the impetus for such an organization.

3. The profession of school librarianship in Canada needs to express itself collectively through national and provincial standards for school library media programs.

4. Provincial departments of education should state clearly provincial standards for school library media programs. They should provide the leadership so that educators at district and local levels are aware of what school library media programs should be.

5. Provincial school library consultants should be powerful advocates at all levels of education for school library media programs.

6. Provincial school library consultants should be change agents, helping to implement school library media programs.

7. Faculties of education and schools of library science need to work together to provide improved opportunities for the professional education of school librarians.

8. There is a need for valid research in all areas of school librarianship. Such research might

be conducted, not only by educational researchers, but also by school librarians currently practicing in the field.

9.   School librarians should have, as part of their professional training, courses in research design and methodology.

10.   Faculties of education, schools of library science, educational associations, national and provincial associations for school librarians can assist in school library research efforts by publishing research articles in professional journals and publications.

Factors at the District Level

Importance of District Support

The literature on educational change confirms that commitment at the district level is crucial for the successful implementation of any innovation.[23]   Those attempting to introduce school library media programs into schools must realize that, without serious commitment from the district office, the chances for long-term continuation of programs are negligible. The literature reflects that, during the adoption stage, the support

---

[23]See discussion in Chapter Four, particularly pp. 161-168, 175-177, 180-185.

of the district office can determine whether planning for the introduction of such change is adequate, and whether or not teachers and principals take programs seriously. If the concept of resource-based teaching is adopted only verbally to make the district appear progressive, without any real plan or desire for change in teaching practice, teachers and principals will soon learn that the district office is not really concerned with implementation of such a concept.

If districts are serious about implementing school library media programs, from the very beginning they will plan to incorporate such a concept into the regular approaches to teaching in the district. Good teaching will become equated with making full use of the school library media program.

Once schools have implemented school library media programs, the support of the district office is necessary for continuation. The school library media program must be seen as meeting a central educational need of the district and as being important at all levels, to teachers, principals, board supervisors, board trustees and the superintendent. The school library media program is viewed, therefore, as an essential element in the quality of education offered by the district.

School districts in the 1980s must make difficult choices. Declining enrolments, economic restraint, and redundant teachers[24] have forced school districts to eliminate programs and unnecessary frills. Only districts which have made a strong commitment to the concept of school library media programs, recognizing their essential contribution to quality education, will maintain such programs. A major commitment is required to introduce such programs at this particular time.

The Role of the Superintendent

The literature on the role of the superintendent demonstrates that the support of the superintendent is important in introducing change into the school district. The superintendent has been demonstrated to be a powerful ally.[25] Those wishing to introduce school library media programs into schools must find ways of winning the support of superintendents. As the chief executive for the school board, the superintendent more than any other individual can convince school board members of the need for such programs; can fight for funds to support programs; can secure allocations for school librarians;

---

[24]See discussion of these conditions on pp. 94-96.

[25]Full discussion of the superintendent's role on pp. 103-106.

can determine the priority placed on school libraries in the district; and can communicate throughout the district the importance of such programs.

Research has shown that superintendents tend to be influenced by other superintendents for the most part. National and provincial associations for school librarians, faculties of education, and provincial departments of education need to find ways to communicate with this influential group and win their support. Superintendents in districts which have strong school library media programs should be asked for their assistance in presenting the benefits of such programs to other superintendents.

The literature on change reveals that superintendents are most likely to adopt changes that promote the image of the district as up-to-date, professional, and responsive, and which also win approval of their peer elite.[26] Those introducing the concept of a school library media program would be wise to keep these observations in mind.

---

[26]This point is made on pp. 165-166.

The Role of District School Library Consultants

The district consultant for school libraries has an important advocacy role to play, particularly in working with board personnel. The person in this position must interpret the concept of the school library media program for other consultants at the board office, for school principals, and for school librarians.[27] Such a role requires that consultants have a clear understanding of the concept and the role.

District consultants should provide leadership in the development of school library media programs at the school level. To do this effectively requires that they understand the process of educational change, and be sensitive to the people involved in the process. They must build commitment to the concept at the district level and have the patience to permit long-term planning to take place. They must provide support to school librarians, classroom teachers, and school principals as they struggle to implement the new program.

Small school districts which do not have a consultant for school libraries are at an obvious disadvantage, for they have nobody at the local level to advise them

---

[27]For a complete discussion of the role of the district consultant, see pp. 96-103.

as to what comprises quality school library services. Regional consultants shared by several small boards might be one possible solution. If district consultants are to coordinate several content areas, small boards may find it feasible to hire a school library media specialist to coordinate the library media program and several other content areas. All school library media specialists are expected to know the curriculum, and should likely have at least one other area of expertise. It is unlikely that specialists in other content areas would have the specialized training required for the implementation of school library media programs.

Implications

1. Commitment and strong support at the district office level are crucial to the successful implementation of school library programs.

2. School library media programs must be perceived as essential to the education offered in the district.

3. In times of economic restraint and declining enrolments, school library media programs will be maintained only where there is strong commitment at the district level.

4. The support of the superintendent is vital to commitment at the district level.

5. All those interested in advancing school librar-
ianship should investigate ways of winning the support
of superintendents. Those interested must include the
national and provincial associations for school librarians,
faculties of education, schools of library science,
and provincial departments of education.

6. Superintendents who support school library
media programs in their own districts should be requested
to support promotion efforts directed toward other super-
intendents.

7. District consultants for school library media
programs must be strong advocates at the district level.

8. District consultants for school libraries
have an important role to play as change agents. It
is essential that they understand the change process
and how to implement change.

9. All districts should have a consultant for
school library media programs at the district level.

Factors at the School Level

As stated previously, a wide gap exists between
curriculum theory and what actually happens in practice.
In the real world of the school few of the practices
and innovations widely acclaimed in the literature are

ever implemented.[28]   The school library media standards
reflect the current thought in curriculum theory and
are based on current curriculum guidelines.[29] The result
is that the school library media specialist should be
at the forefront in curriculum development, promoting
teaching materials and approaches which, although endorsed
and recommended in curriculum guides, are often not
accepted as part of the present practice in the schools.
Even more significantly, the role of the school library
media specialist has been based on a philosophical framework
which is fundamentally different from the assumptions
most teachers hold.   A brief summary of some of these
differences is included in Table 2 (p. 205).

It is an impossible task, based on a naive notion
of change, for the school librarian within a particular
school to attempt single-handedly to change the teaching
in all subject areas across the curriculum. Even at
the district level, with a team of curriculum specialists,
it is extremely difficult to change teaching practices
and beliefs. The literature on educational change reveals

---

[28]This has been a recurring theme throughout the thesis,
particularly on pp. 5-11.

[29]Discussed in Chapter Two, and summarized on pp. 50-51.

conclusively that such comprehensive change requires
a broad base of support at all levels of the system.

If teaching is to change at the school level it
will require a clearly delineated plan for staff develop-
ment.[30] The school, as the unit for change,[31] should
be given the opportunity to identify areas for improvement,
and teachers, as adult learners,[32] should be given time
and opportunity to acquire new professional insights
and skills. The school librarian, as a member of the
staff, should be involved in this search for meaningful
improvement in the instructional program.

The impetus for the improvement at the school level
will not come from the local school librarian. The
position has neither the authority nor the prestige
to create such a demand. The impetus must arise from
the recognition that good teaching requires such an
approach. This recognition emerges from national and
provincial standards of excellence, from policy established
at the provincial and district level. At the school
level, the drive for improvement in teaching must be

---

[30]For full discussion, see pp. 185-198.

[31]See pp. 190-193.

[32]See pp. 186-190.

spearheaded by the principal.[33]   But in the long term
it is the classroom teachers who will either accept
or reject the notion of teaching exemplified in the
modern school library media program.

This does not mean that the school librarian has
no role to play in the change process.   It does mean,
however, that long term success depends on factors beyond
the individual school librarian in a particular school.
Table 3 (p. 206) describes the wide gap that exists
between the school library media centre in theory and
in practice.   At the school level, school librarians
must work at closing this gap.

They might begin by attempting to perform the role
that the standards describe.   As professionals, part
of the role requires that they interpret and communicate
their role to all those served by the school.   This
demands that they clarify the role for themselves.[34]
They must also be mindful that they will be judged by
the tasks they perform.   Teachers who perceive the school
librarian's role as being mainly clerical will not change

---

[33]See pp. 128-132 for discussion of the importance of
the principal.

[34]This is presently not the case.   See pp. 138-139 for
discussion.

their attitudes and practices if these are the only functions they see performed.

Those who presently work as school librarians must be enthusiastic optimists, willing to slowly prove to colleagues that different teaching materials and approaches can work. They need to understand the realities of the teacher's world and be willing to work with the teacher in an attempt to try new methods. They need to understand the nature of educational change, so that they can effectively function as change agents at the school level. Such people need extroverted personalities, allowing them to work well with others and to have the confidence to try out innovations.

To create change at the school level, school librarians must work on district and provincial committees, and be actively involved in their provincial associations. Commitment to the concept of the modern school library can only emerge slowly, and those in the profession have a responsibility to advocate what the concept is and how it can contribute to the overall aims of education.

Implications

1. A wide gap exists at the school level between curriculum guideline recommendations and what is actually

happening in classrooms. Few innovations are actually implemented.

2. The school library media program is based on curriculum theory and curriculum guidelines rather than on actual teaching practice.

3. To implement a school library media program successfully is to change teaching practice to meet the demands contained in curriculum guidelines. The school librarian cannot do this in isolation.

4. Change in teaching practice at the school level will only occur if there is a strong base of support for such change from within and from outside the local school.

5. The total school, under the leadership of the principal, must provide the impetus for meaningful change at the school level.

6. Staff development activities, well planned and supportive of teachers who must learn new skills and insights are important if a school library media program is to be implemented.

7. School librarians at the school level must have a clear perception of their role and communicate it to their colleagues.

8. School librarians must take an active interest in the advancement of the profession. They can promote

it by participating in district or provincial committees, and national and provincial associations.

Conclusions

In the final analysis, implementation of school library media programs relies on the commitment to a vision of what education should be. The standards for school library media programs, culminating in the most ambitious program described in <u>Media Programs: District and School</u> (AASL &AECT, 1975) provide a plan for educational excellence, where school districts work with their principals and teachers to provide the kind of education which the present generation of students needs. It reflects the current thoughts of leaders in the fields of education, library science, instructional development, and educational technology.

Our schools do not reflect what we know about what education should be. In most schools time has practically stood still. Education does not encompass the innovations which have been so widely publicized. Many teachers teach as they themselves were taught. Our society, weary of problems of economic restraint and unemployment, although expressing discontent with the education system,

is not inclined to demand better quality education, especially if it will cost more)

School libraries, as part of the education system, perhaps suffer the most. Never really an integral part of the instructional process, they have aspired to provide the school with the information which students and teachers need. Dedicated to providing the best education which current knowledge prescribes, they have attempted to go beyond the requirements for the instructional program, to unfold "for the many private quests of children and young people the imagination of mankind" (AASL, 1960, p. 13). However, success has been rare. The school library media program is based on a vision of education with which few disagree. It reflects the collective expression of all those who struggle with what children should learn and how best they should learn it. What has been lacking in society at large is commitment to the vision. School districts and local schools settle for mediocre teaching practice, out-of-date facilities, and a quality of education with which few are happy.

Educational research is slowly accumulating findings which document what the problems are in education, and the body of knowledge in the field of educational change can help in bringing about necessary improvements. But knowledge alone is insufficient. What is lacking

is a clear vision of excellence in education, and a commitment to provide it. This vision must permeate the entire educational system, from provincial departments of education, to district offices, to local schools. And all those involved must actively show their support for such a vision.

If schools seriously try to provide quality educational experiences the need for school library media programs will become evident. Providing essential processes and resources for teaching and learning will be, then, an integral part of the work of the school.

REFERENCES

Aaron, S.L. (1981). The role of the school media program in the curriculum. In N.W. Thomason (Ed.), The library media specialist in curriculum development (pp. 52-61). Metuchen, N.J.: The Scarecrow Press.

Aaron, S.L. (1982). A review of selected doctoral dissertations about school library media programs and resources, January 1972 - December 1980. School Library Media Quarterly, 10(3), 209-245.

Alberta Education. (1984). Proposed policy, guidelines, procedures and standards for school libraries in Alberta. Edmonton, Alta.: Alberta Education.

American Association of School Librarians. (1960). Standards for school library programs. Chicago: American Library Association.

American Association of School Librarians & the Association for Educational Communications and Technology. (1975). Media programs: District and school. Chicago: American Library Association.

American Library Association. (1945). School libraries for today and tomorrow. Chicago: American Library Association.

Arscott, E. (1984). Metamorphosis. Alberta Learning Resources Journal, 6(1), 66-68.

Ausubel, D.P. (1968). Educational psychology: A cognitive view. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Bentzen, M.M. & Associates. (1974). Changing schools: The magic feather principle. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Berman, P. (1981). Educational change: an implementation paradigm. In R. Lehming & M. Kane (Eds.), Improving schools: Using what we know (pp. 253-286). Beverley Hills, Calif.: Sage.

Berman, P. & McLaughlin, M.W. (1978). Federal programs supporting educational change, vol. VIII: Implementing and sustaining innovations. Santa Monica: The Rand Corporation. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 159 289).

Beswick, N. (1970). The Certain standards in context: A study of the American school library materials centre concept. Journal of Librarianship, 2(3), 160-174.

Beswick, N. (1971). Certain and after: From school library to media centre. Journal of Librarianship, 3(2), 120-135.

Beswick, N. (1977). Resource-based learning. London: Heinemann Educational Books.

Beswick, N. (1983). The controversial school library: A critical assessment and proposed new strategy. Educational Libraries Bulletin, 26(2), 1-15.

Birch, J. (1981). Advocacy: What is it? MSLAVA Journal, 9(1), 4-7.

Block, R. (1983). We already know our problems out here in the field. Phi Delta Kappan, 65(3), 183.

Comar, C.P. (1966). Legislation and the school library. NASSP Bulletin, 50(306), 89-95.

Bowman, J. (1981). Power and the school librarian-- Starting here, starting now. Emergency Librarian, 9(1), 6-11.

Branscombe, F. & Newson, H. (Eds.). (1977). Resource services for Canadian schools. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson.

Brown, W. (1985). Education spending cuts: Pulling up the ladder on young Canadians. ATA Magazine, 65(2), 4-7.

Burdenuk, G. (1984). Who speaks for us? Power, advocacy and the teacher-librarian. Emergency Librarian, 11(4), 18-22.

Burke, R.J. (1984). _Economic recession and the quality of education: Some threatening trends_. Ottawa: Canadian Teachers Federation.

Burke, R.J. & Bolf, C. (1985). Economic recession and the quality of education. _ATA Magazine_, _65_(2), 7-11.

Bussis, A.M., Chittenden, E.A., & Amarel, M. (1976). _Beyond surface curriculum_. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press.

Canadian School Library Association. (1967). _Standards of library service for Canadian schools_. Toronto: McGraw-Hill.

Carroll, L. (1966). _Alice in Wonderland and other favorites_. New York: Washington Square Press. (Original published in 1865).

Certain, C.C. (1918). _Standard library organization and equipment for secondary schools of different sizes: Report of the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment_. National Education Association.

Chandler, H.N. (1983). Just among us teachers. _Phi Delta Kappan_, _65_(3), 181-182.

Coates, J. (1984). What principals should know about telematics, their impact on education. _NASSP Bulletin_, _68_(471), 41-49.

Courter, L. & Ward, B.A. (1983). Staff development for school improvement. In G.A. Griffin (Ed.), _Staff development: Eighty-second yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II_ (pp. 185-209). Chicago: NSSE.

Crocker, R.K. (1979). _From curriculum to classroom: An interview study of teacher perspectives on curriculum change in primary science_. Queensland: Department of Education.

Crocker, R.K. (1983a). The functional paradigms of teachers. _Canadian Journal of Education_, _8_(4), 350-361.

Crocker, R.K. (1983b). _The use of classroom time: A descriptive analysis_. St. John's: Memorial University of Newfoundland.

Crocker, R.K. (1984a). Determinants of implementation of an elementary science program. _Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 21_(2), 211-220.

Crocker, R.K. (1984b, September 20-22). _Elements of teacher functional paradigms._ Paper presented at the conference on Research on Teaching and Teacher Education, Vancouver, B.C.

CSLA report: The qualifications for school librarians. (1980). _Alberta Learning Resources Journal, 3_(3), 3-7.

Davies, R.A. (1979). _The school library media program: Instructional force for excellence_ (3rd ed.). New York: Bowker.

Davis, V. (1980). From the province--Authority...not power. _Emergency Librarian, 7_ (4-5), 9-11.

Dewey, J. (1977). The child and the curriculum. In A.A. Bellack & H.M. Kliebard (Eds.), _Curriculum and evaluation_ (pp. 175-188). Berkeley: McCutchan. (Original work published in 1902).

Didier, E.K. (1984). Research on the impact of school library media programs on student achievement--Implications for school media professionals. _School Library Media Annual, 2,_ 343-361.

Educational Media Association of Canada. (1969). _Media Canada: Guidelines for educators._ Toronto: Pergamon.

Eisner, E. (1979). _The educable imagination._ New York: Macmillan.

Eisner, E. (1983). The kind of schools we need. _Educational Leadership, 41_(2), 48-55.

Elseroad, H.O. (1966). The superintendent's key role in improving school libraries. _NASSP Bulletin, 50_ (306), 1-5.

Fargo, L. (1947). _The library in the school._ Chicago: American Library Association.

Fast, B. (1976). Standards of excellence in hard times. _School Media Quarterly, 4_(2), 121-125.

Fullan, M. (1982). *The meaning of educational change*. Toronto: OISE Press.

Fullan, M. & Park, P. (1981). *Curriculum implementation: A resource booklet*. Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education.

Gillespie, J.T. & Spirt, D.L. (1983). *Administering the school library media centre*. New York: Bowker.

Goodlad, J. (1963). *Planning and organizing for teaching*. Washington: National Education Association.

Goodlad, J. (1966). *The changing school curriculum*. New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education.

Goodlad, J. (1970). *Catalyst schools*. Arizona: Arizona State University.

Goodlad, J. (1983a). The school as workplace. In G.A. Griffin (Ed.), *Staff development: Eighty-second yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II* (pp. 36-61). Chicago: NSSE.

Goodlad, J. (1983b). A study of schooling: Some findings and hypotheses. *Phi Delta Kappan, 64*(7), 465-470.

Goodlad, J. (1983c). A study of schooling: Some implications for school improvement. *Phi Delta Kappan, 64*(8), 552-558.

Goodlad, J. (1984). *A place called school*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J. & Associates. (1975). *Curriculum inquiry: The study of curriculum practice*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Goodlad, J., Klein, M.F., & Associates. (1974). *Looking behind the classroom door*. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth.

Grazier, M.H. (1979, Fall). The curriculum consultant role of the school library media specialist. *Library Trends, 28*, 263-279.

Gross, N. (1979). Basic issues in the management of educational change efforts. In R. Herriott & N. Gross (Eds.), The dynamics of planned educational change (pp. 20-46). Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan.

Hall, E. (1983, September). A cure for American education. Psychology Today, 17(9), 26-27.

Hambleton, A. (1979). Static in the educational intercom: Conflict and the school librarian. Emergency Librarian, 6 (5-6), 5-7.

Hamilton, D. (1984). Reaction [To final report of an investigation of the professional, legal and financial implications of forming an independent national school library association]. School Libraries in Canada, 4(2), 19-20.

Havelock, R. (1973). The change agent's guide to innovation in education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology publications.

Hawley, W.D. (1978). Horses before carts: Developing adaptive schools and the limits of innovation. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? (pp. 224-253). New York: Teachers College Press.

Haycock, K. (1980). Program advocacy: The missing element. Emergency Librarian, 7 (4-5), 3.

Haycock, K. (1981a). Editorial: Accreditation does not equal competence. Emergency Librarian, 9(1), 5.

Haycock, K. (1981b). The role of the school librarian as a professional teacher: A position paper. Emergency Librarian, 8(5), 4-11.

Haycock, K. (1982a). School librarianship in Canada. Canadian Library Journal, 39(4), 241-246.

Haycock, K. (1982b). Editorial: Hard times...hard choices. Emergency Librarian, 9(5), 5.

Haycock, K. (1984a). Reaction [To final report of an investigation of the professional, legal and financial implications of forming an independent national school library association]. School Libraries in Canada, 4(2), 20-21.

Haycock, K. (1984b). Strengthening the foundations for school librarianship. _Bookmark, 26_(2), 89-102.

House, E.R. (1974). _The politics of educational innovations._ Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan.

Inskip, R. (1984). Building consensus and power in the library community: The marketing of school library services by a provincial library association. _Emergency Librarian, 11_(4), 9-13.

Jackson, P.W. (1968). _Life in classrooms._ New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Joint Committee of the American Library Association & National Education Association. (1969). _Standards for school media programs._ Chicago: American Library Association.

Jones, M.L. (1982). School library media standards: Changing to suit the times. _Journal of Research and Development in Education, 16_(1), 13-18.

Lash, H.L. (1953). Heart of the school? My foot! _Wilson Library Bulletin, 27_(9), 733, 735.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (1978). The social realities of teaching. _Teachers College Record, 80_(1), 54-68.

Lieberman, A. & Shiman, D.A. (1973). The stages of change in elementary school settings. In C.M. Culver & G.J. Hoban (Eds.), _The power to change: Issues for the innovative educator_ (pp. 49-71). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Loertscher, D.V. (1980). A future edition of national standards. _School Media Quarterly, 9_(1), 54-56.

Loertscher, D.V. (1983). Microcomputers in the classroom: With some musings on the ethics of research. _School Library Media Quarterly, 12_(1), 72-74.

Lortie, D. (1975). _Schoolteacher: A sociological study._ Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

MacIsaac, T. (1985). School of reform in the face of cutbacks. _ATA Magazine, 65_(2), 26-29.

MacRae, L. (1983). What centralized services can do for you. _Education Canada, 23_(3), 12-15, 25.

Mann, D. (Ed.). (1978). _Making change happen?_ New York: Teachers College Press.

Mann, H. (1891). _Annual reports of the secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts for the years 1837-1838._ Boston: Lee and Shepard.

Marris, P. (1975). _Loss and change._ New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Mohajerin, K.S. & Smith, E.P. (1981). Perceptions of the role of the school media specialist. _School Media Quarterly, 9_(3), 152-163.

National Society for the Study of Education. Committee on the Library in General Education. (1943). _Forty-second yearbook, vol. II. The library in general education._ Chicago: University of Chicago.

Neale, D.C., Bailey, W.J., & Ross, B.E. (1981). _Strategies for school improvement._ Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Newfoundland. Department of Education. (1984-85). _Directory of schools: Newfoundland and Labrador 1984-85._ St. John's, Newfoundland: Author.

Nordling, J. (1978). The high school library and the classroom: Closing the gap. In J. Lubans (Ed.), _Progress in educating the library user_ (pp. 45-55). New York: Bowker.

Oberg, Dianne. (1983). School libraries: A rationale. _Alberta Learning Resources Journal, 5_(4), 29-31.

Odenstam, G. (1977). The transformation of school libraries into educational aid centres: The Swedish experience. In UNESCO, _Guide for the conversion of school libraries into media centres_ (Educational studies and documents no. 22, pp. 10, 41-43). Paris: UNESCO.

Ontario. Ministry of Education. (1982). _Partners in action: The library resource centre in the school curriculum._ Toronto: Ministry of Education.

Owens, R. & Steinhoff, C. (1976). Administering change in schools. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Pfister, F.C. (1976). Library media specialists: What role should they play? In F.C. Pfister & K. Alexander, Discrepancies between actual and ideal roles and functions of Texas school librarians as perceived by school superintendents, principals and librarians: Report of a study (pp. 31-38). Bethesda, MD.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service. (ED 134 188).

Phenix, P. (1964). Realms of meaning. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Pincus, J. (1974). Incentives for innovation in public schools. Review of Educational Research, 44(1), 113-144.

Pitts, J.M. (1982). A creative search of the research concerning role expectations of library media specialists. School Library Media Quarterly, 10(2), 164-169.

Rainforth, John. (1981). Perceptions of the high school librarian (Occasional paper 27). Halifax: Dalhousie University and Dalhousie University School of Library Service.

Robb, F.C. (1984). The future connection: AASL and main trends. School Library Media Quarterly, 12(2), 120-126.

Saettler, P. (1968). A history of instructional technology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sarason, S. (1982). The culture of the school and the problem of change (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

School library agencies at the provincial level. (1984, September). NSSLA Bulletin, 12(2), 5-8.

The Schools Act, Revised Statutes of Newfoundland, 1970, Chap. 346; Amended 1974, No. 28.

Shane, H.G. (1977). Curriculum change toward the 21st century. Washington: National Education Association.

Smith, L. & Keith, P. (1971). Anatomy of educational innovation: An organizational analysis of an elementary school. New York: Wiley.

Spain, F.L. (1943). The application of school library standards. In National Society for the Study of Education, Committee on the Library in General Education, Forty-second yearbook. vol. II. The library in general education (pp. 269-292). Chicago: University of Chicago.

Spring-Gifford, C. (1983). From the editor. Alberta Learning Resources Journal, 5(4), 2-3.

Sprinthall, N. & Thies-Sprinthall, L. (1983). The teacher as an adult learner: A cognitive-developmental view. In G. Griffin (Ed.), Staff development: Eighty-second yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II (pp. 13-35). Chicago: NSSE.

Statistics Canada. (1985). [Statistics from Educational Staff Records]. Unpublished raw data.

Sullivan, P. (Ed.). (1968). Realization: The final report of the Knapp school libraries project. Chicago: American Library Association.

Toffler, A. (1970). Future shock. New York: Random House.

Tye, K.A. (1973). The elementary school principal: Key to educational change. In C.M. Culver & G.J. Hoban (Eds.), The power to change: Issues for the innovative educator (pp. 25-34). New York: McGraw-Hill.

UNESCO. (1977). Guide for the conversion of school libraries into media centres (Educational studies and documents no. 22). Paris: Author.

Wall, W.D. (1974). Libraries as resources in schools. In C. Waite & R. Coleburn (Eds.), Not by books alone: A symposium on library resources in schools (pp. 7-17). Oxford: School Library Association.

Watson, G. & Glaser, E.M. (1965). What we have learned about planning for change. Management Review, 54 (11), 34-46.

Williams, W. (1980). The implementation perspective. Berkeley, CA: University of California.

Wright, J. (1979). Canadian School Library Association: A national voice by default or design? _Emergency Librarian_, _6_ (5-6), 15-17.

Wright, J. (1981). School libraries in Canada: An overview. _School Libraries in Canada_, _1_(2), 15-17.