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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative study examined the development of the partnership between the American Library Association (ALA) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The research focused on archival documents from the ALA Archives at the University of Illinois Archives. The archival research focused on documents during the 1980s from the American Library Association Council, the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) Executive Committee and Board of Directors, professional correspondence, annual reports, and various task forces and special committees. Other archival documents were from various organizations (*i.e.* American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and NCATE) and research studies. In addition, interviews were conducted of four individuals from ALA, AASL, and NCATE. The interviews utilized open-ended questions about the participants' recollections of the past development and their professional roles related to the event. This research was examined in relation to the development of ALA and NCATE accreditation, school library media programs, related education and library national trends, and presented as a narrative.

PREFACE

The basis for this narrative is an event that occurred in 1987 at the annual conference of the American Library Association (ALA). This event was the approval of a proposal for ALA to join the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). This action allowed ALA to participate in the NCATE accreditation process by establishing the standards for school library media programs in schools and colleges of education. While this occurrence might seem to be merely a matter of procedure, it was much more. It represented a major change in the way ALA addressed the education of school library media professionals.

Since the early 1900s, ALA had a long history of ignoring the education of school librarians. Initially, the question was raised of whether school librarianship was a specialization of the library profession or a specialization of teacher education. The dual nature of school librarians was an underlying issue. As a result, ALA decided that the responsibility for educating school librarians was not a major effort for ALA-accredited library schools. In fact, ALA recommended that the National Education Association should assume that role, especially for those programs in normal schools.

Therefore, the event in 1987 at the ALA annual conference became very significant because it represented ALA making a dramatic shift from past actions of dealing with the education of school librarians. By voting approval for ALA's participation in NCATE, ALA was recognizing its responsibility to oversee the education of school librarians in colleges and schools of education. This simple procedural action would produce multiple ramifications for ALA accreditation,

NCATE accreditation, and the overall education of school librarians. Numerous questions arose from this action:

- After decades of not addressing the education of school librarians in a significant way, why did ALA want to assume responsibility for the education of school librarians?
- What factors motivated ALA to put the participation in NCATE accreditation on its agenda?
- Who were the individuals that led the movement to have ALA reconsider its role in the accreditation/endorsement of the preparation of school librarians from colleges and schools of education?
- What benefits did ALA hope to achieve by this partnership?
- What conditions had to pre-exist for ALA to be able to participate within the NCATE organization?
- How did the approval process occur within the ALA organization?

These questions became the basis for this narrative inquiry into the development of the partnership between ALA and NCATE.

The research for this narrative inquiry began with the ALA archives at the University of Illinois Library. The topical areas examined were the documents from the ALA Council, the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) Board of Directors, the AASL Executive Committee, the Committee on Accreditation, and various other committees and task forces for the time period of 1980-1989. From this archival research, two prominent people emerged: Marilyn Miller and Ann Carlson Weeks. Miller served in various elected capacities in ALA, but for this study her

most significant roles were as AASL President-Elect and President. Weeks began her term as AASL Executive Director beginning in 1986. While she also had other staff positions within ALA, her role as AASL Executive Director was most significant for this study. These two individuals became major primary sources of information for this research. In addition, June Lester was selected as a source for her role at that time as Director of the ALA Office for Accreditation beginning in 1987. Donna Gollnick and Richard Kunkel were identified as sources of information for their leadership roles within NCATE. Gollnick became the NCATE Deputy Executive Director in 1986 after serving as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) Staff Liaison to NCATE for several years. Kunkel served as Executive Director of NCATE from 1984 to 1990.

Next, interviews were conducted with Marilyn Miller, Ann Carlson Weeks, June Lester, and Donna Gollnick. Because Richard Kunkel was not available, this inquiry relied upon an interview he gave to David C. Smith (1990). These interviews were conducted almost twenty years after the events from the 1980s occurred and, as such, are oral histories. When necessary, the oral accounts were corroborated with other interviews or ALA historical documents. For example, Miller discussed the problems with the geographic location of ALA-accredited library schools and the increasing demand for school librarians in the 1970s and 1980s. Historical data was identified to corroborate those assertions by Miller and is explained in Chapter 5 of this narrative. As another illustration, when interviews referenced the differences in standards from one professional organization to another, this investigation included an examination of the different sets of standards. As further corroboration,

information was gained from articles by Miller, Gollnick, and Kunkel published in the time period investigated. The following narrative is an attempt to tell the story of the development of the partnership between ALA and NCATE in relation to the national accreditation of school library education programs. It also situates the events in the larger professionalism movement of the twentieth century.

INTRODUCTION

On July 1, 1987, at the annual national conference of the American Library Association (ALA), the ALA Council, the governing body of the organization, voted to approve Council Document #51, part 1, that ALA join the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as a specialty organization (ALA. Council 1987, 164). While this procedural action might be perceived as somewhat routine, its effect upon the library profession was considerably different. “The Council decision was historic, and it was disturbing to many because it marked a departure from the traditional program accreditation role of the Association (Miller 1989, "Forging New Partnerships…,” 3). According to a news report on the conference, the ALA/NCATE vote was the issue that caught the attention of all attendees while several ALA councilors voiced the hope that this vote would have a positive influence on the education of the next generations of school librarians (Gerhardt 1987). Furthermore, the 1987-1988 President of the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), Karen Whitney, stated in her annual report to ALA Council that it had been an historic year with “ALA’s membership in NCATE demonstrating the Association’s concern for the preparation of school library media specialists” (Whitney 1988, 5).

In order to appreciate fully the importance of ALA’s decision to participate in the NCATE accreditation process, one must review the accreditation process and ALA’s history of addressing the education of school librarians. This review will highlight how this decision was in contrast to past actions and philosophies of the Association. While much has been written on the accreditation process and the

ALA/NCATE standards developed after the partnership was formed, little has been written about how ALA's decision to become part of the NCATE accreditation process occurred. Considering that this decision was in contrast to decades of ALA decisions and philosophy, the development of the ALA/NCATE partnership certainly is a story that needs to be told. Against the backdrop of educational and social change, this narrative will present a sequence of events, a variety of personalities, and conflicting issues that ultimately led to the development of the partnership of ALA and NCATE in the national accreditation process of school library media programs. It will conclude with the suggestion that these developments fit with the larger professionalism movement of the twentieth century.

SECTION I

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

CHAPTER 1

HISTORICAL CONTEXT: ACCREDITATION

Accreditation is both a process and a condition. The process involves the assessment and enhancement of academic and educational quality through the development and use of standards. The condition provides a credential to the general public indicating that an institution and/or its programs have accepted and are fulfilling their commitment to educational quality (ALA 2005). Accreditation informs the public that the accredited college or university operates at a high level of educational quality and integrity. In the United States, the Department of Education has no centralized authority over postsecondary educational institutions. Therefore, the practice of accreditation is non-governmental, peer evaluation conducted by private educational associations of regional or national scope. The Secretary of Education, however, is required by law to publish a list of nationally recognized accrediting agencies that the Secretary determines to be reliable authorities. To be nationally recognized, an agency must meet the Secretary's procedures and criteria (United States Department of Education 2008). For more than fifty years, some type of nongovernmental agency has been responsible for coordinating accreditation. For example, the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA) was established in 1974 as a nongovernmental organization to "foster and facilitate the role of accrediting agencies in promoting and ensuring the quality and diversity of American postsecondary education" (United States Department of Education 2008, 2). COPA periodically reviewed the work of its member accrediting agencies through a process of granting recognition. COPA was dissolved in 1993 and replaced from 1994-1997

by the Commission on Recognition of Postsecondary Accreditation (CORPA). CORPA continued COPA's recognition process of accrediting agencies. Finally, in 1996 The Council on Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) was created and currently carries out a recognition function for accrediting agencies in the private, nongovernmental sector (United States Department of Education 2008). This accreditation recognition process allows higher education institutions to be eligible for certain federal funds by having accredited status from one of the agencies recognized by the Secretary. For example, an educational institution that is accredited by a nationally recognized institutional accrediting agency is able to establish eligibility to participate in the federal student financial assistance programs administered by the United States Department of Education under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended (United States Department of Education 2008). Furthermore, accreditation is important for the acceptance and transfer of college credit from one institution of higher education to another. Therefore, accreditation as a condition establishes credibility and provides recognition to individual institutions of higher education.

As a voluntary and nongovernmental process, accreditation involves self-review and peer review. In higher education, accreditation has two goals: (1) to ensure that postsecondary educational institutions and their units, schools, or programs meet appropriate standards of quality and integrity, and (2) to improve the quality of education these institutions offer (ALA. Committee on Accreditation 2006). Generally, postsecondary education involves two types of accreditation, institutional and specialized. Institutional accreditation evaluates and accredits an

institution as a whole and is usually done through regional accreditation agencies. The United States has six geographic regions with an agency that accredits college and university higher education programs.

Regional Institutional Accrediting Associations	
Regional Associations	**States Within Region**
Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools	Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Puerto Rico
New England Association of Schools and Colleges	Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont
North Central Association of Colleges and Schools	Arkansas, Arizona, Colorado, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Nebraska, Ohio, Oklahoma, New Mexico, South Dakota, Wisconsin, West Virginia, Wyoming
Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges	Alaska, Idaho, Utah, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Washington
Southern Association of Colleges and Schools	Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia
Western Association of Schools and Colleges	California, Hawaii, American Samoa, Guam

These six regional agencies are the ones recognized by the Secretary of the United States Department of Education (United States Department of Education 2009). Regional accreditation indicates that the whole institution has a minimum level of quality.

While institutional accreditation normally applies to an entire institution, specialized accreditation generally applies to programs, departments, or schools that are parts of an institution. The accredited unit may be as large as a college or school within a university or as small as a curriculum within a discipline (United States

Department of Education 2008). Specialized accreditation is often linked to professional knowledge and practices. The Secretary of the United States Department of Education has recognized specialized accrediting agencies that fall into the general categories of arts and humanities, education training, legal, community and social services, personal care and services, and healthcare. These specialized accrediting agencies include professional groups such as the American Bar Association, National Association of Schools of Music, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, American Dental Association, American Psychological Association, and many others. Specialized accreditation indicates that an institution's professional programs reflect the standards of the corresponding professions. The professions have some role in both the standard setting and the application of those standards (Smith 1990). Specialized accreditation has several benefits. It assures the public that individuals who have graduated from the accredited professional schools or programs have received a quality education within the standards and guidelines of the related profession. It also assures students that the accredited programs meet the standards of the profession that they seek to enter. Furthermore, specialized accreditation assures the profession that those new to the profession have been trained in the basic competences of the field. Accreditation in general benefits the institutions of higher education through self and peer evaluation and efforts for continuous improvement. Accreditation assures standardization among states, institutions, and programs and indicates a commitment to quality.

ALA and NCATE Accreditation

As an organization, ALA was founded in 1876 and has a mission "to provide leadership for the development, promotion, and improvement of library and information services and the profession of librarianship in order to enhance learning and ensure access to information for all" (ALA 2006). A Council and an Executive Board are the governing bodies for ALA. The Council serves as the policy-making body and Council members are elected by the general membership. The membership also elects the ALA President, who serves a three-year term as President-Elect/President/Past President; membership also elects the ALA Treasurer. An Executive Director is in charge of operations at the Chicago headquarters. The organization has eleven membership divisions, each focused on a type of library or type of library function. ALA has standing, special, interdivisional, joint and ad hoc committees. Standing committees are designated as committees of the Association or committees of Council. ALA Council in 1956 created the Committee on Accreditation, a standing committee; it formerly was the Board of Education for Librarianship that was established in 1924. This committee is responsible for the accreditation of programs leading to the first professional degree in library and information studies, which is the master's degree. ALA currently accredits programs in fifty-seven institutions of higher education in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico (ALA 2009). This committee also has the responsibility to develop and formulate standards of education for librarianship. Since 1988, ALA also participates in accreditation of master's programs with a specialty in school library media through membership and participation in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher

Education (NCATE) using standards developed by the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), one of the divisions of ALA. Currently, forty-one programs are recognized as NCATE-AASL reviewed and approved school library media education programs (ALA 2009). Within the ALA organization, the responsibility for all accreditation administrative functions is with the ALA Office of Accreditation. Historically, this office develops and supervises the accreditation process for schools of library and information science that educate and train all types of librarians (*i.e.* public, school, academic, special). But since 1988, its responsibilities include the administrative supervision of the NCATE review process. The Assistant Director of the Office of Accreditation collaborates with the Executive Director of AASL, who is the official NCATE contact person (AASL 2003). Since 2001, the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) has recognized ALA's Committee on Accreditation as a "reliable authority to determine the quality of education offered by graduate programs in the field of library and information studies" (ALA 2001).

As an organization, NCATE was founded in 1954 and is the professional accrediting organization for schools, colleges, and departments of education in the United States. It is a non-governmental alliance of thirty-three national professional education and public organizations with the mission "to help establish high quality teacher, specialist, and administrator preparation" (NCATE 2007). The governance structure of NCATE is elaborate. It has twenty-four staff members including a president, senior vice president, three vice presidents, and four directors. Five boards (*i.e.* Executive Board, Unit Accreditation Board, State Partnership Board, Specialty

Areas Studies Board, and Appeals Board) govern NCATE with board members representing the thirty-three national professional education and public organizations affiliated with NCATE. The Executive Board oversees all NCATE standards, policies, fiscal matters, selection and evaluation of the president, and the Constitution. It reviews and adopts policies and standards developed by the Unit Accreditation Board, the State Partnership Board, and the Specialty Areas Studies Board. NCATE currently accredits 632 colleges of education. It is an agency authorized by the federal government to accredit units within colleges and universities that prepare classroom teachers and other preK-12 school personnel (NCATE 2007). In the NCATE accreditation process is a structure for recognizing the unique educational requirements of the specializations within the teaching profession, such as school library media personnel. Specialty area professional associations may gain NCATE membership and then participate as Specialized Professional Associations (SPA) within NCATE in the development of the accreditation standards and evaluation process for the specialty area programs in colleges of education. The Specialty Areas Studies Board approves professional education standards and is responsible for developing the rules and procedures for approving program standards and making recommendations in the accreditation review process (NCATE 2007). Both the United States Department of Education and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation recognize NCATE as a professional accrediting body for teacher education (NCATE 2007).

ALA and NCATE have played significant roles in the accreditation of school library media specialist preparation programs in institutions of higher education for

many years. Over the years, their individual roles have been in different areas and perhaps, occasionally, at odds with each other. The United States Department of Education currently recognizes the CHEA, a non-governmental overseer and coordinator of higher education accreditation activities, to facilitate the role of accrediting bodies in postsecondary education. CHEA has recognized ALA as the accrediting agency for graduate programs in library and information studies. Furthermore, CHEA has recognized NCATE as the national accrediting agency of professional education units responsible for the preparation of K-12 professional educators within institutions of higher education. As a result, both ALA and NCATE oversee programs that produce school library media specialists. Traditionally, ALA has accredited master's degree programs of library and information studies in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico. Therefore, a school library media specialist from an ALA accredited program would have graduated with a master's degree from a school of library and information studies. On the other hand, NCATE accredits schools, colleges, and departments of education in the United States. It has the responsibility of overseeing college and university programs for the preparation of all teachers and other professional school personnel for the elementary and secondary levels. Throughout most of the twentieth century, a school library media specialist who graduated with a degree from an NCATE program very likely would have a bachelor's degree in education with specified hours in traditional library science or in instructional technology courses.

In the early 1980s the drive for ALA's participation in the NCATE accreditation process primarily came from within AASL. In 1983 an attempt was

made by AASL to join NCATE; AASL petitioned the ALA Executive Board for permission to join NCATE but the request was denied (Gerhardt 1987). Four years later, the ALA Council voted to approve Council Document #51, part 1, that ALA join NCATE as a specialty organization (ALA. Council 1987, 164). By joining NCATE, ALA was able to participate in the development of the accreditation standards and the evaluation process for the school library media programs offered in colleges of education. As a result of this partnership, ALA would oversee the development of accreditation standards for school library media preparation programs accredited through both schools of library and information studies and colleges of education.

CHAPTER 2

DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND SCHOOL LIBRARIANS

Early Development of School Libraries

The development of school libraries in America was slow and lagged behind the growth of public libraries. Attempts to create school libraries came from New York State as early as 1812 when Governor Tompkins in his annual message called attention to the importance of a "judicious selection of books for use in the schools" (Vought 1923, 161). In 1827 Governor Clinton suggested the wisdom of having a small collection of books in each school district. No action resulted from either governor's suggestions. In 1833 the Commissioner of Common Schools of New York State expressed the idea that "if the inhabitants of the school districts were authorized to levy a tax upon their property for the purpose of purchasing libraries for the use of the district, such power might, with proper restrictions, become a most efficient instrument for the diffusion of useful knowledge and in elevating the intellectual character of the people" (Vought 1923, 161). Finally, the New York state legislature passed a bill in 1835 that allowed school districts to use some of their funding to establish and maintain school libraries. The law enabled the taxpayers in any school district to vote a tax not to exceed $20 to purchase a district library, and "such further sum as they may deem necessary for the purchase of a bookcase" with an additional levy in any subsequent year not exceeding $10 "for the purpose of making additions to the district library" (Vought 1923, 161). Further New York legislation in 1839 created matching-fund monies for school districts that established libraries. Other states including Massachusetts, Michigan, Connecticut, and Rhode

Island passed similar legislation. This early movement for school libraries failed for a variety of reasons but especially due to the limited availability of quality children's materials, poor school library facilities, and the growth of public libraries. However, this early support for school libraries "is important historically for two reasons: the principle was established that a library facility in a school could have some educational value and a precedent was created for the use of public funds to support these libraries" (Morris 2004, 3).

Later support for libraries in schools came with the promotion of public library services to schools. In 1889 John Cotton Dana, librarian for Denver Public Library, started the practice of loaning books to teachers for use as "school libraries." Dana further developed the link between public libraries and schools at a national level by promoting close ties between ALA and NEA. With Melvil Dewey, Dana petitioned librarians and educators to form a school library section within NEA. At the NEA annual conference in 1896, Dewey urged the members to form a library department within the association. Dewey emphasized that the library was as much a part of the educational system as the school and should be recognized as such, but he maintained that the library and school should be separate. In fact, he requested that NEA not use the word "school" in the name of their division but instead call it the "Library Section." NEA responded by creating its Library Department in 1896 (Pond 1998). Not until several years later did ALA form its School Library Section through a movement spearheaded by several normal school and high school librarians. At the 1914 ALA annual conference the Normal and High School Librarians' Round Table presented a petition to the ALA Council to establish a School Library Section.

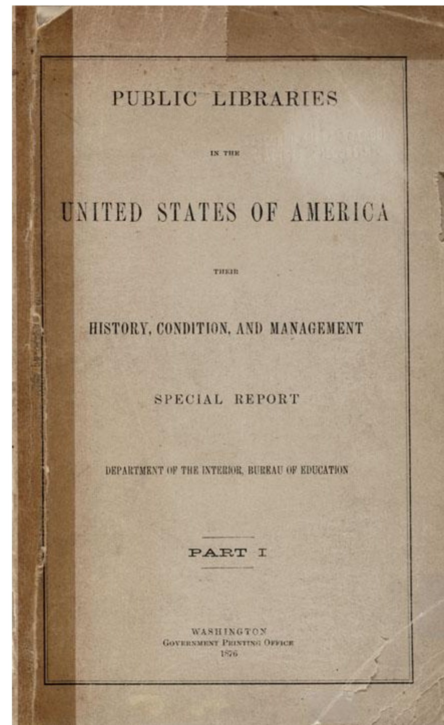
Council approved the petition creating the division that later became known as the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) (Pond 1998). By creating school library sections within the national groups of NEA and ALA, both teacher and librarian professionals recognized the importance of libraries within schools. Furthermore, the development of these school library groups in both national professional organizations emphasized the distinct nature of school librarianship.

At the state level, New York State again led the way in developing support for school libraries. In 1892 the New York State legislature passed a law to provide money for school districts on a matching-fund basis to purchase library books. The matching-fund distribution of money eventually was replaced with a formula based on student population (Vought 1923). Furthermore, the New York Department of Public Instruction created a School Libraries Division in 1892. In 1910 New York State became the first state to include a High School Library Section within the New York State Teachers Association (Morris 2004). Through these actions, both teachers and librarians began to recognize the value of school libraries.

> A well equipped school library under the management of a trained librarian has convinced many a school man that it is the vital organ of the school…. No small part of this change of attitude has been due to the harmonious relations brought about by the Library Department of the N. E. A. which has brought teachers and librarians together for mutual understanding and mutual discussion. (Vought 1923, 164)

With New York's leadership, other states also began to support school libraries through legislative action and financial aid.

The initial development of school libraries was centered in the secondary schools. In 1876 the United States Bureau of Education published the report *Public Libraries in the United States of America: Their History, Condition and Management* which gave information on not only public libraries but also other libraries. According to this report, only 826 secondary school libraries were in existence in the United States and their collections totaled only 1,000,000 volumes (United States Bureau of Education 1876). Based on statistics in 1913, the high school library had become a fixed part of schools with approximately 90 percent of the high schools in the United States having a collection of books for use by students and teachers (Greenman 1913). Significantly, no reports were made about elementary school libraries in the various reports. However, in 1900 the School Libraries Division of the New York Department of Public Instruction issued in its annual report a statement encouraging the development of libraries in elementary schools:


PUBLIC LIBRARIES
IN THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
THEIR
HISTORY, CONDITION, AND MANAGEMENT
SPECIAL REPORT
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION
PART I
WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1876

> A small library is becoming indispensable to the teacher 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 . . . . It is evident that a carefully selected library of the best books should be found in every grammar school. (New York Department of Public Instruction 1900, 28-29)

Even with this encouragement from the Department of Public Instruction, little attention was given to elementary libraries as evidenced by the New York State Teachers Association having created *only* a High School Library Section in 1910. Furthermore, the first graduates of library schools to become school librarians were placed in high schools. As Mary Hall, librarian at the Brooklyn Girls High School, noted in 1915, "Since 1905 more than 50 library school graduates have been appointed to high school positions, 10 of these being in New York City" (Hall 1915, 631). Overall, libraries in schools were becoming a more common occurrence by 1915. As Hall described, "Boards of education are rapidly being convinced that the establishment and maintenance of high school libraries on a modern basis is a paying investment in all that such a library means in the life of a high school . . . and principals are urging that it be considered not only a recognized department of the school but the most important department, inasmuch as its work affects that of all other departments" (Hall 1915, 631). By the 1920s educators were recognizing the importance of libraries in elementary schools. Some realized that the elementary school library was far more important than the high school library since only a small portion of students entered high school and because the reading habit was developed during the elementary years. In a 1927 study of the involvement of state governments in school libraries, fourteen states had specific requirements for elementary school libraries while thirty-nine states had similar specifications for high school libraries (Koos 1927).

The beginning of the library in both the secondary and elementary schools focused on the library as a place for books. Most of the early legislation from the

states had the intention of providing funds to purchase and maintain a collection of books. For example, New York's 1892 law even made specifications about the types of books that could be purchased: only books from the state's approved list which were reference books, books related to the curriculum and pedagogical books for teacher use (Vought 1923). Other states had similar requirements and some even specified that the books were to stay in the school but that teachers, administrators, and students could occasionally borrow a single book for a period not to exceed two weeks (Morris 2004). Early reports, such as the 1876 Bureau of Education's *Public Libraries in the United States of America: Their History, Condition and Management*, emphasized the number of volumes contained in school libraries. The quality of the school library clearly was measured by its collection of books, as described in 1913 by Edward Greenman of the United States Bureau of Education Library:

> Most of them are small collections of reference and textbooks, poorly quartered, unclassified and neither cataloged nor readily accessible for constant use. Of the 10,000 public high school libraries in the country at the present time, not more than 250 possess collections containing 3000 volumes or over. (Greenman 1913, 184)

Early standards for school libraries reflected this focus on the library as a collection of books by emphasizing numbers of volumes as a basis for quality and accreditation.

Development of School Librarianship

References to the school librarian prior to 1900 are limited and reflect the view of the librarian as the "keeper of the books." From early times, the position of

school librarian presented problems to school officials. Mary Hall, an early high school librarian in New York City, discussed the problem in 1909:

> She is something of an anomaly, and boards of education and school superintendents do not know exactly where to place her. Shall she be ranked as teacher, clerk, laboratory assistant, or what? In the catalog of some schools she and the janitor bring up the rear in the list of workers. Her status is not yet determined, and it remains for her to prove by her work where she shall eventually be classed in the school system. (Hall 1909, 154)

The 1835 New York state law that allowed school districts to use some of their funding to establish and maintain school libraries also specified "the clerk of the district, or any person whom the taxable inhabitants might designate was to act as librarian" (Vought 1923, 161). From this description, the position of librarian had no specific requirements or responsibilities. Similarly, the 1892 New York legislation also made reference to appointing a school librarian and stated that the duties were to "be responsible for the care and use of the library" (Vought 1923, 161). Often, the school librarian was simply a classroom teacher who had care of the library "thrust upon them as an additional burden" (Hall 1915, 630). These teachers often defined their role in the school library by purchasing with their own money attractive editions of books and lending them to students, collecting pictures and clipping for a vertical file, and filling the windows with growing plants to make the room attractive. These librarians were the exception rather than the rule (Hall 1915). By 1934 ALA used the term "teacher-librarian" to be a "person trained to give service both as teacher and librarian whose position requires part-time service in each field" (Fargo 1936, 16).

Reflecting the trend of public libraries providing services to schools, in 1895 a branch of the public library opened in the Central High School of Cleveland, Ohio with Effie L. Power in charge as the trained librarian. Four years later, the Newark, New Jersey Public Library started a similar branch in the Barringer High School providing an annual appropriation for books and cataloging but providing no trained librarian. Other cooperative arrangement for high school branches were found in various cities in Oregon, Wisconsin, Missouri, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. In these arrangements the high school branch libraries under the control of the board of education and public library (Hall 1915). Another arrangement was in Illinois where the Haven School library operated as a branch of the Evanston Public Library for the community after the school closed for the day. When the school librarian, Mildred L. Batchelder, finished her work at the end of the school day, public librarians came in to take over for the late afternoon and evening. The public library officials hoped the school board would realize the value of having the school libraries and begin to provide funds to cover materials and costs. Batchelder, however, hoped that once the public library demonstrated the value and need for a school library it would then "get out and let the schools take over their own libraries" (Ziarnik 2003, 9). Other libraries followed this example with a public librarian responsible for attending and cataloging the books in the school library. These situations operated under a cooperative arrangement between the board of education and the public library.

Other cities and school boards recognized the importance of developing a school library through the appointment of a librarian with some training who could

devote her whole time to work in the school library instead of closing the library part of the day as she taught certain classes or as she worked in the public library. The first professionally trained school librarian hired to work in a school was Mary Kingsbury in Brooklyn in 1900 (Hall 1915). While most early school librarians had only the responsibility of attending to the books (*i.e.* organizing and cataloging), a few attempted to introduce students in the use of a library. In 1880 Mary W. Hinman of Laporte, Indiana, read a paper at a meeting of the NEA entitled "The Practical Use of Reference Books" which advocated teaching the use of reference books to the children (Vought 1923). One pioneer in the instructional role of the school librarian was Florence M. Hopkins at Central High School in Detroit, Michigan. Miss Hopkins outlined a course of eight lessons that were considered of such value to the English students that credit was granted in the Department of English for work done in connection with these library talks and quizzes. Also, in 1898 Laura M. Mann at Central High School in Washington, D. C. conducted similar lessons in use of the library (Hall 1915). As early as 1909 Mary Hall, librarian at Girls' High School Library in Brooklyn, advocated that beyond the librarian's basic responsibility of "making the resources of the library available and then making them known," she must provide "some instruction in the use of catalog, reference books, and books in general" (Hall 1909, 155, 157). While some interest was made in the instructional role of the school librarian, most early school librarians focused on the more clerical work of maintaining a collection of books. This role was more in tune with the prevailing classroom instructional methods of the time. With the classroom focused on the teacher and the textbook in its traditional approach to education, students had

little need of other resources from the library or instruction in use of reference books. As the position of elementary school librarian developed, three types of roles were distinguished according to the school organization or objective:

> (1) book custodian serving in usually a small or poorly financed school in a traditional way where custodianship is the only possibility;
>
> (2) library-laboratory teacher, who is essentially a reading teacher in charge of a reading room part-time or full-time;
>
> (3) teacher-librarian who because of various reasons, one of which is the smallness of the school, divide his time between classroom teaching and general library duties. (Fargo 1936, 19)

Schools generally recognized the need to have someone oversee the library if for no other reason than to maintain the collection. Slowly, the need expanded to having more professionally trained professionals as school librarian.

From an early time in the development of school libraries, much consideration was given to the professional status of the school librarian. Debate focused on whether school librarianship was a separate profession, a specialized form of library service, or a specialization of the teaching profession. Lucile Fargo, a prominent school librarian in the early twentieth century, explained the school librarian to be a specialist.

> The ideal school librarian is the one who builds a solid foundation compounded of the knowledge and techniques known as library science and of the arts and skills known as the theory and practice of education. On the library side are book evaluation and acquisition, and the techniques involved

in handling books as the tools of information and recreation, including cataloging and classifying. On the school side are knowledge of school organization and methods and the psychology of education. (Fargo 1933, xi)

Fargo admitted that librarians and educators had differences of opinion regarding the library role vs. the teacher role for school librarians. After interviewing principals and superintendents, she concluded that the educators' view was that the school librarian should know *how* to do all the things that a teacher does but not actually *do* them. Furthermore, the librarian was expected to comprehend classroom techniques but not necessarily practice them. The librarian should "understand the teacher's problems and point of view in curriculum making and lesson planning so that aid may be given with sureness and intelligence" while providing assistance to instruction by presenting material organized for school use by teachers and students (Fargo 1933, 31). In addition, "the only really legitimate classroom instruction carried on by the school librarian is instruction on how to use the library" (Fargo 1933, 32). Therefore, knowledge of teaching and curriculum was important for the librarian but should not be over emphasized in relation to her other qualifications as librarian. Fargo further tried to distinguish the functions of a school librarian by contrasting the role with that of a teacher. A modified version of her chart follows.

Functions of Teachers vs. Functions of Librarians

(Fargo 1936, 46)
adapted by Gann 2009

Functions of Teachers	**Functions of Librarians**
Reading	
Teaching mechanics, diagnosis of difficulties, giving tests, drill work, etc. Discussing books read, helping pupils interpret, etc.	Reporting mechanical difficulties, providing books to suit diagnoses, assisting pupils in reading choices, advertising desirable titles, etc.

Motivation	
Creation of desire for information through discussion, projects, class work.	Provision of materials for satisfaction of class-motivated activities. Advertising materials by means of exhibits and personal contacts. Creation of reading "atmosphere."
Lesson Planning	
Delimitation of subject field or of units of work, decisions as to method of presentation, outcomes, etc.	Bibliographic assistance to teachers with lists and reference aid.
Curriculum	
Building the curriculum.	Understanding of curriculum objectives. Bibliographic aid---finding collateral materials, making lists.
Instruction	
Classroom instruction in subject matter fields.	Group or individual instruction in use of library tools.
Supervision	
Careful attention to individual study habits, to progress in assigned work, the growth of skill, the mastery of subject matter.	General supervision of groups and individuals working in library; maintenance of atmosphere conducive to happy, purposeful work. Supervision of professional staff or pupil aides.
Book Selection	
Recommendation of printed materials suited to curriculum needs, free reading, etc. in subject taught.	Suggestions as to general reading and curriculum materials; prevention of duplication; expert advice as to editions, publishers, etc. Development of well-rounded collection. Provision of general interest materials and reference aids.
Extra-curricular Activities	
Responsibility for one or more.	Encouragement and follow up of *all* extra-curricular activities with lists, exhibits, new books, and other pertinent materials.

While Fargo's declarations provided some initial clarification on the librarian role vs. the teacher role, the issue continued to be a topic of debate throughout the twentieth century not only in defining the role within the school but also in providing education for school librarians.

Progressive Education and School Library Development

Progressivism in American education is closely associated with Joseph Neef, a co-worker of Pestalozzi, who taught in Philadelphia and Louisville; Horace Mann who in 1844 observed the Pestalozzian method in Europe and returned to Massachusetts as an enthusiastic supporter; and Francis Wayland Parker who as a principal and superintendent in Massachusetts expressed his commitment to creative self expression and play as methods of learning (Howick 1980). Perhaps the name most associated with progressive education in America is John Dewey (1859-1952). Even though the ideas of progressivism had been prevalent for many years, their applications to education came with Dewey's publication of *School and Society* in1899.

The term "progressive education" is difficult to define. As expressed by Lawrence A. Cremin:

> The reader will search these pages in vain for any capsule definition of progressive education. None exists, and none ever will; for throughout its history progressive education meant different things to different people, and these differences were only compounded by the remarkable diversity of American education. (Cremin 1961, x)

While much disagreement exists about the real meaning of progressive education, there is general agreement that the progressive movement in education started just before 1900 and had established its central innovations by 1920, although the Progressive Education Association (PEA) was founded only in 1919 and the association as well as the movement continued until the 1950s. Most also agree that

progressive education rejected the traditional curriculum and its methods of rote learning in favor of a child-centered curriculum that emphasized student interests and activities related to the larger society (Tozer, Violas, and Senese 2002). The meaning of progressive education for John Dewey differed from the meaning as it was generally understood at the time. For most educators and observers during the progressive era, education was progressive because it was new and different from "traditional" education and because it was thought to result from and contribute to social progress in general. For Dewey, however, the primary meaning of progressive education was that it marked an arrangement of student activities that grew progressively out of the student's interest and past experiences, leading to new experiences and new interests in a continuous and progressive cycle. For Dewey, education that did not grow organically from the student in this way was not progressive at all (Tozer, Violas, and Senese 2002).

While defining progressive education is difficult, its methods are consistently identified as being in contrast to traditional education methods, such as rote learning, subject-specific curriculum, inflexibility, memorization, formality, passivity, conformity, irrelevancy, and competition. Dewey criticized traditional methods and curriculum that were predominant in American schools at the end of the nineteenth century.

> It is our present education which is highly specialized, one-sided, and narrow. It is an education dominated almost entirely by the mediaeval conception of learning. It is something which appeals for the most part simply to the intellectual aspect of our natures, our desire to learn, to accumulate

> information, and to get control of the symbols of learning; not to our impulses and tendencies to make, to do, to create, to produce . . . . (Dewey 1990, 26)

His opposition to traditional educational methods can best be illustrated in his reference to a visit of a school supply company where he was looking for student desks. Realizing that the desks were intended to be rigidly placed in rows and secured to the floor in straight lines, Dewey saw them as representative of the "old education" which focused on listening and absorbing from a book, passivity of attitude, mechanical massing of children, uniformity of curriculum and method (Dewey 1990). This approach made " the center of gravity outside the child" with the emphasis on the teacher, the textbook, and anything but the instincts and activities of the child (Dewey 1990, 34). Dewey proposed a "complete transformation" of American education that would emphasize active occupations, a change in the moral school atmosphere and in discipline, and the introduction of more active self-direction. "To do this means to make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science" (Dewey 1990, 29). Not only did Dewey propose change in the relationship between the school and the larger community, but he also proposed change in the way the school approached the education and development of the child within the school. With his new approach, the child became the center "about which the appliances of education revolve" (Dewey1990, 34). Once the focus for the school is child-centered, education becomes more of a "drawing out" rather than a "pouring in" process. Educators should provide direction for the child's natural activities, impulses, and interests

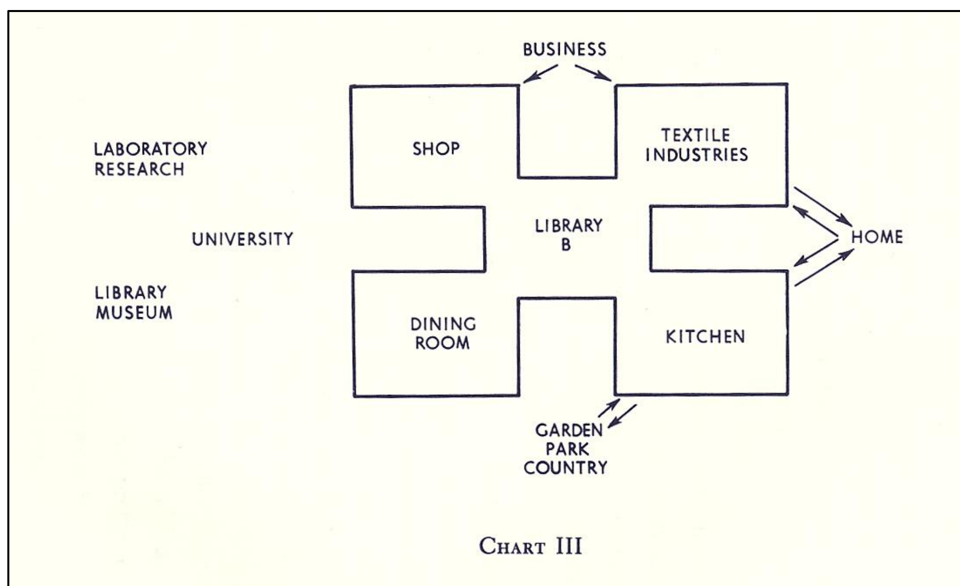
(Dewey1990, 36-37). From these basic tenets of Dewey's philosophy come many of the educational methods of the progressive movement.

In Dewey's development of the ideas and practices associated with progressive education, he expressed many ideas regarding the school library that changed its current role within the school and had lasting effects on school libraries today. Perhaps the most obvious effect Dewey had on libraries is seen through his comments about the library's position and role within the school. In his chapter "Waste in Education" from *School and Society*, first published in 1900, Dewey initially described libraries in a somewhat traditional sense as places "where the best resources of the past are gathered, maintained, and organized" (Dewey 1990, 78). This description reflects the traditional idea of libraries serving as depositories or warehouses of organized collections of books. Dewey, however, went on to further state that libraries are collections of "intellectual resources of all kinds" (Dewey 1990, 79). The distinction in this description is with the reference to materials *of all kinds* which suggests that library collections contain more than just books. While Dewey's description may be an insignificant reference in his overall discussion, it did follow current thinking in the library world (*i.e.* early 1900s). In 1918, after several years of committee work, the first set of national standards for school libraries was issued in the form of a report from the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment (CLOE) within the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association (NEA). The report, known as the "Certain Standards" in honor of the committee chairman Charles C. Certain, was adopted by NEA and the North Central Association in 1918 and by the American Library Association (ALA)

in 1920. One of the basic ideas established in this document, in Standard III, was the inclusion of "all material used in the school for visual instruction" in the school library collection (CLOE 1920, 21). These visual materials included stereopticon slides, moving picture films, pictures, maps, globes, bulletin board material, etc. and any equipment necessary to display the material. This idea for an all-inclusive collection is still a basic principle in school libraries today as described in the 1998 set of national school library standards, entitled *Information Power* and published by the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) and the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT): "The school library media center has moved far beyond a room with books to become an active, technology-rich learning environment with an array of information resources" (AASL and AECT 1998, 1). The 1998 standards also emphasized the mission for school libraries was in part accomplished by providing intellectual and physical access to materials in all formats (AASL and AECT 1998, 6). The inclusion of these "non-book materials" reflected Dewey's idea of the library collection containing "intellectual resources of all kinds." Whether Dewey's description of the library collection had any real effect on the development of library standards is unknown, but the significance lies in the fact that a "non-librarian" recognized the place for more than just books in a school library collection prior to the written library standards that stated the same idea. Certainly, Dewey's attitude may have made it easier for other educators and librarians to make the same conclusion.

Another important reference to the school library comes from Dewey in his description of the placement of the library facility within the school. From the

chapter "Waste in Education" from *School and Society* published in 1899, Dewey described his idea for construction of the school building. On the outer edges of his school would be areas for the dining room, kitchen, metal shop, and textile room, but the center of the school is the library. Dewey stated, "The center represents the manner in which all come together in the library" (Dewey 1990, 79). Dewey also included a diagram to illustrate his idea for the building that shows the placement of the library in relation to the other areas. His placement of the library in the center of the school building reflects his idea that the library was the intellectual center of the school.



Dewey's 1899 Representation of the School Building

(Dewey 1990, 81)

Dewey further emphasized the role of the library in relation to the idea of the recitation room:

> That is the place where the children bring the experiences, the problems, the questions, the particular facts which they have found, and discuss them so that new light may be thrown upon them, particularly new light from the experience of others, the accumulated wisdom of the world—symbolized in the library. (Dewey 1990, 85)

His description of the central location for the library is significant. Once again, Dewey stated an important concept about the school library before the library world proclaimed a similar idea. Dewey's description clearly placed the school library in a centralized location within the overall school building which made it accessible from all learning areas; he even included a diagram to illustrate this point (Dewey 1990). In the 1918 set of national school library standards, the "Certain Standards," Standard I required the library be centrally located within the school building and that it be freely accessible to students (CLOE 1920). This library standard clearly reflects Dewey's earlier description and drawing of the library's placement with the school. This concept has become an important element of school library design still considered today. Facility designers emphasize that when planning a new school building, the location of the library should be discussed in relation to easy access from all learning areas of the school. Often this means placing the library in a central location (Erikson and Markuson 2001, 2004). Clearly, Dewey's ideas about the inclusive nature of the collection and the central location of the library within the overall school building reflect very basic guidelines established for school libraries in the early twentieth century and which are still significant today.

Perhaps, even more significant than the centralized location of the library within the school building was Dewey's suggestion that the school library play a central role in the education of students. By emphasizing physical accessibility to the library within the school, Dewey was recognizing the importance of the library in the educational process. Dewey clearly associated the university or college as "a place of research, where investigation is going on : a place of libraries . . . " (Dewey 1990, 78). After all, the basic idea underlying research is "careful, systematic, patient study and investigation in some field of knowledge" and to do research is to "investigate thoroughly" (Neufeldt 1988, 1141). The school library is an obvious connection between an investigative approach to learning in all subject areas. Dewey emphasized this when he described the importance of the book or reading in education. "Harmful as a substitute for experience, it is all-important in interpreting and expanding experience" (Dewey 1990, 85). The library, as the location of books and reading, plays a central part in the investigative nature of education. Dewey further explained that at the heart of learning is the spirit or attitude of inquiry (Dewey 1990). Dewey's emphasis on the nature of education as investigation and inquiry opened the door for the major role the school library would play in that process. As educators began to practice Dewey's ideas in the classrooms of the early-to-mid 1900s, the importance of the library in the school became more obvious.

While early school libraries often were used for little more than storage rooms or study halls, many school librarians saw the need for change. One early school librarian, Mary Hall, recognized that due to modern methods of teaching (*i.e.* those proposed by Dewey) "the library may be made the very center of the school

work" (Hall 1909, 154). Several years later, another librarian, Hannah Logasa, voiced a similar observation, "The tendency toward the adoption of progressive methods of classroom instruction has made the library an indispensable part of the equipment of the modern high school (Logasa 1928, vii). Logasa further explained the library's importance by indicating that unlike any other department the school library has the unique role of coming in contact with every student and unifying the entire school through the correlation of one department with another. "All departments, if they have kept up with the modern tendencies in education, will find some use of the library essential in their work" (Logasa 1928, 9). This view is somewhat similar to Dewey's description of the library in relation to the idea of the recitation room (Dewey 1990). Another early school library innovator, Lucile Fargo, described this change in the role of the school library through the adoption of progressive methods in the classrooms:

> It is obvious that the library stands in a far more vital relationship than before. Under the older tradition, books other than texts were desirables; in the new school they are indispensables. They are not the accompaniment of the school's activities; they are its warp and woof. (Fargo 1930, 32)

As Dewey's investigative approach to education and learning through a spirit of inquiry began to change classroom practices, the role of the school library became more important in the educational process. Teaching methods shifted from memorization, teacher instruction, and use of a single textbook to individualized instruction, recognition of student differences, and the use of multiple resources.

"The logical source for the materials was a well-stocked, well-administered school library" (Morris 2004, 6).

While school librarians generally were not at the forefront of the progressive movement, many librarians did embrace progressive ideas. Applying Dewey's emphasis on a more active approach to learning with less emphasis on textbooks, librarian Mary Hall in 1909 recognized the importance of the library in meeting these new educational goals.

> Modern methods of teaching lay more and more stress upon the use of the library as a working laboratory for all departments, a means of supplementing the regular text-book work in the class-room by the use of books and illustrative material so as to give the pupil a broader view of the subject and awaken an interest which may lead to further reading on his own account. (Hall 1909, 154)

In a later article, Hall described the library as "a laboratory for special topic work and collateral reading in connection with the subjects in the curriculum" (Hall 1915, 627). Recognizing the importance of non-textbook materials, Hall housed in the library and supported the use of art, lithographs, maps, charts, lantern slides, pictures, clippings, and Victrola records (Hall 1915). In discussing the educational revolution librarian Lucile Fargo quoted Dewey when she described the new school as "an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science" (Fargo 1930, 30). She also noted how the new progressive methods had increased the importance of the library through new demand for library materials: "It is obvious

that the library stands in a far more vital relationship than before. Under the older tradition, books other than texts were desirables; in the new school they are indispensables" (Fargo 1930, 32). In identifying the objectives of the library within the overall school organization, librarian Hannah Logasa reflected the Dewey idea of an active approach to learning when she stated that the library was "to serve as the laboratory and workroom of the school" (Logasa 1928, 13). Another school librarian, Florence Hopkins voiced her strong support of the progressive supplemental reading program by describing her library as a "laboratory of books" (Hopkins 1910, 57). Librarians Grace Aldrich and Cecil Flemming at New York's Horace Mann School also described their library as a laboratory.

> The Elementary School uses the library as a laboratory in which pupils practice reading and finding. The High School uses it as a laboratory for thinking and developing and using effective methods of work. (Aldrich and Flemming 1937, 403)

These early descriptions of the library as a laboratory reflect the third natural instinct of children as identified by Dewey, "the instinct of investigation," or inquiry, finding out things (Dewey 1990, 44-47). The process of investigation involves inquiry, activity, research, and experimentation. These are all activities closely related to research in the library. Another reference to Dewey's description of a child's natural instincts can be found when Logasa described the services of a school library. In identifying one aim of the school library as "to help them [the pupils] discover their own creative abilities and aptitudes" (Logasa 1928, 14), Logasa indirectly reflected the "constructive impulse" or the instinct of making and the "expressive impulse" or

the art instinct as identified by Dewey (Dewey 1990, 44). In describing the importance of early experiences in school and libraries, Logasa used one of Dewey's phrases when she stated that students must begin early "to act as a result of reflective thinking, rather than relying entirely upon instinct or impulse" (Logasa 1928, 83). As chief of school libraries in the New York Department of Education in 1921, Sherman Williams expressed progressive ideas when he encouraged school librarians to support school curricula, realize that textbooks were old-fashioned, and recognize differences in students' abilities (Williams 1921). These early librarians voiced direct support of school library reform by embracing many of Dewey's basic ideas.

From this basic support of Dewey's ideas, many school librarians developed new methods of operation and practices. During the 1920s, for example, Rosemary Livsey supported the change from the traditional method of recitation as described by Dewey (Dewey 1990, 54-56). As Livsey stated,

> Expression is the keynote of the new in education, individual expression, and experimentation. Our boys and girls are learning thru living, actually taking part in the doing of each activity, that each may have the enrichment of his own experience. (Livsey 1925, 740)

Livsey adopted in her library the concepts of "individual expression," "project," and "ability grouping through book selection" (Livsey 1925, 740). She encouraged active involvement by leading children in games and skits to teach them simple library rules. She believed active involvement would help children learn better than they would had with the former lecture method (Livsey 1925, 741-742). Another librarian, Marie Hostetter, employed ideas from Dewey when she encouraged young readers to

browse the shelves in freedom: "the pupils are permitted and even encouraged to leave their seats and browse at will among the open-shelf stacks" (Hostetter 1925, 515). Her goal was to encourage choices for students within the context of a "library-centered curriculum" (Hostetter 1925, 517). Realizing that the library was the "mental workshop, the laboratory, the center of the intellectual and cultural life of the school," librarian May Ingles insisted that freedom, easy access to shelves, encouragement to browse, and providing what students want were necessary for modern use of the library (Ingles 1928, 163). Ingles also expressed other progressive ideas such as encouraging cooperation over competition, emphasizing the individual, and helping all children find their "rightful place in society" (Ingles 1928, 159). Ingles believed that through modern use of the school library with books as the "tools of the age," such progressive goals as encouraging students' initiative, interests, and self-direction would be accomplished with more certainty than they would through the methods of the repressive libraries of the past (Ingles 1928, 159-160). Librarians Grace Aldrich and Cecil Flemming also practiced informality, easy access to materials, and browsing. Books were not separated by grade level so children were free to pursue their interests unrestricted. For them, browsing time was especially important. They rejected criticism that browsing was aimless activity. Similar to Ingles, Aldrich and Flemming referred to books as tools and as a secondary source (Aldrich and Flemming 1937, 393-395). These examples show that progressive practices became common not only in classrooms but also in school libraries.

During this time period one of the most significant areas of applying progressive methods to school libraries was with the role of the librarian. From early

times, school librarians were often nothing more than the "keeper of the books" or the "study hall monitor." Much early school library reform focused on improving the role of the librarian by making him/her more of a teacher with equal status to the classroom teacher. One early librarian reformer, Althea Currin, focused on the instructional role of the librarian. Applying progressive methods to the school library, Currin realized that the old lecture method was notoriously ineffective not only in the classroom but also in the school library. She emphasized that every point must be approached from the perspective of the student: "When we lecture, we destroy" (Currin 1929, 434). Rather than lecture about the *Readers' Guide*, for example, Currin found that a game connected to a classroom assignment worked much better and stayed with students longer. By using this approach, Currin was making the activity more "child centered," a Dewey concept. Currin also used small groups and contracts when working with students (Currin 1929, 434-435). Overall, Currin's approach followed Dewey's idea that school should be reflective of real life and that for students to learn there first must be some real-life purpose to their activity. In Currin's case, the real-life purpose was the classroom assignment. Another librarian at the forefront in emphasizing the instructional role of the librarian was Doris Doyle. She questioned the real purpose of the librarian when she stated,

> The real librarian's responsibility is not to be a keeper of books, to check out books, to take in books, and to return them to the shelves. The real contribution of the librarian is in his work with boys and girls . . . . The librarian who is really meeting his responsibility will spend more time in the

> classrooms and laboratories in contact with students than in the library itself. (Doyle 1938, 236)

At New York's Horace Mann School, librarians Aldrich and Flemming's approach to instruction reflected the Dewey idea of instruction being "child centered." Library instruction was limited, short, as simple as possible, and related to student and classroom needs. Lessons were usually to introduce a new aide needed for an assignment (Aldrich and Flemming 1937). They explained their philosophy on library instruction: "We start always and only from the child's need, and give him, at any particular time, only enough to satisfy that need and produce for him a feeling of power to do" (Aldrich and Flemming 1937, 403-404). Reflecting a similar philosophy toward library instruction was Frieda Heller, librarian at the University School of Ohio State University, where her library was seen as a combination of reading room, workshop, and laboratory. Her approach to instruction in the use of books and libraries was informal. As the needs for such library skills presented themselves, instruction was given by the librarian, the classroom teacher, or by both working together (Heller 1937). Heller also followed Dewey's idea that learning should not be in isolation. As Dewey expressed, "One trouble is that the subject-matter in question was learned in isolation . . . it was segregated when it was acquired and hence is so disconnected from the rest of experience that it is not available under the actual conditions of life" (Dewey 1938, 48). For Heller and other librarians at the time, Dewey's idea meant that library skills instruction should be integrated into the subject areas and serve an actual need. Library skills should not be taught as a

separate library curriculum. For Heller, in every instance the library instruction was integrated into a class situation.

> Instruction in books and library materials is not given as a superimposed task. When there is no felt need for it, such instruction usually misses fire and fails to carry over because there is no spark. Pupil purposing is felt to be necessary to true learning. It is believed to be more effective to guide pupils as the need arises---for then the actual situation is meaningful. (Heller 1937, 418)

Not only did Heller support a more child-centered, integrated approach to library skills instruction by teaching them at the time of need, she also promoted another progressive method in encouraging collaborative work by students. This approach to student work reflects Dewey's notion that school work should be a "natural form of co-operation," "mutual assistance," "a spirit of free communication, of interchange of ideas, suggestions . . ." (Dewey 1990, 16). At Heller's school, when a subject was chosen for study by a class, the librarian led the entire class in discussing the "points of attack and the materials of probable aid to them in their study" (Heller 1937, 417). Then the class would divide into groups or committees, each of which choosing a certain phase of the larger subject as its responsibility. With suggestions and help from the librarian and classroom teacher, each group would gather all the materials to enrich their study of the topic (Heller 1937). Heller's progressive approach to the school library can best be summarized when she described what an observer would see when visiting her library:

> He would see a room filled with boys and girls working quietly on library material in preparation of work assigned, or browsing among the many books

> and magazines which are there for their pleasure-reading. He would see teachers working at tables with groups of pupils…he would notice pupils working together and conferring with others. He would not notice any deathlike stillness, but he would observe that over the entire room there was an almost imperceptible hum of busy activity. If alert to modern educational theories and procedure, this observer would recognize this library as a most vital and significant part of the school. (Heller 1937, 421)

The methods utilized by these early librarians reflect many of Dewey's educational philosophies: instruction at the time of need, an integrated approach, cooperation and collaboration with the classroom teacher, collaborative learning groups, flexibility, and emphasis on individual student needs. The Progressive Era in education clearly helped define the role of school libraries and librarians within American schools.

1950s – 1960s: The Growth of School Libraries

The 1950s were a time of upheaval for public schools in America. Criticism came from a variety of sources complaining that the public schools had lowered education standards and in general had failed to educate American youth. Almost everyone agreed that progressive reforms had diminished the importance of academic achievement. Critics argued that by meeting individual needs, the schools were neglecting the traditional intellectual subjects and were thus failing to impart mental and moral discipline (Tozer, Violas, and Senese 2002). When the Soviets launched *Sputnik* in 1957, Americans were sure their public schools had failed to teach science and math to an entire generation of students. For the first time since World War II, people of all political backgrounds agreed that the national interest depended on

improving the quality of America's schools (Ravitch 1983). In response to spreading fears that the United States was losing the cold war because of its intellectually feeble school system, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958. This legislation allocated millions of dollars for upgrading the teaching of science, math, and foreign languages. Funds also were available for school construction and the purchase of materials and equipment to supplement classroom textbooks, and the purchase of library materials. This legislation and the "crisis in the schools" attracted the attention of major national foundations which provided funds for resources, educational studies, and curriculum reform. New directions for public schools were established as most Americans agreed that education should have as its first priority not the "all-around growth of every individual," as Dewey had described, but the "national interest" as defined by those in leadership positions. School curriculum became increasingly decided by what was best for society rather than what was best for each child. The assumption followed that the way for schools to protect national interests in a cold war world was by selecting and preparing students for their vocational futures in an expert-led society (Tozer, Violas, and Senese 2002).

Curriculum reformers in the 1960s shared a common outlook during this time. They hoped to replace current methods, characterized by teacher-led "telling" and student recitation, with curriculum packages that used "discovery," "inquiry," and inductive reasoning as methods of learning. They hoped to end the traditional reliance on a single textbook by creating attractive multimedia packages that included films, "hands-on" activities, and readings. They emphasized the importance of understanding a few central concepts rather than trying to "cover" an entire field.

With the new sources of funding, schools experimented with new patterns of staffing and scheduling, new ways of training teachers, and new technology. In schools where students sometimes worked individually, sometimes joined in large groups for television instruction, and sometimes worked in team-taught situations, traditional equal-sized classrooms no longer made sense. The “new schoolhouse” had flexible furnishings, movable walls, and open spaces (Ravitch 1983). The style of teaching in open classrooms was flexible both in use of space and methods; students were involved in choosing activities; and the classroom was provisioned with abundant materials that were handled directly by students. Grouping for instruction was most often by small groups and individuals, although the entire class would be taught as one when it was appropriate (Cuban 1984).

As these changes affected classrooms, school libraries did not fare as well at the beginning of this period. Even though school libraries gained national endorsements by the 1950s, the overall condition of libraries in schools was not good. In 1953-1954 only 36 percent of the nation’s public schools had a library; 60 percent of the public schools did not have a qualified librarian; and libraries averaged only three school library books per student (United States Department of Education. National Center for Educational Statistics 2005). As increased funding from NDEA brought new materials and equipment to the schools, these items were rarely housed in the school libraries because most high school libraries were inadequate in size and staff to handle the materials and elementary schools had no libraries or staff at all (Woolls 1999).

From a more positive perspective, several significant events in the early 1960s had great impact on the development of school libraries. With increased awareness of the national education crisis after *Sputnik*, several national foundations focused financial resources on the schools. In 1962 the Knapp Foundation awarded American Association of School Librarians (AASL) a grant of $1.13 million for a five-year demonstration program that funded the establishment of several ideal school libraries across the country.

> The $1.13 million in funding from the Knapp Foundation was then the largest amount of money given at one time for library purposes. It was to be used to improve programs at eight demonstration schools, to pay the salaries of new personnel, to fund library facility modifications, and to enhance collections. (Sullivan 2003, 79)

Between 1963-1968 thousands of educators visited these school libraries and became aware of the value of a fully funded school library with qualified librarians running the program. The primary accomplishment of the Knapp Project was that "it gave people who had never seen a good school-library media program in action the opportunity to see how significant it was in a school and how it informed the teaching as well as providing library opportunities for students, and to get some idea of the range of resources needed to effectively support it" (Sullivan 2003, 80). Growing out of the overall increased funding from federal sources for public schools, school libraries did reap financial benefits from the NDEA of 1958, but of more importance was the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) in 1965. Title II of this act made available millions of dollars for developing school libraries. Other sections

of the act gave additional funds for providing library materials for disadvantaged students and for setting up model projects and demonstration libraries. The effect from these new sources of funding and the positive national attention to school libraries resulted in hundreds of new libraries being started and collections expanding, but at the same time the demand for qualified librarians exceeded the supply.

> We know that ESEA Title II changed the whole course of school library service in the United States. Between 1965 and 1968 the number of public school libraries went from about 39,000 to about 63,000 because a school had to have a library in order to qualify for ESEA funds. We also know that nearly 48,000 of the schools with libraries in those years had no qualified school librarians because ESEA Title II did not mandate staffing requirements for libraries. (Gerhardt 1985, 2)

The increased need for school librarians caused library schools to scramble in making changes to meet the demand. Overall, the decade of the 1960s was one of the greatest periods for school library growth.

Also of significance during this time of growth for school libraries, the role of the school librarian took on new meaning. Following the shift in educational philosophies from the 1950s, as schools began to focus on learning more than teaching, the school librarians began to assume a broader instructional role. While for many years teaching the use of books and libraries had been a major responsibility of the school librarian, instruction began to mean more. School librarians began to teach skills to help students understand, interpret, and evaluate information rather than just to locate and use books. "Today's librarian is concerned with teaching the

skills required for finding and utilizing information and knowledge" (Cleary 1955, 608). This idea also appeared in the 1960 national standards, *Standards for School Library Media Programs*. For the first time, national standards emphasized the librarian's role in teaching students by means of a variety of materials and in working with teachers to coordinate activities instead of merely providing materials. Also emphasized was the importance of integrating library skills into classroom work and planning a program of library instruction that begins in elementary school and continues throughout all levels of the school program (AASL 1960). Further emphasis was placed on the librarian working with classroom teachers and participating in curriculum development.

> A new concept of the role of the librarian is prevalent in most schools today, largely because the librarian has proven her competence in planning with teachers. She participates with teacher-planning groups in curriculum development, not because she is a "materials person" but because she knows children and how they learn, and understands curriculum problems. (Cleary 1955, 608)

The 1969 national school library standards, which introduced new terminology for the school librarian as a *media specialist*, also emphasized new roles of producing needed materials and conducting in-service on the full spectrum of media and their uses. This set of standards introduced the role of instructional consultant with the responsibilities to inform teachers about recent developments in educational trends and to assist in analysis of instructional needs and design of learning activities. The 1969 standards further emphasized the teacher/librarian partnership, first identified in

the 1960 document. No longer just "the keeper of the books," the school librarian's role expanded during the 1950s and 1960s to include a more instructional nature.

1970s – 1990s: New Challenges for the School Library Media Center

The decades of the 1970s through the1990s brought much change to public education. After several years of innovations and "open education," dissatisfaction with results grew. By 1974 demands that schools go "back to the basics" had begun to be expressed in school districts across the country. When the College Entrance Examination Board announced in 1975 that scores on its Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) had fallen steadily for a decade, the "back to the basics" forces blamed innovative programs for lowering academic standards and undermining discipline (Ravitch 1983). Also by the mid-1970s America experienced a decline of its workplace productivity, rising unemployment, losses in market share to Japan and Germany, and changes in technologies. Business leaders wanted reasons for the poor performance of the American economy. Within a short time, criticism over high school graduates unprepared for the workplace, poor scores on national tests, and violence in urban schools fixed blame on American public schools. Government officials and business leaders began to attack the problem of the inefficient and ineffective public schools (Cuban 2001). By 1983, a presidential commission of corporate and public leaders and educators reported their assessment of public schools in *A Nation at Risk*. This report crystallized the growing sense of unease with public education in the business community by tightly coupling mediocre student performance on national and international tests to mediocre economic performance in the global marketplace (Cuban 2001). Following the publication of *A Nation at Risk*,

most states increased high school graduation requirements, lengthened the school year, and added more tests. *A Nation at Risk* brought public education once again to the forefront of the national agenda. Reform resulted in strengthening traditional instructional practices while weakening progressive ones. Concentration on achieving high test scores in academic skills and subjects reinforced the already dominant patterns of teacher-centered instruction. Reformers demanded and received more tests; as a result, teachers, using traditional methods of teaching, spent more time with students preparing for tests, and students who failed those tests were left behind (Cuban 2001).

The late 1970s and 1980s were difficult times financially for public schools and especially for school libraries. Overall school enrollment began a twenty-year decline in the 1970s. Between 1970 and 1995 public school pre-K—12 enrollment decreased in the United States. Enrollment in 1970 was 45,894,000 and dropped to the low for this period in 1985 with 39,422,000 but by 1995 increased to 44,840,000 (United States Department of Education. National Center for Educational Statistics 2005). Declining enrollment brought decreased funding for public schools and school libraries and often resulted in school closings and elimination of personnel. Lack of support for school libraries resulted in budget cutting, elimination of staff, increased workloads assigned to personnel, and increased competition for existing funds (Morris 2004). At the same time, federal funding guidelines were rewritten and categorical restrictions lessened. Chapter 2 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (ECIA) consolidated thirty-two former categorical programs into a “block” of funds that could be used for any of the purposes

designated in the prior programs. One of the programs consolidated into the Chapter 2 block grant was School Library Resources, ESEA Title IV-B. Prior to ECIA, federal categorical programs provided assistance specifically to school libraries. After the enactment of the Chapter 2 block grant, there were no federal programs that provided assistance specifically to school libraries. Chapter 2 allowed school districts to use federal money for school libraries but did not require it (Riddle 1987).

> When education programs were consolidated, school library media programs became competitors for funding at the local and state levels with many other programs. Although many school library media programs received funding in the consolidated laws, the consolidation of education programs ended the consistent growth of library media programs throughout the nation. What has resulted is a "haves" and "have-nots" existence of programs. (Hopkins and Butler 1991, 34)

School librarians had to compete with other programs, not only for declining federal dollars but also for declining state and local funds. As technology needs began to increase budgetary priorities in the 1980s, declining budgets made the picture extremely bleak for school libraries (Woolls 1999).

As educational philosophies drifted "back to the basics" in the 1970s and 1980s and ultraconservative groups became critical of schools and textbooks, classrooms and school libraries were plagued by increasing attempts at censorship. Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s there was almost universal agreement that censorship in public schools was "real, nationwide, and growing" (Reichman 2001, 10). In 1980 an extensive national survey conducted by the Association of American

Publishers (AAP), the American Library Association (ALA), and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) revealed several disturbing trends. One of these trends was that more than half of all reported challenges to instructional or library materials resulted in either their removal or some other limitation on access or use. Also, library materials were reported challenged significantly more often than classroom materials and were more frequently removed or restricted as a result. Another startling finding from the survey was that school personnel were reported as initiating more than 30 percent of the incidents (Kamhi 1981). Another study done in 1990 under the sponsorship of the U. S. Department of Education, Encyclopaedia Britannica, and the University of Wisconsin-Madison School of Library and Information Studies found that more than a third of responding schools libraries reported at least one challenge to library materials between 1986 and 1989. In nearly half of those incidents the challenged materials were either removed or access to them was restricted (Hopkins 1991). As the number of challenges increased so did the number of legal cases involving censorship in school libraries. Court decisions generally have given school authorities broad discretion in making educational decisions, but not judgments motivated by ideological, political, or religious principles(Reichman 2001). The Supreme Court overwhelmingly has upheld the importance of free expression and the First Amendment in relation to school library challenges. In a 1982 landmark decision, the Supreme Court ended a six-year court battle involving a case of book banning by a school board. The case, *Board of Education, Island Trees Union Free School District No. 26 v. Pico*, had been filed against a New York school district by Steven Pico who represented several

students. Pico claimed that their First Amendment rights had been violated when the school board removed nine books from their high school library. The nine titles had been selected for the library collection based on the school's selection criteria but were on a list of "objectionable titles" published by a conservative national parents' group. The Supreme Court limited the power of school officials to remove books simply because they found them objectionable. Justice Brennan Jr. stated that "local school boards may not remove books from school library shelves simply because they dislike the ideas contained in those books and seek by their removal to prescribe what shall be orthodox in politics, nationalism, religion, or other matters of opinion" (Board of Education, Island Trees Union Free School District No. 26 v. Pico 1982). While this case did not end book challenges for school librarians, it did send a strong message. "Prior to the Pico vs. Island Trees court case, library media specialists had little recourse to deal with censorship cases; however, this case gave strength to their fight for intellectual freedom" (Morris 2004). Censorship remains a challenge for school librarians today.

Reform in public schools also brought about reform in school libraries during the 1980s. School libraries gained national attention with the nationwide Library Power Project. From 1988 through 1998, Library Power, a $45 million school-improvement program sponsored by the DeWitt Wallace-Reader's Digest Fund, operated in nineteen communities and affected nearly 700 public elementary and middle schools. The schools that participated agreed to provide a full-time library media specialist; keep the library open and accessible to users throughout the day (*i.e.* flexible scheduling); increase spending for books, software, and other education

materials; and provide library media specialists and teachers with planning time. These emphases were based on the then-current national guidelines *Information Power* (1988). The focus of the program was on the instructional role of the school library media specialist and on the collaboration between teacher and school library media specialist. Library Power provided participating schools with additional funding, feedback, and consultants. Funding was also provided for school media facility improvements to allow multiple uses of the facility and to provide an inviting atmosphere conducive to learning. The goal of Library Power was to show how the library media program could contribute to learning when it is fully integrated into the school's curriculum (Hopkins and Zweizig 1999). The evaluation of Library Power schools made reference to the trend of school reforms at that time.

> Today many schools embrace the findings presented in *A Nation at Risk*. . . . But not all educational reforms are consistent with Library Power's student-centered approach to learning. What types of reforms work well with Library Power? Those that emphasize student inquiry, in-depth understanding, critical thinking, and a collaborative approach between library media specialists and teachers. . . . On the other hand, school-improvement initiatives that are heavily weighted toward increasing student scores on standardized tests or that emphasize learning through rote memory are less compatible with the inquiry-based approach that characterizes Library Power. (Hopkins and Zweizig 1999, 27)

Annual reports from Library Power directors frequently noted that student achievement had improved in the participating schools (Morris 2004). Library Power

schools highlighted the positive impact school library media programs could have on student learning.

During this period of national school reform, two new sets of national library standards were issued. Following the spirit of reform, the 1988 *Information Power* guidelines redefined the role of the school library and the school library professionals. The mission of the school library media program, as stated in the national guidelines, was focused on students and staff becoming effective users of ideas and information. The library was to accomplish this by providing intellectual and physical access to all kinds of materials; by providing instruction; and by working with other educators to design instructional strategies (American Association of School Librarians (AASL) and Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) 1988). *Information Power* (1988) also redefined the school library media specialist by emphasizing her/his role as a proactive initiator of collaboration and a participative partner with other educators as a member of the instructional team. These guidelines introduced three roles for the school library media specialist in the educational environment: teacher, information specialist, and instructional consultant (AASL and AECT, 1988). While all the earlier sets of standards acknowledged the school librarian's responsibility to teach students in the use of the library resources, the 1988 description involved more.

> The description of the teacher role in *Information Power* goes beyond simple library skill instruction. The current set of standards emphasizes "intellectual access to information." Intellectual access is not limited to selecting and retrieving information. It incorporates the higher-order reasoning skills of

analyzing, evaluating, synthesizing, and communicating information. (Mellon and Boyce 1993, 134-135)

The teaching role was to be accomplished by integrating the information curriculum into the instructional program of the school. This would require librarians to work closely with school administrators and classroom teachers (AASL and AECT 1988). The 1998 standards, *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning*, further expanded the role of the school library media specialist. These standards added the role of program administrator and changed the role of instructional consultant to instructional partner to emphasize the partnership aspect of the school library media program. Thus, the school library media specialist serves as teacher, information specialist, instructional partner, and program administrator (AASL and AECT 1988).

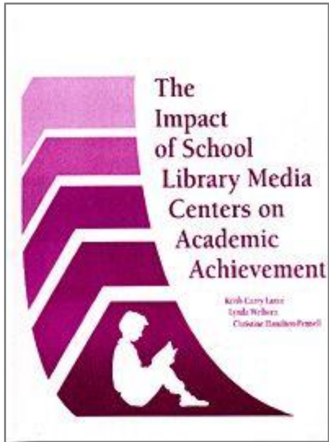
During the age of school reform in the 1980s and 1990, technology was introduced to classrooms and libraries. When computers first were introduced to classrooms, reformers focused on the innovation, the computers and software. They gave little thought to how technology would integrate into instruction and influence student learning. "Technology by itself was not the silver bullet. In fact, it added yet another layer of complexity . . . Its use in instruction and learning changed as teachers themselves changed" (Sandholtz, Ringstaff, and Dwyer 1997, 36). Technology's use in the classroom was closely related to teachers' beliefs about learning, teacher-student roles, and instructional practices. As teachers struggled to change their instructional practices, school administrators continued to fill classrooms with computers. The number of students per computer went from 125 to less than ten with some technology-rich schools having one computer for every three students

(Sandholtz, Ringstaff, and Dwyer 1997, 36). Technology had the effect of changing educational practices.

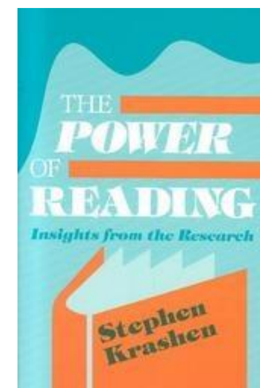
In a similar way, the introduction of technology to the school library media center has brought about change. The first area to change was the automation of basic library functions, such as circulation, cataloging, and the public access catalog. With the addition of Internet, school libraries had access to unbelievable amounts of information. School libraries became more than just collections of books; they developed into information centers containing print and digital information. The multimedia nature of the school library extended far beyond the confines of the walls of the physical facility and access to the resources often was available to classrooms and homes. Internet access changed the way that students and faculty did research and the ways librarians worked with students and teachers (Morris 2004). Recognizing this change, the 1998 national standards emphasized the role of the school library in developing information literacy. Information literacy standards for student learning became the focus for school library media programs (AASL and AECT 1998). The school library media specialist's knowledge of technology and information literacy emphasized the role of instructional consultant and instructional partner. The addition of technology to school libraries also increased budgetary concerns and caused new thoughts on censorship for the library media specialist.

As school reform in the 1990s focused on accountability, student achievement, and test scores, research studies on the importance of school library media centers began to appear. Two important studies, both published in 1993 reflected positively on school library media centers. One study, the Colorado

Department of Education's *The Impact of School Library Media Centers on Academic Achievement*, explored the contribution of the school library media center to achievement. Some of the most significant conclusions from this study were (1) the size of a school library media center's staff and collection is the best school



predictor of academic achievement; (2) students who score higher on standardized tests tend to come from schools with more school library media center staff and more books, periodicals, and videos; (3) the instructional role of the school library media specialist shapes the collection and, in turn, academic achievement; (4) school library media expenditures affect school library media center staff and collection size and, in turn, academic achievement (Lance 1993). During a time in education when the focus was on improving test scores, this Colorado study provided evidence of the importance of school library media centers in improving students' test scores. The second important study from 1993 that affected school library media centers positively was Stephen Krashen's *The Power of Reading*. This study found numerous results related to reading with, perhaps, the most significant being that free voluntary reading is also the best predictor of reading comprehension, vocabulary growth, spelling ability, grammatical usage, and writing style. Krashen went on to explain ways in which children's access to books is increased,



thus affecting the amount read and language ability; one of the ways identified was to have bigger and better school and public libraries (Krashen 1993). In addition to these

two studies, a substantial body of research since 1990 showed positive relationships between school libraries and student achievement. School libraries became one of the few factors with a contribution to academic achievement that was documented empirically, a fact that bolstered support for school libraries.

CHAPTER 3

STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY PROGRAMS

School libraries as they developed throughout the twentieth century have been characterized by change. Beginning as minimal facilities that basically were only collections of books with no staff or program, school libraries have become multimedia sources of information and have been recognized for their role in student achievement. In a similar way, the role of the school librarian within the school has changed. While early school librarians often were merely clerks or classroom teachers assigned to oversee the library, today's school librarian is professionally trained as information specialist, teacher, instructional partner, and program administrator (AASL and AECT 1998).

> At the heart of these changes have been the development and revision of national standards or guidelines for school libraries. As each new set became more specific in the areas of *quantitative* recommendations or standards, the *qualitative* guidelines have broadened the scope of the library media program and shifted the focus of the library media specialist's role and responsibilities. (Gann 1998, 153)

Standards are important to the profession as they "provide a blueprint for the effective practice of the profession" (Mellon and Boyce 1993, 128). National school library standards provide models of excellence and ways to measure current programs. Often, national standards influence guidelines developed by each state and regional accrediting associations (Mellon and Boyce 1993). Between 1918 and 1988, seven sets of national standards or guidelines were developed for school libraries.

Regardless of whether these documents were identified as standards or guidelines, each new set reflected current thinking and established new expectations for the role of the school library and school librarian (Gann 1998).

The first set of standards resulted from concern for the condition and quality of school libraries. A nationwide survey in 1915 conducted by the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) sparked this concern. While the survey was intended to reveal information about the teaching of English in high schools, the inadequate condition of school libraries was revealed (Morris 2004). The results of the survey caused NEA to appoint the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment (CLOE) within the Department of Secondary Education of NEA. The committee was comprised of both librarians and teachers. They were given the charge "to investigate actual conditions in high school libraries throughout the United States and to make these conditions known" (Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools 1920, 5). After an initial report in 1916, the committee was given the further responsibility of creating a program of library development. The committee's report, *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*, was adopted in 1918 by NEA and later by the North Central Association. This landmark report became known as the "Certain Standards" in honor of the committee chairman, Charles C. Certain, who was an English teacher from a Detroit high school. The document was perceived as providing school administrators with guidelines for high school library development and was

considered the first set of school library standards for secondary schools (Gann 1998). ALA later adopted these standards in 1920.

The Certain Standards provided a basis for all succeeding sets of school library standards (Mellon and Boyce 1993). The standards were organized into six areas: housing and equipment, the librarian (*i.e.* professional qualifications and responsibilities), selection and care of books and other materials, instruction in the use of books and libraries, annual appropriation (*i.e.* funds for salaries and for purchasing books and materials), and state supervision. These same areas would be addressed in school library standards over the next several decades. While this first set of standards was filled with quantitative measures, the Certain Standards established many of the basic tenets about the school library and school librarian:

• the school library should be the centralized location for the storage and distribution of all instructional materials used in the school, including audiovisual materials;

• the school library should be centrally located within the school building and be freely accessible to students;

• the freedom of access principle as applied to students indicated they should have direct acces to the bookshelves; students' reading needs included reference and study in relation to school work as well as recreation and pleasure in relation to personal needs and interests;

• the school librarian performs a professional role not subject to clerical work;

• professional requirements for the school librarian included an undergraduate degree, at least one year of postgraduate library science from an "approved" library school, and at least one year of library work with young people;

• a major responsibility of the school librarian was to be an instructor, especially in relation to the use of books and libraries. (Gann 1998)

Most of these ideas from the Certain Standards are still predominant in school libraries today. These were followed by a second set of standards, *Report of the Joint Committee on Elementary School Library Standards*, that provided similar guidelines for elementary school libraries. Both NEA and ALA adopted this set of standards in 1925. These elementary standards, however, were not widely accepted. "Considering within the context of the time, this is not surprising. The concept of elementary school libraries was relatively new; by the early 1940s, only ten states had developed standards for libraries in the elementary school" (Mellow and Boyce 1993, 130). Nevertheless, this second set of Certain Standards is "noteworthy for emphasizing the role of multimedia in school library collections, the instructional role of the school librarian, access for students at the time of need, and the description of a district-level library supervisor" (Gann 1998, 162).

Later in the progressive movement, another set of national standards was developed, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* (1945). This set, developed by the ALA Committee on Post-War Planning, was the first K-12 standards. These standards were less quantitative than the earlier versions and through descriptive narrative attempted to show the relationship between *quantitative* components of a school library and the *quality* of school library service. For example, numerical measures as the size of the library, number of volumes, amount of equipment, and number of staff members were equated to the quality of library program and effect upon education (Mellon and Boyce 1993). Accordingly, an abundance of items and

personnel would produce a high quality library program with numerous educational benefits. And, yet, the emphasis on quantitative measures caused these standards to become outdated long before the next set could be written (Mellon and Boyce 1993). Overall, these standards made great steps toward placing the role of the school library in relation to the school's educational objectives.

AASL published a new set of national standards, *Standards for School Library Programs*, in 1960. This set of standards had been written in cooperation with nineteen other professional associations. Theses standards introduced the terms *materials center*, *instructional materials center*, and *instructional resource center* to describe the new multimedia environment of the library and *materials specialist* or *instructional resources consultant* to describe the school librarian's role (AASL 1960). These 1960 standards not only stated quantitative recommendations but also for the first time emphasized the library *program* and the librarian's *instructional* responsibilities. This emphasis can be seen in the way this set of standards was organized; it had three sections: 1) The School Library As an Education Force, 2) Planning and Implementing School Library Programs, and 3) Resources for Teaching and Learning (AASL 1960).

> For the first time the librarian's role in serving teachers and students was emphasized. There was no longer mention of public libraries as a major source of services for students, but instead it identified the need for the school library to serve the personal needs of students as well as the instructional needs of students. There was an acknowledgment that materials contained within the school library could actually enrich a student's life. It established a

philosophical base for providing materials in school libraries that brought a greater wealth to the profession. (Rooker 1990, 24)

As part of the instructional program, the standards indicated that the professional library staff should work closely with classroom teachers, stimulate and guide students in their reading, and plan and direct implementation of the instructional program that teaches intelligent and effective use of library resources (AASL 1960, 65-67). With the radical change in focus and scope, these standards were not well received and met much resistance.

Even though the1960 standards included quantitative standards for audiovisual materials and equipment, no strong recommendation was made for the library and audiovisual collections to be combined physically. For schools with separate audiovisual collections, increased cooperation between the two areas was suggested. The 1960 standards came close to officially incorporating audiovisual materials into library collections, but another organization issued its own standards for audiovisual programs. Shortly after AASL issued its 1960 standards, the NEA Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI) developed a set of quantitative standards for audiovisual programs within schools. In 1965 these standards, *Quantitative Standards for Audiovisual Personnel, Equipment, and Materials in Elementary, Secondary, and Higher Education,* were approved as the official guidelines for NEA. The document specified quantities of materials, equipment, and budget, and made personnel recommendations. The specifications were listed as “basic” or “advanced” with “basic” representing minimal quantities need for a functioning program and “advanced” as achieving excellence (Cobun 1966). As a

result, many schools officially had two separate departments, the library and the audiovisual department. The 1969 national school library standards, *Standards for School Media Programs*, corrected that problem by embracing audiovisual materials as part of the library. These standards were a joint effort of AASL, ALA, DAVI, and NEA with an advisory board representing twenty-eight other professional and civic associations. One of the goals of this set of standards was to coordinate the school library and audiovisual programs. New terminology for school libraries and librarians was introduced in the 1969 standards: *media, media program, media center,* and *media specialist* (AASL and DAVI 1969). Following the current educational trend of moving away from textbook-dominated teaching and teacher-dominated instruction, the school media center was emphasized in its role as "a primary instructional center that supports, complements, and expands the work of the classroom" (AASL and DAVI 1969, 3). The 1969 standards emphasized the instructional role of the school library and librarian within the educational framework of the school. As with the 1960 standards, the 1969 document focused on the partnership between school librarians and teachers in working together to develop instructional strategies to meet the needs of students. This emphasis on instruction and the collaborative partnership in the 1960 and 1969 school library standards provides a stark contrast in intent when compared to the NEA/DAVI quantitative standards from 1965 which focused simply on numerical measures of audiovisual equipment, materials, and personnel. This difference in focus of the documents highlights a major difference in philosophy between the two groups, ALA/AASL and

NEA/DAVI (AECT). The two sets of school library national standards in the 1960s laid the groundwork for tremendous change in school libraries.

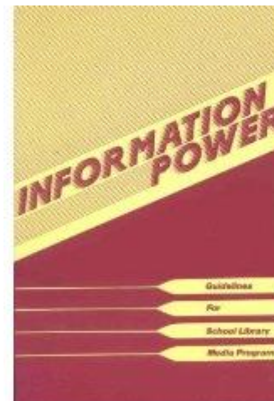
The 1969 standards recommended more frequent revision of the national standards to keep abreast rapid changes in education and technology. As a result, AASL and AECT published *Media Programs: District and School* in 1975. The focus of these standards was the *user* of the media programs along with a reemphasis on centralized media services within a school. The document introduced the concept of a unified program with resources that supported not only the curriculum but also the teaching methods of teachers. By stressing the library media specialist's involvement with classroom teachers in the instructional design process, these standards changed the role of the media program "from a support service to an integral part of the total instructional program of the school" (AASL and AECT 1988, xi). Unlike previous documents, 1975 standards emphasized the interdependence between school and district-level programs and encouraged cooperation among school districts. As with the previous sets of standards, *Media Programs: District and School* included quantitative guidelines for collections and facilities.

A dramatic shift in focus for school library media programs came with the publication of the 1988 *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs*. No longer identified as national standards but as guidelines because of its qualitative nature, this document redefined the mission of school library media programs.

The mission of the library media program is to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information. This mission is accomplished:

- by providing intellectual and physical access to materials in all formats;
- by providing instruction to foster competence and stimulate interest in reading, viewing, and using information and ideas;
- by working with other educators to design learning strategies to meet the needs of individual students. (AASL and AECT 1988, 1)

This new mission reflects the developing "Information Age" and the need for information literacy. The underlying concept of these guidelines was providing access – physical access to information resources and intellectual access to content. Furthermore, the guidelines distinguished three distinct roles for the school library media specialist within the school environment: information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant (AASL and AECT 1988). Overall, *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* provides *qualitative* descriptions of the role of the school library media center and the school library media specialist within the school. These descriptions emphasize concepts and activities that are important to the fulfillment of the roles and the overall mission of the program (Mellon and Boyce 1993). While *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* was met with enthusiasm nationwide, the lack of quantitative guidelines and the dramatic shift in focus and roles caused a lack of support from most librarians.



A review of the national standards documents from 1918 – 1988 provides a perspective of how the role of the school librarian and the library program within the

school changed over time. "Each succeeding set of standards expanded the role that librarians played within the school, and each expansion integrated the library program a little more fully into the mainstream of instruction" (Mellon and Boyce 1993, 134). Reacting to current events and educational trends of the time, the standards expanded the role of the librarian to reflect current thinking: the audiovisual movement, the integration of print and nonprint resources within schools, and the need for information literacy in an "Information Age" (Mellon and Boyce 1993). The librarian changed from a clerk and "keeper of the books" to being teacher and collaborative instructional partner; the national standards and guidelines reflected and guided this change. Furthermore, the standards increasingly became more qualitative with descriptions of the school librarian's activities and behavior rather than merely quantitative discussions of personnel. This movement from quantitative to qualitative descriptions reflects the rapidly changing nature of school libraries and education. The librarian's role in teaching students to use resources and develop information literacy skills replaced quantiative discussions of resources and materials, amount of physical space, and numbers and types of equipment.

> As the role school librarians were to play in the everyday operation of the school increased, there was a corresponding need to describe and clarify that role; thus, each succeeding set of standards attempted to explain, as clearly and as fully as their authors were able, how these roles should be performed. (Mellon and Boyce 1993, 134)

National standards not only provided a snapshot of the educational times but also gave direction to school librarians throughout the twentieth century.

CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LIBRARIAN EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Several dilemmas resulted from the development of school librarian education programs. Many in the library profession questioned *where* the responsibility lay for the education of school librarians. From an early time, professionals pondered whether the school librarian was a teacher first and then a librarian or a librarian first and then a teacher. In addition, professionals discussed *how* to educate prospective school librarians. Discussion centered on whether school librarianship was a specialization within the library profession or a specialization in teacher education. In discussing how to provide education for school librarianship, educators debated whether to provide narrowly specialized curricula solely for school librarianship or more general coursework with electives later to introduce school librarianship as a specialty area. Therefore, the preparation for school librarianship became divided into two approaches. The first approach was a full professional curricula mainly available in library schools and the second was a shortened curricula available through teacher-preparation institutions (Fargo 1936). Resulting from this dual approach to school librarianship, programs for the education of school librarians developed in both schools of education and library schools.

Pre-Twentieth Century to 1923: Early Development of School Library Training

From the early days of the library profession in the United States, ALA often failed to recognize its responsibility for the education for school librarians, especially in the programs provided by normal schools. As early as 1903 ALA removed the education of school librarians in normal schools from its areas of responsibility in

overseeing library training programs. This action initially resulted from the 1903 ALA Committee on Library Training that had the task to study and review library schools. After seeking data from six types of library programs, including library education programs offered by normal schools, the Committee felt the need to oversee such programs in normal schools was not the responsibility of ALA but that of the Library Section of the NEA (Vann 1961). "By dismissing the responsibility, the Committee failed to anticipate the impact of an emerging school library program and to realize that school library training might be regarded as an area for specialization in the regular library school or as indicative of the need for a new type of library school" (Vann 1961, 113). Therefore, no mention of library education in normal schools appeared in the Committee's 1905 Standards of Library Training for Library Schools (Vann 1961). For the next twenty years ALA gave little attention to the education of school librarians.

Of particular interest, however, at this same time professionally trained school librarians began to be hired in high school libraries. The first was Mary Kingsbury who graduated from Pratt Institute Library School in Brooklyn in 1899 and became the first high school librarian at Erasmus Hall High School in Brooklyn in 1900 (Woolls 2003). The second professionally trained school librarian to be hired was Mary E. Hall, also a graduate of Pratt Institute Library School in 1895; she became the librarian at Girls' High School in Brooklyn in 1903 (Pond 2003). This is significant to note that library schools actually were training students to become school librarians during the time of national debate on whose responsibility it was to provide this training.

Between 1905 and 1920 minimal references to training for school librarianship can be found. From data on library schools collected by Mary Eileen Ahern and the Committee on Library Training, a 1906 listing of library schools included two programs at normal schools: the Indiana State Normal School at Terre Haute and the Kansas State Normal School at Emporia. A note in the report indicated that the ALA Committee on Library Training had not examined those two schools (Vann 1961, 132). This reference to those schools not having been examined by ALA further illustrates ALA's lack of overseeing library education within normal schools. Another early reference to the formal education of school librarians from ALA came in 1913 at a meeting of the ALA Round Table of Library School Instructors. At this session, Frank K. Walter discussed the subject of specialization in library schools that included the training for school librarianship. His proposal suggested two methods of offering specialization: (1) through dividing the courses in different schools and (2) through dividing the field among the different schools. Of the two methods, Walter thought the second approach was more possible as he recognized that such a plan already was in place with children's work offered at the Pittsburgh Training School, small libraries at the Wisconsin School, law work at the New York State Library School, and normal work at the Pratt Institute Library School (Vann 1961). Neither the Round Table group nor ALA took any action on Walter's proposal at that time, but the subject of school librarianship as a specialization would resurface several years later. Finally, during this early period in the twentieth century, references to school library education can be found in the curriculum of three library schools. In 1912 the Pratt Institute Library School offered a graduate course in "normal training

for advanced students, a limited number of graduates of Pratt Institute Library School and other library schools of recognized standing" (Pratt Institute School of Library Science to Offer a Graduate Course 1912). The Pratt course would cover the theory of education and practice teaching in cooperation with the Brooklyn Public School Library. Dewey's School of Library Economy, the first library school established in the United States, offered an elective course on high school libraries in 1917 and the Training School of the Los Angeles Public Library offered a new course on school libraries during 1914 – 1918 (White, The Origins of the American Library School 1961).

While little specific attention from ALA was given to the education of school librarians from this early time period, NEA began to focus on the importance of libraries within the educational system and the training of school librarians. In 1896 the Library Department of NEA was formed and began to take an important role

PRATT INSTITUTE.

School of Library Science to Offer a Graduate Course.

There are two important changes in courses at Pratt Institute this Fall. In the School of Fine and Applied Arts the course of decorative and applied design has been changed to applied design and interior decoration. The principles of design will be taught in reference to various materials with special application to room furnishings, fixtures, rugs, and architectural features. Opportunity will be given on Saturday mornings for extra work in the crafts of pottery, weaving and bookbinding. Ralph H. Johonnot and Mary Langtry of this course have resigned and the following names have been added to the list of instructors:

Frederick Ehrlich, principles of design; Rome K. Richardson, book cover design; Hester Kent, applied design in textiles, and Sarah J. Freeman, bookbinding.

The School of Library Science will offer a graduate course in normal training for advanced students, a limited number of graduates of Pratt Institute Library School and other library schools of recognized standing, being admitted. The course will consist of two main parts, the theory of education and practice teaching. The opportunity for practice teaching has been obtained by a plan of co-operation with the Brooklyn Public School Library by which the apprentice class of that library becomes the practice school of the normal students. This branch of the work will be under the direction of Miss Julia A. Hopkins, for the last three years instructor in cataloguing, classification and library science in the Drexel Institute Library School.

Director Walter S. Perry of the School of Fine and Applied Arts will be absent from the institute on a year's leave of absence.

Henry Prellwitz, instructor in life drawing and painting, has resigned and the life classes will be conducted by Frederick V. Baker.

The following resignations in the School of Science and Technology have been accepted:

William H. Sherman, head of machine work; Henry D. Burghardt, instructor in machine work; Leo A. Gluckler, assistant instructor in machine work; James N. Steele, assistant instructor in forge; Howard S. Upton, assistant instructor in chemistry; Edward G. Walsh, assistant instructor in tanning; William F. Doerflinger, assistant instructor in chemistry; Samuel R. Schealer, instructor in electricity; James H. Connolly, instructor in machine design.

The following appointments have been made:

Raymond A. Morrison, assistant instructor in chemistry; Claude V. Gayton, assistant instructor in tanning; W. W. Scott, assistant instructor in chemistry; George E. Peaslee, instructor in applied electricity; M. M. Schoen, assistant instructor in machine work; George E. Cory, assistant instructor in forge.

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within the organization. . Both educators and librarians began to recognize the value of a well-equipped school library with a trained librarian to manage it. “No small part of this change of attitude has been due to the harmonious relations brought about by the Library Department of the N. E. A. which has brought teachers and librarians together for mutual understanding and mutual discussion” (Vought 1923, 164). During this time, normal schools also began to recognize the importance for training school librarians as shown by some schools providing curriculum and degrees for school librarians. The Indiana State Normal School established a department of public school library science during 1905-1906. The department offered three courses in school librarianship. The first course was designed to “prepare the teacher for intelligent, systematic, and scholarly use of collections of books” while the second and third courses covered “the organization and management of school libraries” (Indiana State Normal School, Terre Haute[Ind.] 1906). By 1906 the Kansas State Normal School had several courses in library training and offered a degree of A.B. in

education with library science as a major study (Vann 1961). The Kansas State program of study offered courses in "typewriting, library history, organization and administration, bookmaking, children's literature, selection of books, books and authors, and library news" (Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kansas 1906). The Indiana courses represented a year's work while the Kansas State degree program covered a period of four years.

In 1915 the Library Committee of the Department of Secondary Education of NEA was appointed with the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools to investigate actual conditions of high school libraries in the United States. Charles C. Certain chaired the committee that later was known as the Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (CLOE) 1920). As part of the committee's overall findings, they identified professional requirements for high school librarians:

> The standard requirements for future appointments of librarians in high schools should be a college or university degree with major studies in literature, history, sociology, education, or other subjects appropriate to any special demands…In addition the librarian should have at least one year of postgraduate library training in an approved library school and one year's successful library experience in work with young people in a library of standing. (Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National

Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (CLOE) 1920, 16)

What is most significant from this recommendation is the year of library training beyond a college degree. This is an early indication of a graduate-level degree for a school librarianship.

Also at this same time, non-library/non-education groups became interested in library education. While investigating its policy of donations, the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1915 began to address what was deemed as ineffectual service in libraries that had been established through donations from the Carnegie Corporation. The Corporation authorized Alvin Saunders Johnson to study the provision of free library buildings and also to inquire into library schools and the adequacy of the output of trained librarians (Vann 1961, 169). While the Johnson Report in 1916 made a variety of recommendations, the significance of the report was its focus on library training. The Report advised the Corporation to inquire further in the subject of library training. By 1919 the Corporation appointed Charles Clarence Williamson to conduct a study of library training (Vann 1961).

The purpose of Williamson's committee was to examine the existing conditions of training for library work and to suggest steps for improvement. In the scope of the study, Williamson examined only professional library schools, not any normal schools that provided library training. During the academic year 1920-1921 the committee visited the fifteen existing schools and studied their organization and methods. Part of the study focused on the number of hours of classroom instruction on major and minor subjects in the curriculum. From the data submitted by eleven of

the fifteen library schools, the amount of classroom instruction on the subject of school libraries was minimal or non-existent. The range was from one hour to twenty-six hours while the average was five hours (Williamson 1923). The following chart is modified from the 1923 Williamson report to show classroom instruction hours only in the curriculum subject of school libraries (data collected 1920-1921).

Number of Hours of Classroom Instruction Given by Eleven Library Schools

(Williamson 1923, 22)
adapted by Gann 2009

Subject	**School**											**Average**
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
School Libraries	2	26	1	Not segregated	6	1	20	Not segregated; Included in order work	Not given	Included in children's work	2	5

In the final report, Williamson's committee made eleven general findings and recommendations. One area of recommendation entitled "Advanced or Specialized Study" had the greatest bearing on the development of library education for school librarians. In the area of specialized study, the committee found that most library training had remained general even though library service had been developing into more specialized areas over the past years. They identified specific fields in librarianship for which specialized training was needed; two of the fields were school libraries and library work with children (Williamson 1923, 94-96). Regarding specialized training for school librarians, the committee stated:

> Probably the most important group for which specialized training should be provided at once are the school librarians, and particularly the high school librarians. In the states that have the best educational standards the high school librarian must have the qualifications of a high school teacher --- which means a college degree with special training in education and some graduate study --- in addition to a certain amount of professional library training. (Williamson 1923, 94)

While recognizing specialized training for school librarians, this recommendation also emphasized the dual nature of the qualifications for the school librarian, as both a teacher and a librarian. In further describing the educational requirements for school librarians, the report specified a second year of special training beyond a college education and one year in a library school. This second year would include studies in high school library problems, education subjects (such as the history of education, educational psychology, and high school curriculum), and a supervised field experience (Williamson 1923, 94). A similar second year of extra study in the training of children's librarians was also proposed. This extra year would include courses in children's literature, child psychology, and library/public school relationships in addition to a supervised field experience (Williamson 1923, 95-96). Overall, the Williamson report was significant in its recognition of the need for specialized training for both school and children's librarians but also in its description of the school librarian as both a teacher and a librarian.

While the Williamson report brought attention to the need for specialized library training, the specialized distinctions within the library profession

had been developing for several years. From the pre-twentieth century, distinctions formed for several areas within the overall field of librarianship that required specialized training. One of the first areas where specialized training was proposed was in the area of children's librarianship, a precursor to school librarianship. In 1897, Mary Salome Cutler from the New York State Library School indicated her interest in preparing a course for training children's librarians: "We have yet to learn that the children's librarian, if her work is worth doing at all, needs not only the general training, scholastic and technical, recognized as essential for those who have charge of other departments, but also a special training for her peculiar work" (Cutler 1897, 292). Furthermore, at the 1897 ALA conference Edwin Fairchild emphasized the need for specialized training for the children's librarian based on the study of child psychology and its application to the responsibilities of the children's librarian. Following these recommendations, both the New York State Library School and the Pratt Institute began offering specialized training for the children's librarian. "The first area of specialization to receive implementation and to stimulate curriculum planning, as can be seen readily, was training for library work with children. The greatest impetus was to occur in 1901 when the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh announced that it would concentrate on specialized training for children's librarians" (Vann 1961, 83-84). While specialized training for children's library work had been established earlier, the Williamson report in 1923 highlighted the need for school librarianship as a specialization in library schools.

1924 – 1952: Development of Separate Programs and Standards for School Librarianship

The idea of education for library specialization continued to develop. “The rise of school librarianship has been contemporaneous with that of other highly specialized manifestations of library work: medical librarianship; business librarianship; children’s librarianship” (Fargo 1936, 1). Early on, questions arose as to the true nature of school librarianship from within the library profession as well as from within education. “There are undoubtedly some librarians and a far larger number of educators who are not at all sure whether school librarianship is a specialization of the library profession or of teaching” (Fargo 1936, 1). This view of the school librarian as both teacher and librarian was stated early on in the Certain report of 1920 when his committee identified the qualifications for a high school librarian to include “the good qualities of both the librarian and the teacher” (Committee on Library Organization and Equipment of the National Education Association and of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (CLOE) 1920, 16). The Williamson report in 1923 also expressed the same idea when it stated the educational standards for the high school librarian include “the qualifications of a high school teacher . . . in addition to a certain amount of professional library training” (Williamson 1923, 94).

The Williamson report produced mixed reactions, but several important events occurred in the next few years that had great effect on library schools and the development of specialized curricula and programs for school librarianship.

> While Williamson’s findings did not meet with immediate and unanimous approval, they gave decided impetus to a train of events which have led not only to stronger educational affiliations for library schools but to more

adequate financial support, the employment of truly professional faculties, sharper differentiation between types of training agencies and the programs they offer, and considerable experimentation with specialized curricula, especially in the school library field. (Fargo 1936, 121)

One result of Williamson's report was the recommendation by ALA's Committee on Library Training that ALA appoint a body to review library training agencies and define standards for evaluating or accrediting them. As a result, ALA appointed the Temporary Library Training Board. In 1924, the Temporary Board presented its report in which they noted the changing character of library service had brought about a high demand for library positions requiring specialized knowledge and leadership. They stated that meeting this demand was complicated by the condition of the training institutions because they all offered courses "having a family resemblance, but they differed in other respects --- in entrance requirements, length of curriculum, strength of faculty and equipment. No formal national standards of excellence existed to guide them and, to add to the disarray, there was no orderly process of formulating and approving such standards" (ALA. Temporary Library Training Board 1924). The Tempoary Board recommended establishment of a Board of Education for Librarianship (BEL) to study the needs of the field, promote the development of library education, and develop (for ALA Council approval) minimum standards for library schools. The BEL replaced the Temporary Library Training Board in 1924 (American Library Association (ALA) 2003). The new board developed the first national standards for library education and ALA Council approved them in July 1925. In October 1925 the BEL established separate curricula

for school librarianship courses of study: a one-year (30 semester hours) curriculum in accredited library schools that was available to undergraduate seniors and a one-semester (16 semester hours) program for undergraduate juniors at normal schools and other colleges or universities (White 1976, 210). While the two courses of study included many of the same topics, the main difference appeared in number of hours for certain topics. The two approaches are summarized in the charts that follow.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">Minimum Standards for a Curriculum in School Library Work
(Offered in Accredited Library Schools)</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Requirements for Admission to the Curriculum
• Three years of work acceptable for admission to the senior class of an approved college or university, evidenced by a transcript of the college record
• Two months of satisfactory observation and participation in the work of an approved library, or the equivalent during attendance at library school
• Aptitude and personal qualifications for library work and evidence of ability to pursue profitably the curriculum</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Length of Curriculum
One academic year</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Certificate or Degree
A certificate from the graduate library schools or a degree from the undergraduate schools for the satisfactory completion of the professional curriculum</td></tr>
<tr><th>Suggested Courses</th><th colspan="2">Semester Hours</th></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>1st semester</td><td>2nd semeste r</td></tr>
<tr><td>Book selection and allied topics</td><td>3 general</td><td>1 school</td></tr>
<tr><td>Cataloging, classification, etc.</td><td>2</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Children’s literature and story telling</td><td></td><td>3</td></tr>
<tr><td>Field work (children’s rooms, school libraries, and general)</td><td>1</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>History and administration of libraries</td><td>2</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Library work with children</td><td>2</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Methods of teaching the use of the library</td><td></td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Reference and bibliography</td><td>3</td><td>3</td></tr>
<tr><td>The place, function, administration, and opportunity of the library in the modern school</td><td></td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td>Elective (should be course in education if student is lacking in that preparation)</td><td>2</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Total</td><td>15</td><td>15</td></tr>
</table>

ALA. Board of Education for Librarianship 1926)
adapted by Gann 2009

The above curriculum was designed as a full academic year for accredited library schools with many of the same subjects that were customary in a library school. However, it gave less emphasis on general library topics as cataloging and classification and library administration and more focus on school-related subjects such as children's literature and activities as well as teaching and instruction.

Minimum Standards for a Curriculum in School Library Work (Offered in Normal Schools, Colleges, and Universities)	
Requirements for Admission to the Curriculum • Completion of such work as would be acceptable for admission to the a. Junior class of the four-year institution b. Second year class of the three-year institution c. Second semester of the first year of the two-year institution • Aptitude and personal qualifications for library work and evidence of ability to pursue profitably the curriculum	
Length of Curriculum Sixteen semester hours	
Certificate Statement of the satisfactory completion of the curriculum	
Suggested Courses	**Semester Hours**
Book selection and allied topics for the school library	2
Cataloging, classification, etc. for the school library	2
Children's literature and story telling	2
Field work (children's rooms, school libraries)	2
Library work with children	2
Methods of teaching the use of the library	2
Reference and bibliography	2
The place, function, administration, and opportunity of the library in the modern school	2
Total	**16**

ALA. Board of Education for Librarianship 1926)
adapted by Gann 2009

This curriculum was designed for normal schools, colleges, and universities and with sixteen hours could be used as an undergraduate major or minor. Planned for the

teacher-librarian (*i.e.* the part-time librarian who also was a classroom teacher), "this curriculum was a professional library curriculum in miniature" (Fargo 1936, 126). With the exception of a library administration course, this curriculum duplicated the topics in those for professional library school with only a few courses having fewer required semester hours. "All this was done as a concession to emergency conditions: the premise of the whole school library training program was that all full-time school librarians should receive their library education in an accredited library school" (White 1976, 210). Even though the intent was to provide a solution to "emergency conditions" of increased demand for school librarians, BEL set a precedent for school librarian education. By establishing separate curricula for school librarianship with this set of national standards, ALA firmly established two routes for becoming a school librarian through library schools and through colleges and schools of education.

The creation of separate shortened courses of study for school librarians and teacher-librarians caused much discussion. "Leaders in the professions of librarianship and of teaching have from the start been genuinely disturbed about the status and content of the short curriculum" (Fargo 1936, 128). The problem was not so much with providing library science courses for teachers but that the courses offered were fundamentally different as to content and emphasis. Furthermore, the production of the "miniature professional curricula" did not stop with the sixteen-hour course of study but developed into six-hour, eight-hour, and twelve-hour curricula that was able to satisfy secondary school accrediting agencies (Fargo 1936, 128). In 1926 ALA supported BEL's recommendation that full-time school librarians

should have a basic year of library education the same as other librarians. In fact, many educators felt the same way realizing that the properly trained school librarian should have all the training that a good teacher has and, in addition, have library training. However, in reality this seemed difficult to accomplish.

> When this possibility proved elusive, the only recourse to many on both sides seemed to be to sacrifice professional training standards either of teachers or of librarians; and it was this dilemma, created by the economics of the situation, that strained relations between the two professions. Neither one was ready to make that kind of sacrifice. (White 1976, 213)

Furthermore, school librarians who had a full professional curriculum in a library school with electives in school librarianship became known as "professionals" since they followed the accepted pattern for library education. In contrast, those teacher-librarians who followed the shortened, half-year course of study were classified as "semi-professionals" (Fargo 1936, 134-135). As these distinctions developed further, the professional became associated with a graduate degree while the semi-professional suggested an undergraduate degree or certificate. In 1933 BEL produced a new set of standards for library schools with *Minimum Requirements for Library Schools* that was followed in 1934 by *Minimum Requirements for Teacher-Librarian Training Agencies*. The curricula for the teacher-training schools would be "one-half year or more of the institution's normal requirements in length" (Fargo 1936, 124). With these two separate documents, BEL again supported different sets of requirements for those preparing for school librarianship as contrasted to others in professional library training.

In 1934 BEL reported twenty-six accredited library schools in operation with a large majority offering some coursework for specialization in school librarianship. Meanwhile, however, other academic institutions had realized the demand for courses of study in library science for school librarianship. These other institutions attempted to meet this demand in a variety of ways. Based on data from BEL in 1935, the variety of coursework in school librarianship available from the various academic institutions is summarized in the following chart.

Courses in School Librarianship **Based on data from BEL** **Academic Year 1934 – 1935**	
Offered by Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools	
Semester Hours	**Institutions**
28	3
24-26	2
15-18	6
12-14	7
6-11	8
Less than 6	25
Total	**51**
Offered by Miscellaneous Institutions as Colleges, Universities, etc. (Includes 14 Catholic Colleges)	
Semester Hours	**Institutions**
28-30	6
24-26	3
15-18	10
12-14	6
6-11	17
Less than 6	38
Total	**80**
Offered in Ten Accredited Library Schools* and One Special Accredited Curriculum (* Three of these accredited schools are in teachers' colleges.)	
Semester Hours	**Institutions**
30 or more	10
16	1
Total	**11**

Fargo 1936, 154)
adapted by Gann 2009

These data show that only eleven of the 142 programs were accredited by ALA while 131 were not. Furthermore, 102 programs consisted of less than a half-year course of study while sixty-four included fewer than six hours. Clearly, the academic institutions were addressing the education of school librarians by offering more of the shortened versions of the course of study with fifteen hours or less. In addition, teacher colleges and normal schools provided close to 94 percent of the available programs with 134 institutions out of the total of 142. This data also would suggest that more students were interested in the teacher-librarian or "semi-professional" training. This follows other statistics from the same time that suggest the need in the public schools was greatest for the part-time librarian (*i.e.* the teacher-librarian or semi-professional). A report completed by a Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association in 1936 revealed that the greatest need for school librarians at that time came from high schools. Furthermore, the vast majority of high schools had very small enrollments with approximately 75 percent had fewer than 200 students with more than half enrolling fewer than 100 students and about 30 percent having 50 or less (Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association 1936, 16). With small enrollments in these high schools, the need for the teacher-librarians was greatest. This would support the earlier data showing that most of the available coursework in school librarianship was for this type of part-time position. Therefore, as education courses for school librarians developed,

teachers colleges and normal schools that were not under ALA's accreditation domain provided a major part of the courses of study for school library personnel.

Recommendations from the Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association in 1936 further emphasized a dual approach for the preparation of school library work. The committee was organized to examine the status and function of library instruction designed for teachers, teacher-librarians, school librarians, and school administrators. Regarding their purpose to study essential elements of the preparation for school librarians and teacher-librarians, the committee formulated several guiding principles. Instruction for the two groups should be "sharply differentiated" with the library school emphasizing bibliographic knowledge and organization skills and how they may be adapted to serve varied communities and the teacher-preparing agencies should present the library and its tools as aids to education and as services for which the teacher-librarian in a small school might be responsible. Preparation for the teacher-librarian should be integrated with the teacher-training curriculum and for the school librarian should be provided through an accredited library school. The committee also indicated that not every teacher-training institution should attempt to provide instruction for school-library personnel. They also believed that as schools consolidated and library services were centralized, the teacher-librarian positions would cease to exist as they would be replaced by school library personnel (Joint Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association 1936). The committee's report, *How Shall We Educate Teachers and Librarians for Library Service in the Schools*, was well received on all sides. "It

took account of the realities of the school library situation, but safeguarded basic standards both of library education and of teacher education and, in the process, strengthened the role of the library as an educational instrument" (White 1976, 213).

With the new *Standards for Accreditation* in 1951, ALA further separated the preparation of school library personnel by establishing the master's level as the first professional library degree. This encompassed the basic premise that the professional library program should include a minimum of five years of study beyond secondary school (ALA 2003). The adoption of these standards "contributed to the already present separation of education for the majority of school librarians from the mainstream of library education, in that the undergraduate programs that continued tended to concentrate on school librarianship, since the general education was now established at being at the graduate level" (Lester and Latrobe 1998, 11).

By the early 1950s options for education to become school library personnel were many and often confusing in their variety. There were at least four types of training: the special modified one-year course of study in thirty or more ALA-accredited graduate professional library schools, a few undergraduate four-year library school programs, a much larger number of four-year programs in teacher-training institutions for training school librarians along with other special teacher positions in the schools, and a program in these same teacher-training institutions but with half or less time devoted to school library subjects for the purpose of training part-time school positions (*i.e.* teacher-librarians). Estimates at that time indicated approximately 600 institutions offering undergraduate programs of some sort of school library training (Leigh 1954). While the ideal approach as recommended by

ALA in its most recent standards was the graduate level program in an accredited library school, the great bulk of training for school librarians was taking place in the teacher-training institutions at the undergraduate level. To further complicate the situation, the various teacher-training institutions were subject to varying accreditation standards of regional agencies and the different certification requirements of the individual states. As a result, coursework and requirements varied greatly from program to program. "This is in striking contrast to the common standard for the education of professional librarians for work with adults set by the new accreditation regulations of the ALA under which professional education means five years of post-high-school educaiton , four of which shall be general or liberal education and one of which shall be professional-technical; the five-year span is to include a full graduate year in a professional library school" (Leigh 1954, 67). Perhaps recognizing the large number of undergraduate library education programs and the demand for school librarians, in 1952 ALA worked with the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), the Association of College and Reference Libraries (ACRL), and the State Supervisors of School Libraries to produce a new set of standards for teacher education institutions. These standards, *Standards for Library Science Programs in Teacher Education Institutions*, had been requested by the American Associaion of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) to provide them with minimum, uniform requirements to evaluate teacher education institutions training school librarians (legih 1954). Once again, with these standards ALA endorsed a separate means for school librarians to be trained by endorsing an undergraduate course of study with fifteen to eighteen hours.

1954 – 1980: Growth and Development in Accreditation

Once ALA's 1951 *Standards for Accreditation* and the 1952 *Standards for Library Science Programs in Teacher Education Institutions* were established, professionals questioned what agency was best to handle accrediting these two levels of education. While most generally agreed that BEL of ALA should oversee the accreditation of the school library programs in graduate schools of library service, the responsibility for accreditation of the undergraduate programs was not as distinct. If the undergraduate degree programs were offered primarily through teacher education institutions, then the AACTE seemed best to adminster the evauative standards. Most agreed, however, that the standards themselves should be set up by BEL in cooperation with the AACTE and that a librarian should always be included in AACTE evaluation committees (Leigh 1954). Founded in 1948 with the merger of six separate teacher education associations, AACTE in its early years was the accrediting body for teacher education institutions. By the early 1950s, however, AACTE recognized the competing demands placed on it as both an accrediting agency and a professional organization. As a result, in 1954 AACTE joined with four other organizations (the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Education Association, the National School Boards Association, and the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification) to form the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (AACTE 2009). Shortly after the creation of NCATE, ALA made a change also by replacing BEL with the newly formed ALA Committee on Accreditation (COA) (ALA 2003).

Therefore, by the mid-1950s, NCATE became the accrediting agency to evaluate library science programs in teacher education institutions and COA became responsible for accreditation of graduate level library science programs.

Reflecting the age of growth and development in school libraries nationally during the 1960s, "new programs for preparing school librarians were established at both undergraduate and graduate levels" (Lester and Latrobe 1998, 12). In addition to the expansion of school library programs was the proliferaton of instructional media programs that were the response to the development of audiovisual and multimedia resources in the schools. "The programs in schools of education responded more quickly to the need for courses in the selection, acquisition, use, and production of audiovisual resources than did the ALA programs" (Miller 1989, 132). Data from 1966-1968 revealed the presence of instructional technology programs: With 240 institutions reporting, 118 institutions had graduate programs in library science while 104 had graduate programs in instructional technology (Grazier 1971). In a similar way, the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (DAVI), a division of NEA, grew dramatically in membership from the 1950s to 1970. Membership in DAVI in 1958 was 3000 and in 1970 was 11,000 (AECT 2001). In 1971 DAVI changed its name to the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT). "From its inception, AECT has been concerned with the development of comptetent teachers as well as the development of quality media personnel" (Hanclosky and Earle 1992, 14). As AECT was getting established, ALA in 1972 produced its next set of standards for library education programs, *Standards for Accreditation*. This document for the first time emphasized qualitative rather than quantitative

requirements and recommendations. Furthermore, the standards allowed some variation in interpretation and were more indicative rather than prescriptive in nature (ALA 2003). As with the previous set, these standards maintained the master's degree as the entry level for the profession and, threrefore, reemphasized the separation in the preparation of the many school librarians.

In 1971 AECT published *Basic Guidelines for Media and Technology in Teacher Education*. This document outlines recommendations for appropriate selection, utilization, and production of media and was prepared to assist teacher education faculty and administration of colleges and universities to more realistically incorporate media and technology into their programs. The guidelines were written to accompany AACTE's *Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Education* and to fulfill the need for the kind of guidelines referred to in Standard 1.4 of the NCATE *Standards* (AECT 1971). The NCATE standard emphasized the importance of teacher education organizations' recommendations and made guidelines for teacher education as developed by these professional associations a required consideration by colleges and universities as they developed their programs in teacher education (Bergeson 1973). These AECT guidelines were intended to help institutions appraise their programs and to prepare for visits by NCATE accreditation teams. In 1971 AECT established two task forces to study certificaion and accreditation guidelines for educational media professionals. The task forces produced further guidelines in 1974: *Guidelines for the Certification of Personnel on Educational Communications and Technology* and *AECT Guidelines for Advanced Programs in Educational Communications and Technology*. These new sets of guidelines also were intended to

accompany the NCATE standards for accreditation of teacher education programs. In 1977, following NCATE's decision to revise accreditatin standards, AECT began a review of its guidelines which resulted in *Guidelines for the Accreditation of Programs in Educational Communications and Information Technologies* in 1983. By 1980, AECT became a constituent member in NCATE, making AECT one of three professional associations to be affiliated with NCATE. AECT's membership placed the organization "in a position of significant influence in the accreditation process" (Hanclosky and Earle 1992, 14). Throughout the 1970s AECT became a prominent organization within NCATE and developed influence with accreditation of media programs in schools and colleges of education. As a result, throughout the 1970s and most of the 1980s, AECT "developed the only national standards used within the teacher education community for the education of personnel in school library media programs" (Lester and Latrobe 1998, 13).

SECTION II

SETTING THE STAGE

CHAPTER 5

THE REDESIGN OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Dissatisfaction with the NCATE accreditation process of teacher education was evident by the mid-1970s. In 1976 the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (ACSESULGC) conducted a survey of its membership that revealed several major concerns regarding the NCATE process. The organization formed a committee to study the concerns and make recommendations to the membership regarding a suggested position in relation to NCATE. Based on the committee's report, the Association (ACSESULGC) decided to continue its participation in NCATE for a period of five years based on the idea that efforts were underway within NCATE to reform itself. If that reform did not succeed, the Association (ACSESULGC) would work to establish a new voluntary national accrediting association for Land Grant Institutions (Scannell 1983). The organization's approach to the accreditation situation is significant in that the membership's actions showed support for the idea of a voluntary accreditation system for teacher education programs. Furthermore, they believed that NCATE could reform itself if given a certain amount of time. A few years later, in 1980, the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU) also conducted a survey of its membership. This survey focused on the degree to which the membership considered NCATE standards to be adequate and their support for the accreditation process. Based on the survey results, TECSCU made several

recommendations in the form of a resolution that revealed strong support from the membership for the accreditation process as a type of quality control for teacher education. In addition, they believed accreditation should be mandatory and viewed the role of national accreditation as one that should monitor and report the extent to which states enforce compliance with national standards (Scannell 1983).

Meanwhile, NCATE was aware of the national criticism and concern over its accreditation process and especially with its overall organization and management. In 1980 NCATE approved an evaluative study of its internal operations designed to identify and address major problems. The study, conducted under the authority of Michigan State University Institute for Research on Teaching with Christopher Wheeler as the lead researcher, looked at how NCATE applied its standards and the effect of its accreditation process on the quality of teacher education programs. The study questioned whether NCATE accreditation represented a guarantee of minimum quality with its evaluation strategy based on the attitude that the mere presence of certain standards served as sufficient evidence of quality rather than an in-depth examination of whether or not the standards were being implemented well. The Wheeler study found further limitations with NCATE's ability to bring about change citing the weakness of its ultimate source of power and authority, dependence on volunteer help, and financial reliance on institutions as drawbacks. On the other hand, NCATE's strengths included its current practice that generally identified major problems in a program, its denial of a program represented to the public a program's inferior status in relation to NCATE standards, and the denial of accreditation did lead to modification and improvement of programs. Wheeler recommended

improvements to NCATE's evaluation process by revising standards, developing a policy manual to explain the rationale for the standards, analyzing the institutions on an in-depth basis, and providing better training for the evaluation teams (Wheeler 1980). By late 1981, NCATE staff drafted a proposal addressing a substantial "redesign" of NCATE (Scannell 1983, 5).

Further concern over the accreditation process continued with several individual institutions of higher education questioning their involvement with NCATE. This was reflected in the decisions of several Wisconsin educational institutions to withdraw from NCATE while several other state systems assessed the value of further participation in NCATE. In September 1982, Wisconsin institutions proposed a consortium for improving professional education preparation programs as an alternative to NCATE (Scannell 1983, 4). Other teacher education groups expressed similar concerns at this same time with a few groups, such as The National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC), withdrawing their participation from NCATE. In addition, several specialty area groups expressed concern over the NCATE standards. Representative of The National Association of School Psychologists and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics believed that NCATE standards were not specific to the characteristics and/or abilities needed in their fields and specialty areas (Scannell 1983). Concerns over the NCATE standards and accreditation procedures came from a variety of education-related institutions during the 1970s and 1980s.

With the widespread criticisms of NCATE, "the report that created the greatest impetus for change within NCATE" was the 1983 proposal from the

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) entitled *A Proposed Accreditation System: An Alternative to the Current NCATE System* (Gollnick and Kunkel 1986, 310). This document was the result of a Committee on Accreditation Alternatives appointed in 1981 by the AACTE Board of Directors. The committee's charge was "to develop an alternative accreditation process designed to overcome the deficiencies of the existing system" (Scannell 1983, 2). The committee had the flexibility to recommend an alternative to replace NCATE or to propose organizational and process changes designed to modify the existing system. While the committee strongly supported a system of national accreditation for teacher education, its report identified the major concerns about the current system and then made several recommendations. The concerns about NCATE included:

- unclear standards that could not be applied uniformly;
- standards that failed to address factors essential to the quality of teacher education programs;
- evaluation teams that were too large and lacked necessary in-depth training;
- redundancy in program reviews for national accreditation, institutional self-evaluation, and state agency program approval;
- accreditation of program categories that often gave an unrealistic view of the total educational unit;
- excessive costs incurred by member institutions;
- lack of distinction (in materials prepared, scope of visit, criteria applied, etc.) between institutions that had achieved accreditation and those that sought initial accreditation;

- procedural problems faced by the Council caused by the size and complexity of their task;
- uneven application of the standards with some bias against certain types of institutions. (Scannell 1983, 5-13)

Along with these concerns, the report expressed a strong belief that NCATE should be revised and strengthened, not replaced, and that the emphasis should be on identifying and publicizing quality in professional education. Furthermore, all institutions regardless of size, scope, and type would have an equal opportunity to meet the standards and that the burden of proof was on each institution to demonstrate that its professional education unit meets the NCATE standards. Therefore, the final proposal recommended that NCATE focus on the educational unit (*i.e.* the school, college, department, or other official academic structure within the institution) instead of on program categories, adopt uniform standards in five areas (operation and resources of the unit, faculty resources, student body, knowledge base, relationship to world of practice), identify quantifiable indicators of quality, and establish a board of examiners with in-depth training for evaluation teams which should be reduced in size. Further recommendations called for expansion of preconditions or eligibility requirements for accreditation, adoption of continuing accreditation to replace reaccreditation, and establishment of a process for annual monitoring and review. In addition, suggestions were made for establishing a data bank with data elements representing the quantification of the standards, providing more information about accredited units in the annual list, and developing better communication between national accreditation and state approval processes (Scannell 1983, 15-38).

Once the AACTE proposal was presented in 1983 "NCATE responded quickly" to begin the redesign of the accreditation process and its overall governance system (Gollnick and Kunkel 1986, 310). In June 1983 NCATE adopted six principles based on the AACTE recommendations to guide its redevelopment:

1. Accreditation would be based on the teacher education unit as a whole.
2. Continuing accreditation would replace the concept of reaccreditation.
3. Articulation would be provided between the program review for state approval and the program review for national accreditation.
4. Visiting team members would be selected from a board of examiners, the members of which would be highly skilled in evaluation techniques and well trained in NCATE processes and standards.
5. Five sets of standards would replace the six sets of standards previously used.
6. The NCATE annual list would be expanded to include a description of each teacher education unit and data that describe the support level for professional education programs within that unit. (Gollnick and Kunkel 1986, 310-311)

Using these principles as guidelines, the NCATE Council had the responsibility to oversee the redesign process. During the next two years, the Council rewrote standards and procedures with input from constituent members. At that time the constituent members included twenty education-related organizations: the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the National Education Association, the National Association of State Boards of Education, the National School Boards

Association, the Council of Chief-State School Officers, the American Association for Counseling and Development, the American Association of School Administrators, the Association of Teacher Educators, the Association of Educational Communication and Technology, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Council for Exceptional Children, the International Reading Association, the International Technology Education Association/Council for Technology Teacher Education, the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Association of School Psychologists, the National Council for the Social Studies, the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, the National Science Teachers Association, and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance. The new NCATE standards that were developed from this process had five categories for the unit-based accreditation: knowledge base for professional education, relationship to the world of practice, students, faculty, and governance and resources (Gollnick and Kunkel 1986).

Changes to the NCATE system of governance also were made during the redesign process. Part of this change related to the way NCATE worked with the specialized professional organizations that had their own specialized standards and curriculum guides. Donna Gollnick, who was at AACTE as the staff liaison between AACTE and NCATE prior to becoming the Deputy Executive Director at NCATE in 1986, worked to implement the AACTE recommendations into the NCATE organization. She recalled that beginning in the early 1980s one of the responsibilities of the NCATE Council was to accept specialty standards from various

education-related professional groups. The Council would approve them, but at that time they only required that faculty *know* the standards and did not require them actually to *use* the standards. Therefore, during the redesign process, one area of reform was in how to work with the specialized professional organizations that had their own standards. While addressing this problem, the organization realized that completing in-depth analysis of specialty area standards in addition to making the accreditation decisions and working with individual states was too much for one group to do. As a result, a new system of governance was established in NCATE with four boards:

• the Executive Board to oversee all NCATE policies and fiscal matters and provide overall direction for the organization;

• the Unit Accreditation Board to make decisions regarding accreditation of the institutions;

• the State Recognition Board to work with the states in recognizing state systems of program approval;

• the Specialty Area Studies Board to look at standards and recommend curriculum guidelines that institutions must meet as part of the preconditions for accreditation (Gollnick 2008).

This new governance system went into effect on July 1, 1986. The development of the Specialty Area Studies Board allowed the professional organizations to participate more fully in the accreditation process. Most of the members on the Specialty Area Studies Board actually were members from the specialized organizations, thus allowing them to control that area of accreditation (Gollnick 2008). Richard Kunkel,

who served as Executive Director of NCATE from 1984 – 1990, was very positive about this development in that it provided a new structure to link "the appropriate actors into accreditation." As he explained, it had the effect of involving more specialized organizations in NCATE; prior to the redesign process there were about fourteen specialized organizations, but after the development of the new governance system there were about twenty-four (Kunkel, 1990).

Perhaps the real benefit for the specialized organizations that participated through the newly established Specialty Area Studies Board was the way the institutions would have to apply the organizations' standards to their programs.

> I know of no other way, other than through the state program approval process, that programs are required to look at themselves against standards. In the earlier days we [NCATE] expected faculty to know the standards. But that is very different from actually applying them to themselves. I think that is the benefit for all specialty organizations to be involved. (Gollnick 2008).

Recognition of this benefit and having the new Specialty Area Studies Board in place may have been part of the motivation for ALA to seek membership in NCATE. References to the pursuit of NCATE membership from within ALA official documents began in 1983 when AASL petitioned ALA's Executive Board for permission to join NCATE (which was denied) and continued through the approval by ALA Council and the general membership in 1987. This time period in ALA, 1983 – 1987, closely follows the time of NCATE's redesign that officially began in 1983 with its adoption of the six principles to guide its redevelopment based on the AACTE recommendations and continued through the enactment of its new

governance system on July 1, 1986. In 1985, Tom Galvin, the new ALA Executive Director, met with the AASL Executive Committee and identified one of his priorities for ALA was to establish and/or strengthen ALA's relationship with other national associations, such as NCATE (AASL. Executive Committee 1985). Later, in 1986, Galvin stated to the AASL Executive Committee that the "climate in NCATE is probably receptive now" to pursue membership (AASL. Executive Committee 1986). Ann Weeks, AASL Executive Director 1986 – 1996, identified that time period as a period of great change for NCATE. She felt that NCATE was trying to be more inclusive and to encourage the specialty organizations like ALA. She thought it was a time when educational organizations were trying to work together (Weeks 2007). Marilyn Miller, AASL President 1986 – 1987, clearly recognized the impact of the NCATE redesign on ALA's drive to become a partner:

> Their reorganization of the specialty areas made it possible. That was a great selling point. If you're just going to join NCATE and who knows what good it's going to do and who's going to be in charge and how you can have any power—influence, not power, but influence. But under the reorganization with the specialty areas you're sure that people are going to take a hard look at it and that more than just one level is going to take a look at it. I think that fit very much into [accomplishing the goal]. (Miller 2006)

With these indications from NCATE, ALA certainly would have felt encouraged to participate as a specialty organization. Therefore, the redesign of NCATE was a key factor in creating an appropriate climate and organizational structure for ALA, as a specialized organization, to seek membership and participate in NCATE.

CHAPTER 6

LOCATION AND NUMBERS

By the 1970s-1980s, the geographic distribution and total number of ALA-accredited library schools in the United States in relation to those of schools of education and other teacher preparation institutions were critical factors in the drive from AASL/ALA to seek a partnership with NCATE. While most states had at least one school of education or other program for teacher preparation, the same was not true for library schools. In fact, the distribution of library schools throughout the United States was quite uneven. As ALA-accredited library schools developed throughout the twentieth century, most of them were located in the Northeast, Southeast, and Midwest. Based on historical data from ALA, the following table summarizes the geographic dispersion by states of ALA-accredited programs for two time periods related to this narrative.

Geographic Distribution and Total Number of ALA-accredited Library Schools in the United States During 1970s-1980s

(Based on data from ALA 2009. *Accredited Library and Information Studies Master's Programs From 1925 Through Present*.)

States	1977 – 1978	1983 – 1984	States	1977 – 1978	1983 – 1984
Alabama	2	1	Montana	0	0
Alaska	0	0	Nebraska	0	0
Arizona	1	1	Nevada	0	0
Arkansas	0	0	New Hampshire	0	0
California	4	4	New Jersey	1	1
Colorado	1	1	New Mexico	0	0
Connecticut	1	1	New York	9	8
Delaware	0	0	North Carolina	2	3
Dist. of Col.	1	1	North Dakota	0	0
Florida	2	2	Ohio	2	2
Georgia	2	2	Oklahoma	1	1

Hawaii	1	1	Oregon	1	0
Idaho	0	0	Pennsylvania	3	3
Illinois	4	4	Rhode Island	1	1
Indiana	1	2	South Carolina	1	1
Iowa	1	1	South Dakota	0	0
Kansas	1	1	Tennessee	3	2
Kentucky	1	1	Texas	3	3
Louisiana	1	1	Utah	1	1
Maine	0	0	Vermont	0	0
Maryland	1	1	Virginia	0	0
Massachusetts	1	1	Washington	1	1
Michigan	3	2	West Virginia	0	0
Minnesota	1	1	Wisconsin	2	2
Mississippi	0	2	Wyoming	0	0
Missouri	1	1			

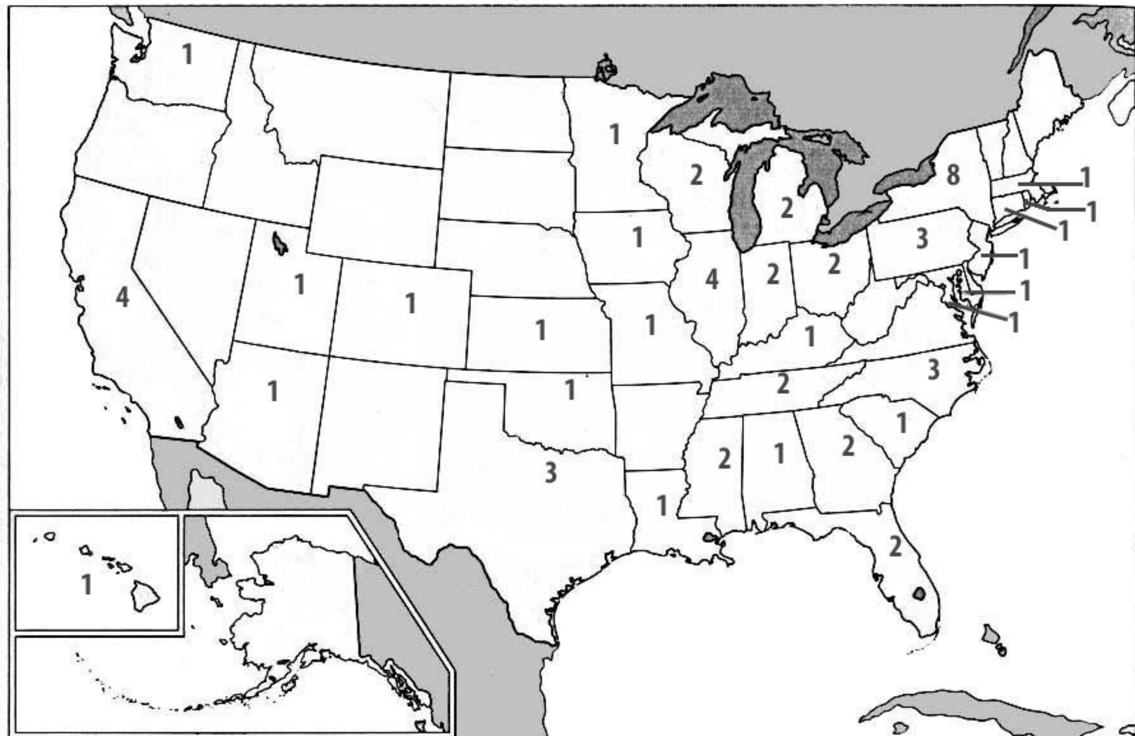
Using the above data, the following maps represent visually the geographic distribution of ALA-accredited library schools in the United States during the 1970s – 1980s.

Geographic Distribution and Total Number of ALA-accredited Library Schools in the United States During 1977-1978

(Based on data from ALA 2009. *Accredited Library and Information Studies Master's Programs From 1925 Through Present*.)

Geographic Distribution and Total Number of ALA-accredited Library Schools in the United States During 1983-1984

(Based on data from ALA 2009. *Accredited Library and Information Studies Master's Programs From 1925 Through Present*.)



Some changes do exist between the two time periods. For example, from 1977-1978 to 1983-1984 the number of programs in some states decreased (i.e. Oregon, Michigan, New York, and Tennessee) while the number of programs in other states increased (i.e. Indiana, North Carolina, Mississippi, and Alabama). But the overall total number of programs stayed somewhat consistent with 62 in 1977-1978 and 61 in 1983-1984. Furthermore, the data from these two time periods show vast sections of the country with no library programs at all while other areas have large numbers of library schools concentrated into relatively small geographic sections. The

geographic dispersion of accredited library programs always has been “very bizarre.” In some places, such as Denton, Texas, two programs exist in the same small town while other larger states have none at all or too few for the population area (Lester 2007). Besides the small numbers and uneven distribution of ALA-accredited library schools, there also were a number of programs that *if* they did prepare school librarians, it was a relatively *small* number. School librarianship was not one of the major efforts in ALA-accredited programs throughout the twentieth century (Weeks 2007). “Geographically, library education never has been accessible to many people who want to go to library school, and that is more true for school librarians. There just weren’t enough library schools and they just weren’t where they should have been” (Miller 2006).

Complicating the small numbers and uneven geographic distribution of library schools, during this same time period was an abundance of schools of education and other teacher preparation institutions. Generally, most states had at least one school of education or teacher preparation program, but commonly most states had several. According to data from the National Center for Education Statistics and from the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, in 1978 there were 1,243 institutions preparing teachers in the United States while in 1984 there were 1,241 (Gideonse 1986). For the same time periods, NCATE had approximately 500 accredited institutions in 1977-1978 and 527 in 1983-1984 (NCATE 1983). The chart below combines the data on institutions preparing teachers and the ALA-accredited programs.

Teacher Preparation Institutions and ALA-accredited Schools

1977-1978 and 1983-1984

	1977-1978	**1983-1984**
ALA-accredited schools	62	61
NCATE-accredited schools	500 (approx.)	527
Teacher Preparation Institutions	1243	1241

Clearly, there were more schools for teacher preparation that were geographically accessible than there were library schools.

Research conducted at this same time period revealed evidence that the number of graduates from ALA-accredited library education programs who were going to work in educational settings was declining at a steady rate. Learmont (1980) collected data from sixty-one ALA-accredited library programs and concluded that overall there were fewer recent graduates of accredited library programs than ever before with the average number of graduates per school at 103 in 1977, 88 in 1978, and 84 in 1979. Furthermore, job placements in school settings for graduates marked a steady decline from 26 percent of overall graduates in 1972 to 17.9 percent in 1979. Also of interest, in 1979 twenty-one of these schools had five or fewer placements into elementary or secondary school library positions out of their total number of graduates while only five schools each had more than fifteen. The charts below, based on Learmont's data, summarize this data for the low-producing (i.e. five or fewer placements into elementary or secondary school library positions out of their total number of graduates) and top-producing (i.e. more than fifteen placements into elementary or secondary school library positions out of their total number of graduates) ALA-accredited library schools.

Low-producing ALA-accredited Library Schools with Graduate Placement into Elementary and Secondary School Library Positions – 1979

(Based on data from Learmont, 1980, Table III)

Library School	Placed in School Library Positions	Total Graduates	Percent of School Placements
Brigham Young	3	28	10.7
British Columbia	5	59	8.5
California (Berkley)	3	36	8.3
California (LA)	2	47	4.2
Case Western	4	57	7
Catholic	5	56	8.9
Chicago	0	18	0
Clarion	4	10	40
Columbia	3	58	5.2
Dalhousie	0	20	0
Emory	5	43	11.6
Illinois	3	66	4.5
Missouri	4	37	10.8
Montana*	2	52	3.8
North Carolina	3	34	8.8
Pratt	3	24	12.5
Queens	1	18	5.6
St. Johns	3	11	27.3
Southern California	2	31	6.5
South Florida	5	20	25
Toronto	4	56	7.1

* Learmont's Table III listed Montana as an ALA-accredited library school in 1979, but according to ALA historical data Montana never has had an ALA-accredited library school. Therefore, this author thinks Learmont's Table III should have listed Montreal instead of Montana since the University of Montreal has had an ALA-accredited library school since 1967-1968.

Top-producing ALA-accredited Library Schools with Graduate Placement into Elementary and Secondary School Library Positions – 1979

(Based on data from Learmont, 1980, Table III)

Library School	Placed in School Library Positions	Total Graduates	Percent of School Placements
Alabama	18	52	34.6
Kent State	26	94	27.7
Michigan	24	115	20.9
Texas Woman's	21	38	55.2
Washington	16	66	24.2

This data provides a perspective on the number of ALA-accredited library school graduates who entered school library positions in individual states during the late 1970s. The range of total school placements was from zero to twenty-six. This reinforces the idea that ALA-accredited schools were producing small numbers of school librarian graduates and that there were a number of programs that *if* they did prepare school librarians, it was a relatively *small* number. Furthermore, these figures support the perspective that school librarianship was not one of the major efforts in ALA-accredited programs throughout the twentieth century (Weeks 2007).

While the number of ALA library school graduates who took positions as school librarians was declining, during the same time period the overall number of school librarians was increasing. Data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and the United States Department of Education revealed the total number of school librarians in elementary and secondary schools in 1970 was 52,000 while in 1973-1974 there were 62,659 and in 1978-1979 there were 81,759. Even though the increasing numbers of school librarians may be due partially to expanding views of who was considered the "school librarian" within a school, the numbers do suggest

the decade of the 1970s produced more school library positions within public elementary and secondary schools (Heim 1981). Therefore, the contrast in these two sets of data (i.e. declining number of ALA graduates who entered a school library position and increasing numbers of school librarians throughout the country) indicates that these new school library professionals were being trained in non-ALA-accredited programs. In her 1981 review of library education, Venable Lawson commented on the reduction in the percentage of ALA-accredited library school graduates placed in school libraries as being a concern to the profession.

> The diminishing enrollment of students in accredited programs who seek careers in school media encourages restricting the number and frequency of courses related to school media. At the same time new state certification requirements for school media personnel stress competencies so specific to school media that they cannot be easily identified in the more general master's curriculum. Therefore, the non-accredited programs which are specifically designed to prepare school media personnel and to meet individual state certification requirements are attracting more and more of this audience. (Lawson 1981)

While data to document this assumption did not exist, many ALA faculty and AASL members recognized that in almost every instance the programs responsible for preparing the new school library professionals were within schools of education (Heim 1981).

Once ALA and AASL leaders recognized that a high percentage of school library media personnel were prepared outside the ALA-accredited programs, many

in the profession saw a need for more interaction with the schools of education. The motivation from AASL for interacting was based on a perceived need to *improve* the library programs within the schools of education. Leaders in AASL wanted to be sure that the colleges and schools of education were using the same principles that AASL believed were best practices for school librarianship (Miller 2006; Weeks 2007). Furthermore, it became apparent that there was great variance in the quality of preparation throughout the fifty states for preparing school library media specialists (Miller 1989, "New Partnerships..."). These library programs from the schools of education basically were very different from the ALA-accredited programs. Graduates from the schools of education entered the school library media field from a diversity of programs with a variety of requirements. Even the potential degrees were different. While the ALA first professional degree was a masters degree, the schools of education library programs offered bachelors and masters degrees as well as simply a concentrated number of hours or a specialization as part of the bachelors degree. Even at the masters level, the names of the degrees were different: a Masters of Library Science as contrasted to a Masters in Education or Masters in Reading, etc. (Lester 2007). In addition, the number of hours required by the non-ALA-accredited programs varied greatly. While ALA programs required thirty-six hours, the other programs often required far fewer hours. Frequently, these programs simply reflected state certification requirements that varied greatly across the country. For example, at that time only eight hours were required to be certified as a school librarian in Kansas while other states required fifteen hours or more (Miller 2006). Furthermore, the focus of the programs in the schools of education was often quite different. In

addition to a traditional emphasis on books, coursework for a potential school library media specialist in a school of education program could have been in audiovisual production, instructional media, or some other single-purpose program. "[Programs in the schools of education] did not have the right courses. They did not have the breadth. They had just the basics of book selection, cataloging, and reference for nine hours. If they required twelve hours they might have had children's literature. And if they went to fifteen hours, they maybe would have audiovisual production" (Miller 2006). While these non-ALA-accredited programs may have met specific state requirements or provided a single-purpose emphasis, they were not comparable to ALA-accredited schools.

Further motivation to interact with the schools of education came from concern over increasing evidence that a shortage of school librarians would occur in the mid-to-late 1980s. In the 1970s, the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics analyzed school librarian employment and made projections through 1985. The report prepared by the Office of Education forecasted demand based on projected enrollments in elementary and secondary schools. They prepared three sets of projection demands for school librarians. The first projection was based on the prevailing pupil/librarian ratio in 1967-1968 that they assumed would remain unchanged through the 1970s. Therefore, this first projection assumed the pupil/librarian ratio of 1,297:1. The second projection assumed that the pupil/librarian ratio would continue to improve at the rate of 3.5 percent as it did from 1958-1959 to 1967-1968. The third projection was based on the pupil/librarian ratio

of 250:1 to reach the level of school librarians recommended by the 1969 ALA/AECT national standards, *Standards for School Media Programs*. The supply and demand forecast done by the Bureau of Statistics in its 1975 *Library Manpower* study basically revised the earlier projections by adjusting student enrollment numbers. While the two studies had different actual numbers, they both showed a very strong continuing increase in demand for school library personnel. Even though the staffing recommendations from the 1969 and 1975 AASL/AECT national standards had not been achieved, in 1978-1979 the actual numbers exceeded the demand projected by the 1975 study (Heim 1981). In 1983 King Research conducted another study of supply and demand for the National Center for Education Statistics and the Office of Libraries and Learning Technologies. This study related school librarian demand to public school enrollment numbers which had peaked in 1971 and had been declining since then. Even though the number of teachers declined, the number of public school librarians increased steadily by about 10 percent per year from 1964-1976. During 1978-1982, the number of public school librarians leveled off. Finally, Turner's study (1987), based on data from 1984, showed shortages and surpluses of school librarians depending on the region of the country with the Midwestern states (i.e. Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, and Wisconsin) having the most number of applicants per position and both the Middle Atlantic states (i.e. Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, West Virginia) and the Southeastern states (i.e. Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia) having significantly fewer. Turner also indicated that there was limited

evidence that large numbers of school library media specialists were approaching retirement age, and if that actually were the case the scattered shortages would become more widespread. From these various studies and statistical trends, some AASL leaders were concerned that the demand for school librarians might well exceed the supply (Miller 2006).

As the 1980s began, leaders in ALA and AASL became aware of these troubling reports regarding the availability of ALA-accredited library schools, increased numbers of school library media specialists being prepared in schools of education, and predictions of high demands for school library media specialists in the approaching decade. "The supply and demand study had an impact [on ALA Council]" (Miller 2006). Once Council members realized that ALA had "no library schools in Montana, Idaho, and Oregon and only two in California and none in New Mexico or Arizona" and then they realized the increasing number of schools in the country that were moving or had already moved to establish school libraries, it became obvious to ALA that ALA-accredited schools alone would not be able to meet the demand (Miller 2006). Furthermore, compounding the problems of the small number of ALA programs and the relatively small number of school librarians produced by many of those programs, there was a shortage of faculty to teach in the school library area (Weeks 2007). ALA needed to be receptive to working with the schools of education.

> As we neared the mid-1980s, the association's [AASL's] need became more pronounced as it became evident that the higher education community could not produce enough school library media specialists to serve the nation's

> 100,000 plus public and private schools only in programs accredited by ALA's Committee on Accreditation. Many school library media personnel were demonstrating this fact by attending programs developed in schools of education that were eligible for accreditation by NCATE. (Miller 1989, "New Partnerships…" 260)

With the knowledge that many schools of education were accredited by NCATE, AASL looked toward that national accreditation organization as a means to work with the schools of education in training future school library media professionals.

CHAPTER 7

REDEFINING ROLES

While AASL was beginning to see the need to work with NCATE and the schools of education in the early 1980s, AASL leaders also were busy at work behind the scenes drafting the next set of national standards for school library media programs. As with the three previous sets of national standards (*i.e. Standards for School Library Programs*, 1960; *Standards for School Media Programs*, 1969; and *Media Programs: District and School*, 1975), the new standards would continue to redefine the role of the school library media specialist and make significant changes to K – 12 school library media programs across the country. The change in the school library's emphasis from a supportive role to a more active instructional role began with the 1960 standards by focusing on the library *program* and the librarian's *instructional* responsibilities. As part of the instructional program, these standards indicated a collaborative relationship between librarians and classroom teachers. The 1960 standards also broadened the concept of the library into a *materials center* or *instructional resource center* as an attempt to include audiovisual materials and to be more a part of the school's overall instructional role. The 1969 standards continued this expansion of the roles by attempting to coordinate the school library and audiovisual programs and introduced new terminology for school libraries and librarians with the use of *media, media program, media center,* and *media specialist*. More significantly, the 1969 standards focused on the partnership between school librarians and teachers in working together to develop instructional strategies to meet the needs of students. With the 1975 standards, the *user* became the focus of the

media program. This document also introduced the concept of a unified program with resources that supported not only the curriculum but also the teaching methods of teachers. Changing the media program from a support service to an integral part of the total instructional program of the school, the 1975 standards emphasized the library media specialist's involvement with classroom teachers in the instructional design process (Gann 1998). As AASL leaders worked on the next set of standards in the mid-1980s, they saw an even more dramatic shift developing for school library media programs. The new standards, later known as national guidelines entitled *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* (1988), would redefine the mission of school library media programs to ensure that students and staff become effective users of ideas and information. In addition, the 1988 guidelines would identify three distinct roles for the school library media specialist as information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant. The focus would be on a more active role in instruction by working in collaboration with classroom teachers and utilizing a variety of instructional materials to support the curriculum and student learning. AASL leaders knew they were making significant change in the profession with the publication of the upcoming *Information Power*. For them, the new emphasis was really to look at the *three roles* that would be created initially in the new guidelines and really to keep the teaching role but also make sure that there was the information specialist, which was much more like the traditional library position, and then there would be the instructional consultant role for the collaboration, which would be a new concept (Weeks 2007). In essence, the national standards from the

1960s through the 1980s reshaped the purpose of the school library media programs in K – 12 schools and redefined the role of the school library media specialist.

In addition to identifying new roles for the school library media specialist, the forthcoming national guidelines would specify staffing requirements for school library media centers. Recognizing that staffing levels and patterns depended upon a variety of factors (*i.e.* school size, faculty and student expectations, curriculum, physical facility, etc.), the new guidelines would indicate that all school library media centers at all grade levels should have *one or more certificated library media specialist* working fulltime in the school's library media center (AASL and AECT 1988). AASL leaders recognized the problems in reaching this goal. Data from the Center for Educational Statistics for the year 1985 (Williams, Jeffrey W. 1987) showed that 73,352 or 93 percent of the nation's public schools had school library media centers. Of those schools, only 58, 057 had certificated school library media specialists. These numbers reconfirmed the staffing shortages projected during the previous decade. As a result, the new national guidelines would emphasize the need for large numbers of new school library media specialists as well as the redefined roles.

To emphasize how different the newly defined roles from the AASL standards would be for K – 12 school library media programs, one can examine the guidelines from other professional organizations that also gave direction to K – 12 school officials and school library professionals at the same time. Already in place for school media-related positions were *Quantitative Standards for Audiovisual Personnel, Equipment and Materials (in Elementary, Secondary, and Higher*

Education) from the National Education Association that included those with "library responsibility." The purpose of those standards was to state quantitative guidelines in four categories: personnel, materials, equipment, and budget (Cobun 1966). They focused on numbers of personnel and how many items of materials and equipment should be available for basic and advanced programs as well as suggested budget figures. Furthermore, considering how programs in schools of education often reflected state certification requirements, the national *Guidelines for Certification of Media Specialists* in 1977 from the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) included "library personnel" and reflected an emphasis on competencies in media management, media product development, and instructional program development (Galey and Grady 1977). Both of those sets of standards or guidelines were very different from the AASL standards developed in the mid-1980s with a focus on the user as a learner and the media specialist as information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant.

For many in the profession, these redefined roles were difficult to understand and put into practice. AASL leaders for some time had recognized the need for concentrated efforts to educate existing school library media specialists who focused on the book and the traditional role of librarian and who were accustomed to quantitative standards. The ideas of instructional design and collaboration were really new concepts that required numerous workshops and in-service training (Miller 2006). To promote these concepts, AASL leaders became concerned not only for the education of school library professionals already in the field but also for the education of future school library media specialists. Because of the recognition that a high

percent of school library media professionals were being prepared outside the ALA-accredited programs, AASL had to make sure that the colleges of education would be using the same principles that were important for the upcoming new standards, *Information Power*, and that were what they believed were best practices for school librarianship (Weeks 2007).

For some time, AASL leaders were concerned about the school library programs in the colleges of education. This concern was “not that they were inferior necessarily but that they were much more based on practice. They were much more tied to the teacher role more than anything else” (Weeks 2007). While the school library programs in the colleges and schools of education varied greatly in requirements, they often tended to be more traditional and centered on books. Then when audiovisual materials and technology came into education, the schools of education responded with single-purpose programs focused on technology and instructional design. The development of programs in schools of education was a response to the developments in instructional technology and the development of the traditional school library into the current multi-media, multi-technology school library media center (Miller 1989, "Forging New Partnerships…”). As a result, those programs were more teacher-oriented and based on practice and would not address the newly defined role of instructional consultant with an emphasis on the learner and collaboration with the classroom teacher.

On another level, some within ALA had other concerns about school library media professionals receiving their education at non-ALA-accredited programs. From the library profession perspective, the sense of what was wrong with school

library media specialists being educated in schools or colleges of education was that it separated them from the rest of the profession. In a sense, their whole professional identity was very much narrower than that of those who had been educated in the ALA programs. Their education focused on things in a different way. While this might have been an advantage in preparing them to work with teachers, it caused them to have a different perspective from others in the library profession (Lester 2007). Representing a view as a former Director of the ALA Office for Accreditation and as a faculty member in an ALA-accredited school, June Lester believes this distinction has been a "marginalization" for school library media specialists who would not have an understanding of what is going on in the rest of the field (Lester 2007). Expressing a similar view, Marilyn Miller described the problem with the school of education programs as their not having the "big picture" in terms of a broader, more philosophical approach to libraries as was found in the ALA-accredited programs. The programs in the schools of education were narrowly focused on the school viewpoint with nothing about other types of libraries (Miller 2006). The more narrow approach to school librarianship from programs in schools of education resulted in many school library media specialists not having a good sense of the whole library profession.

With a variety of concerns over the education for school library media specialists, AASL leaders knew they needed a voice in defining program standards and principles for school library media programs in the schools and colleges of education. The new concepts from the upcoming *Information Power* would change the profession and, therefore, had to be at the heart of all school library education

programs. AASL leaders knew the schools of education were producing large numbers of school library personnel and believed they should “provide the guidance that would improve those programs to meet the standards” that AASL would be producing (Miller 2006). By the mid-1980s with the newly redesigned NCATE that encouraged participation of specialty organizations, AASL looked to NCATE as a possible means for meeting their goals in crafting standards and guidelines for school library education programs.

Another underlying concern from within ALA that also could have motivated leaders in AASL to seek a partnership with NCATE was the long-standing feeling that school librarianship was not considered a significant part of the library profession. Almost from the beginning of the association, library leaders disavowed their role in school library education by assigning that responsibility to NEA. Furthermore, when library schools did address school library education they often did so through a curriculum separate from that of other library professionals. The education of school librarians was not necessarily one of the major efforts in ALA-accredited programs. If a program did prepare school librarians, it often was in relatively small numbers (Weeks 2007). In addition, ALA-accredited programs often did not offer the kinds of courses school librarians wanted or needed. Prostano and Prostano (1979) concluded from their study of course offerings in accredited library schools that the lack of significant numbers of courses in the area of educational technology being offered by the library schools partially explained why accredited library programs no longer attracted the majority of individuals who desired positions in the school library setting. The declines in school library placements from library

schools also could be the result of the non-accredited programs being more closely suited to the requirements and certification for school positions (Heim 1981). While schools of education responded quickly to changes in the school library profession, ALA-accredited programs were slow to provide the kinds of courses needed.

> Many library media specialists will testify today that, when they have sought programs of higher education that would prepare them for the kinds of responsibilities demanded by the school library media programs (envisioned by their school system administrators and described in national ALA standards for school library media program development), they have found the most responsible curricula for their needs to be in programs not accredited by ALA. (Miller 1989, "Forging New Partnerships…," 4)

Furthermore, this was a time when many school librarians felt they were "ignored" by ALA and perceived themselves as having "low standing" within the organization (Weeks 2007). School librarians felt like "stepchildren in ALA" and thought they really were not accepted as "first class citizens" (Miller 2006). Thus, the time period when AASL began its drive to join NCATE in 1983 was described as being a divisive time for ALA. This was a time of "heightened sensitivity" between ALA and the divisions regarding operating agreements and budgetary matters (Lester 2007). Beginning around 1983 through 1985 was a time when AASL was considering pulling out of ALA and forming a separate organization (Weeks 2007). These thoughts among school librarians within ALA may have added motivation for AASL to seek a partnership with NCATE.

While ALA would need to be the actual group to seek membership as a specialty organization, the benefits of joining NCATE would be many for both ALA and AASL. One of the top benefits obviously would be that AASL would be able to oversee the implementation of their standards in the accreditation process of school library education programs in the schools of education. In the accreditation process, NCATE would look at the preparation of teachers and other school professionals in the schools and colleges of education. School library media specialists would be considered "other school professionals" (Gollnick 2008). AASL would develop the standards for the accreditation process in the schools of education that had school library programs. The major benefit for AASL would be having "library programs look at the standards, and there is no other way that I know of other than through the state program approval process that programs are required to look at themselves against standards. This is the benefit for all specialty organizations to be involved" (Gollnick 2008). Through NCATE, AASL would be able to develop professional competencies for entry-level school library media specialists upon completion of a school library media education program. In addition, AASL would be able to examine and evaluate the curriculum in school library media education programs and assess how the faculty and courses address the competencies (Miller 1989, "New Partnerships…"). This would improve and extend these programs and would mean that graduates of those programs were just as well qualified for their jobs in the library world as graduates from ALA-accredited schools (Miller 2006). Furthermore, "by doing this ALA would have some way to have input into the education of these people that we knew were being educated in colleges of education and that were

serving as school media specialists and that we had no way of impacting at all without this partnership. And so the partnership was important to ALA as a whole because it was a way to influence what was going on. You couldn't do it any other way" (Lester 2007).

By partnering with NCATE, AASL also could influence the school library media programs within ALA-accredited library schools. While members from AASL had not thought for some time that ALA accreditation looked specifically at school librarianship in the way that the division felt it should, participation in NCATE would give them another option (Gollnick 2008). For the state approval process, many states adopted the NCATE procedures as their state recognition procedures. As a result, schools with ALA accreditation often had to go through the NCATE process also. Originally this was not supposed to occur under the agreement of "reciprocal recognition" where NCATE would recognize ALA accreditation without requiring a library school to go through the NCATE process. One of the reasons this would be beneficial to the ALA-accredited schools that had school media programs was that this would give them an added sign of approval or something like that without having to go through a totally separate process (Lester 2007). As a result, many ALA-accredited schools with school library media programs did go through the NCATE process and used the NCATE standards.

> This movement into NCATE helped ALA-accredited schools by using the NCATE standards. They had evaluation from both groups. And that helped. That helped develop youth services courses…NCATE forced ALA-accredited schools to look at things that we maybe took for granted. That means the

development of objectives, courses, the content of the syllabi, bibliographies, and the assignments. (Miller 2006).

By going through the NCATE process, faculty in ALA-accredited schools become more aware of the expectations for school library media specialists and the philosophy of their education. "It really heightened the awareness in a way that was probably good" (Lester 2007). ALA's partnership with NCATE brought improved education to school library media specialists through programs in both the schools of education and also in the ALA-accredited schools.

Membership in NCATE also would allow ALA to have many opportunities to interpret the role of libraries in education and learning at many different levels. The NCATE review process would cause ALA to stay current with their standards and competencies, which in essence, define the profession to the community at large. As a member of NCATE, ALA through AASL would need to present revised guidelines to NCATE every five years. Preparation programs must be reviewed every five years for continuing NCATE accreditation and therefore would have to review their courses and programs in relation to the standards. Program faculty would submit documentation including course syllabi and description of activities, assignments, and practica that would describe how students develop the specific competencies in their courses of study. AASL, as part of the AASL/NCATE Folio Review process, would evaluate the documentation to be certain the programs are providing the appropriate educational opportunities for students to develop the competencies. Furthermore, AASL would have representatives on the NCATE Board of Examiners who would conduct the site visits to review faculty credentials, facilities, library and other

resources, and the structure of the unit of higher education. ALA also would have representation on NCATE Specialty Areas Studies Board that develops guidelines and procedures with other member professional associations. This would give ALA the opportunity to review competency requirements in subject areas that relate to library and information skills and resources. In short, ALA's membership in NCATE would give the organization many opportunities to interpret the role of libraries in basic education, higher education, and life-long learning (Miller 1989, "ALA, NCATE, and the Preparation…").

On another level, participation in NCATE indirectly would allow ALA to have an impact on those institutions that were not NCATE or ALA-accredited by influencing the approval process at the state level. Frequently, states model their own approval processes after NCATE and use the national associations' standards as their own (Gollnick 2008). This allows some consistency across all the states as well as a way for the national associations, such as ALA, to implement their standards more completely. Even though a state may not apply the standards in the same way that ALA would in the NCATE review process, the states still are requiring evidence that the standards are being used. This has the effect of "moving the field forward" and allows ALA to achieve its goal of getting institutions to use their standards (Gollnick 2008).

As a final consideration in benefits for ALA, the partnership with NCATE might encourage the graduates of the programs in the schools of education to become members of ALA. As the number of school library professionals grew during the 1970s, ALA membership did not reflect that growth. ALA members were surveyed

in a 1979 study (Estabrook 1980) that revealed only 13.6 percent of the total ALA membership indicated that they held school positions. When compared to the *Library Manpower* study (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics 1975) that indicated nearly half of all librarians in the United States were in school libraries, ALA apparently failed to include proportionate membership from the school library professionals. Overall, the decade of the 1970s showed a decline in the participation of school librarians in ALA. In 1970 20.8 percent of the ALA membership worked in schools compared to 13.6 percent in 1979 (Heim 1981). Furthermore, this represented a very small percentage of the 62,000 school library media specialists identified by the United States Department of Education that were reached by AASL or ALA as Luskay reported from his coverage of the first AASL national conference (Luskay 1980). Considering all the divisions in ALA, "AASL should absolutely be the largest of all the divisions simply because it has the largest pool of potential members" (Weeks 2007). During this time, many who did not graduate from an ALA-accredited program believed that they were not eligible to be an ALA member. The partnership with NCATE would be an effort to encourage people who graduated from programs other than the ALA-accredited ones to become a part of the national library organization (Weeks 2007).

As AASL worked to redefine the role of the K-12 school library media specialist in its 1988 national guidelines, leaders realized the need to redefine the goals of school library media education programs in higher education. While the partnership with NCATE initially focused on providing guidance for programs in the schools of education, the benefits also included improvements to the curriculum in

ALA-accredited schools, ALA as an organization, and the library profession as a whole.

CHAPTER 8

THE HURDLE FROM WITHIN THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

As leaders in AASL began to look toward NCATE as the way to achieve their goals with school library media preparation programs, they soon recognized resistance from within NCATE in the form of the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT). This organization, formerly known as the Department of Audiovisual Instruction, was a division of the National Education Association (NEA). Its focus was on instructional media in teacher education and on the professional preparation of media personnel (AECT 2001). From the early 1970s AECT was involved in the accreditation process in teacher education through cooperation with NCATE. From the work of the Committee on Teacher Education and the Professional Education of Media Specialists Commission of AECT in 1970, AECT developed an early guidelines document, *Basic Guidelines for Media and Technology in Teacher Education* (AECT 1971), that clearly was intended for use in the accreditation process. As stated in the document's introduction,

> [The document] is intended to accompany and amplify the new *Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Education* prepared by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), and to fulfill the need for the kind of guidelines referred to in Standard 1.4 of the NCATE *Standards*. *Basic Guidelines* will help institutions to appraise their programs and to prepare for visits by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. (AECT 1971, no p.)

Furthermore, NCATE evaluation teams used *Basic Guidelines* when they visited higher education institutions as a part of the accreditation process (Bergeson 1973). In 1971 the AECT president formed two task forces directed to study accreditation and certification of educational media personnel; Clarence Bergeson chaired the task force on accreditation and William Grady the one on certification. These task forces conducted three-year research investigations that resulted in two significant documents: *Guidelines for the Certification of Personnel on Educational Communications and Technology* (AECT 1974) and *AECT Guidelines for Advanced Programs in Educational Communications and Technology* (AECT 1974). As with the 1971 document, the 1974 *Guidelines for Advanced Programs* was "intended to accompany and amplify" the NCATE standards (AECT *AECT Guidelines for Advanced Programs* 1974). To further its cooperation with NCATE, beginning in 1972 AECT conducted workshops, under the direction of Bergeson and Grady, to train AECT members to serve on NCATE visiting accreditation evaluation teams. When NCATE made major revisions to its accreditation standards in 1977, AECT conducted a corresponding review of their guidelines that resulted with a new document in 1983, *Guidelines for the Accreditation of Programs in Educational Communications and Information Technologies* (AECT 1983). "AECT's efforts in conjunction with NCATE were recognized when AECT was accepted as a liaison member in 1978 and was granted constituent membership on the Council in 1980" (AECT 2000). AECT became one of only three professional associations at that time to have constituent membership in NCATE. Progress in setting standards for the preparation of media and technology educators gave AECT an important role in the

accreditation process (Kunkel 1985). Thus, by the time ALA sought participation in NCATE, AECT was well established as a significant player in NCATE with a long-standing influence on the accreditation process.

At the time of ALA's initial interest in NCATE during the 1980s, AECT clearly was the professional organization within NCATE that believed it had the responsibility for reviewing programs in "media and technology" which later were described as "educational communication and information technologies." Their use of the terms was broad and included programs as diverse as multimedia, distance learning, computer technologies, instructional design, and library science (Hanclosky and Earle 1992).

Therefore, the AECT standards were the ones used to evaluate school library media education programs for accreditation purposes before ALA became involved in NCATE (Gollnick 2008). "Even though their [AECT's] guidelines were more for instructional technology, that was all there was. And so that was what was being used for school library media programs" (Weeks 2007). Considering the changing role for the school library media specialist as defined by ALA's more recent national guidelines (*i.e. Standards for School Library Programs* (1960), *Standards for School Media Programs* (1969), and *Media Programs: District and School* (1975)) and the upcoming new *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* (1988), leaders in AASL did not think AECT's standards were what was needed to guide the development of school library media education programs. The ALA guidelines in the 1960s and 1970s redefined the school library as an instructional materials center which meant that *all* learning materials should be housed and

distributed from the library. These guidelines also added all forms of media and, later, technology resources to the library --- two areas that AECT clearly saw as their domain (Miller 2006). Then with *Information Power* (1988) came the addition of the instructional consultant role with an emphasis on collaboration, concepts that were beyond the traditional library role. The mission statement in *Information Power* (*i.e.* “The mission of the library media program is to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information.” AASL 1988) really did change the focus from the old school traditional role of the library as the keeper of the materials to the library as a resource in the building. “The focus then became on the user rather than on the resources. And that was such a major change. And the explicit role of the teacher made a difference as well” (Weeks 2007). The existing AECT criteria for evaluating school library media programs in higher education did not fit with the newly redefined roles (Miller 2006). The use of the AECT guidelines was a major motivation for ALA to participate in the NCATE process.

> Among the reasons that ALA believed it needed to be involved in NCATE was because the guidelines that had been prepared by AECT were the ones that were in force in NCATE for school library media specialists. They tended to be much more based in the audiovisual area…There was a sense that the AECT guidelines were not exactly what ALA thought the preparation should be. (Weeks 2007)

From ALA’s perspective, the AECT guidelines would not adequately prepare future school library media professionals.

A closer look at the AECT accreditation guidelines in place during the 1980s when ALA was seeking participation in NCATE reveals a focus quite different from that of ALA with its redefined roles for the school library media program. The 1983 AECT guidelines for basic and advanced programs were based upon three major concepts or "specialty areas" identified in earlier AECT certification and guidelines documents. These specialty areas and the tasks/competencies associated with each area are described in the following table.

Major Specialty Areas as Identified by AECT For Certification and Accreditation Guidelines (AECT, 1983)		
Specialty Areas	**Primary Tasks/ Competencies**	**Secondary Tasks/ Competencies**
Instructional Program Development – the development of a complete system of instruction (*i.e.* a course, a curriculum, or multi-year plan); total application of technology and mediated instruction to facilitate learning	Design Utilization/Dissemination Research and Theory Utilization (use of media and technology)	Evaluation and Selection Organization Management Production
Media Product Development – the production of specific packages of mediated instruction; translation of specific instructional objectives into concrete items which facilitate learning	Design Production	Research and Theory Utilization/Dissemination Personnel Management
Media Management – the area of ongoing support services provided for both faculty and learner as they engage in the instructional process	Organization Management Personnel Management Utilization/Dissemination Logistics	Research and Theory Design Production Evaluation and Selection Support and Supply Utilization (use of media and technology)

Furthermore, the accreditation guidelines specify that the content of the curricula for professional programs in educational communications and information technologies (which included the school library media area) should develop from these three areas and the nine media-related tasks/competencies (AECT 1983). With these areas forming the basis of AECT criteria, the focus of their guidelines tended to be on the development of media resources and services to students and faculty which is quite a contrast from AASL's focus on the user becoming an effective user of ideas and information. Clearly, AECT'S guidelines were based more on the field of instructional technology and the traditional role of the library as place for storage and dissemination of resources. By emphasizing media management as a "support service," these guidelines would not prepare school library media specialists for the proactive instructional and collaborative role defined by ALA's forthcoming *Information Power* in 1988. The content of the AECT guidelines pointed out clear philosophical and practical differences between ALA's view of the school library media program and that of AECT. These differences became part of the motivation for ALA to seek participation in NCATE so that they could implement guidelines reflecting the library perspective. In addition, NCATE encouraged ALA's participation because they too felt that the AECT standards did not really speak to the role of the school library media specialist, in the traditional role and in the evolving role of curriculum integration and more use of technology (Miller 2006; Weeks 2007). In November 1986, Marilyn Miller reported to the division presidents in ALA that she had received a very favorable response from NCATE staff regarding ALA becoming a part of NCATE (Miller 1987).

As ALA's participation in NCATE was close to becoming a reality, those involved realized NCATE would then have two sets of standards for school library media programs, the existing guidelines from AECT and ones that ALA would develop. This would cause institutions to have to choose one set over the other. The idea that institutions would have to choose which set of standards to use became a really big issue (Gollnick 2008). From the outset of discussions, "NCATE always did have difficulty understanding why there should be AASL's and AECT's guidelines. That was really, really controversial…There was a lot of pressure from NCATE, and this was also part of the controversy, that they really thought there shouldn't be two different sets of preparation guidelines for school library programs" (Weeks 2007). Later, after ALA had become a member of NCATE, there was a movement to get the two groups to work together on one set of standards. AASL established in 1987-1988 an AASL/AECT Joint Committee that proposed to the AASL Board of Directors at ALA Annual Conference in 1988 the establishment of two accreditation committees to work on the 1990 revisions to the NCATE guidelines (AASL Board of Directors 1988). AECT also felt that there should not be two sets of standards and tried to convince AASL to join together in revising *their* standards. In 1988 Don Smellie, AECT President, expressed AECT's concern about two sets of standards in correspondence to Jacqueline Morris, AASL President:

> It is AECT's desire to have AASL join with AECT in a revision of our existing NCATE Standards. As you are aware, AECT has a 12-year history of affiliation with NCATE. It has been my impression that NCATE will only recognize one set of standards in a given area; consequently, the invitation for

AASL to join with AECT was extended. I am sorry that AASL prefers to develop their own standards. We will simply have to wait and see what reaction we get from NCATE, if any.

If AASL wishes to reconsider, please let me know, but in the meantime, AECT is pushing ahead with a revision of our existing standards. (Smellie August 29, 1988)

In later correspondence to Morris in November 1988 after NCATE had approved AASL's proposed guidelines, Smellie again expressed the desire to develop joint guidelines and further emphasized that AECT would continue with its own guidelines for the school library media area (Smellie November 18, 1988). While the disagreement over two sets of standards may have been somewhat of a "professional turf battle," the controversy was representative of basic philosophical differences between the two associations. As Marilyn Miller recalls, "I guess there was a movement to get us together, but it was *never* going to happen. Because philosophically there was just such a difference in what they wanted from the media specialist and from what we wanted…At some point, I said not over my dead body!" (Miller 2006). As a result, by November 1988 NCATE had two sets of standards for school library media programs.

Even before the disagreement of two sets of standards, AECT was not receptive to having ALA as a part of NCATE. The differing views on the preparation of school library media professionals and the notion that ALA would infringe on a role that traditionally had been AECT's responsibility in NCATE may be reasons that

AECT was not happy about ALA's participation. "AECT was not very open to ALA coming in. I remember that! What I recall was AECT was against ALA coming aboard" (Gollnick 2008). Early on, around 1983, when AASL had started the discussion about participating in NCATE, AECT made a big issue that based on NCATE criteria AASL was not eligible to join because it was not an *association* but was instead only a *division* within an association (*i.e.* NCATE criteria specified "professional associations" could become members). That made AASL realize that ALA would need to be the official group that applied for membership (Gollnick 2008). Others saw AECT's resistance more than just a technicality with the terminology or what part of the organization needed to apply. "It was a tug of war between AASL and AECT, a professional turf battle, about who was going to influence the development of the school library media professional" (Miller 2006). Furthermore, at that time AECT as a professional organization was very much involved in the school library arena. Many school library media specialists were members of AECT while others were members of both AECT and AASL. So to a large extent the animosity between AASL and AECT was a power struggle between two professional organizations (Weeks 2007; Miller 2006). Overall, "[AECT] was not terribly happy. But there really wasn't anything they could do. Any organization, if they pay their dues and if their proposal for evaluation met the criteria, NCATE's criteria, there wasn't much they could do" (Miller 2006). From an organizational structure point of view, NCATE simply was recognizing AASL as the representative from ALA and also AECT as the representative from another organization. It was not

something that AECT or AASL could tell NCATE what they should do (Lester 2007).

AECT's resistance to ALA seemed in contrast to their earlier collaborative efforts when the two groups co-authored national K-12 school library media guidelines with the 1960 *Standards for School Library Programs*, the 1969 *Standards for School Media Programs*, and the 1975 *Media Programs: District and School*. Furthermore, while AASL was working on the NCATE proposal within ALA, AECT had once again joined with AASL to write another new set of K-12 school library media guidelines that would be the role-redefining *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* in 1988. Therefore, at the same time leaders of AASL between 1983-1987 were working to get approval to partner with NCATE and were realizing AECT's resistance, at another level within the organization the two groups were cooperating to write the new K-12 guidelines. Even though the two groups were working together on the new guidelines from 1986-1988, there was a very uncomfortable relationship between AECT and AASL. Ann Weeks, who was Executive Director of AASL beginning in 1986 and actually worked on the new guidelines with AECT, recognized the uncomfortable relationship during that time was due to basic differences between the two groups. "We were working with AECT and during [the development of] *Information Power* and during the whole NCATE time it was a rocky relationship…It was rocky because the two organizations were similar but there were significant differences" (Weeks 2007). This sense of a tension between the two groups was obvious to others who were not involved directly in

either the NCATE proposal or the new guidelines. June Lester, Director of the ALA Office for Accreditation, observed the situation:

> There were two sets of tension that I was aware of around some of these issues. One was the tension that always seemed to be there to me between AASL and AECT and, although they were working together on *Information Power*, you still always were aware that this was like two camps that sometimes seemed to be armed and they called this truce to work on this thing together. But they didn't see the world from the same perspective. (Lester 2007)

Apparently, at the heart of the disagreement between the two groups --- whether it was on the NCATE proposal, two sets of standards, new K-12 guidelines, or accepting a new player at the table --- were basic differences in philosophy and practice.

A closer look at AASL and AECT reveals several basic philosophical differences. First of all, both groups developed from larger national organizations. AASL began as part of the American Library Association beginning in 1914 when the ALA Council approved a petition from the ALA Roundtable of Normal and High School Librarians to form a School Libraries Section. This section went through various changes and finally achieved the status of a division within ALA in 1951 when it officially became the American Association of School Librarians (Pond 1983). On the other hand, AECT began in 1923 as the Department of Visual Instruction within the National Education Association (NEA). This group also went through various changes in addressing new technologies as they developed and by

1970 it became a division within NEA when its name was changed to the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT 2001). From the outset, the two groups developed from two different national organizations with different purposes and philosophies. AASL developed within a *library* organization while AECT had its roots in a *classroom teacher* organization. While libraries always have focused on providing access to information regardless of the format, AECT from the outset focused on supporting classroom instruction through the provision and use of equipment. By the 1970s AECT personnel were in charge of audiovisual services and developed the role of "advising teachers on instructional design" (AECT 2001). As the purpose and goals of both groups developed, their mission statements emphasize their differences. AASL's mission and goal statements focus on the total education program, collaboration with teachers in the learning process, connecting learners with ideas and information, and developing students' abilities in the use of information technologies (AASL 2009). On the other hand, AECT's mission is to promote "best practices in the creation, use, and management of technology for effective teaching and learning" (AECT 2009). These mission and goal statements suggest that the focus of each group is different. As Marilyn Miller observed, AASL always has been intent on using information in whatever form it comes. As instructional materials changed from just being books to include slides, filmstrips, and then computers and other technology, AASL's focus was not so much on the technology but on how to use the technology to access information. AASL has focused on the learner by teaching students and collaborating with teachers. On the other hand, AECT's focus always has been on the use and management of equipment and technology. "The

approach from librarianship is not the same as the approach from technology" (Miller 2006). Furthermore, AECT's viewpoint was more of the old school traditional role as the keeper of the materials rather than as a resource in the building. With the mission statement in *Information Power* (1988), AASL's focus became on the user rather than on the resources. In addition, the explicit role of teacher added to the school librarian made such a difference (Weeks 2007). With the emphasis on the learner and information access, AASL moved away from the views held by AECT.

The differences between the two groups can also be seen in the two sets of guidelines that were used by NCATE in the 1980s for the accreditation of school library media programs. As described earlier, at the time ALA became a partner with NCATE, the guidelines that were used to evaluate school library media education programs was the 1983 *Guidelines for the Accreditation of Programs in Educational Communications and Information Technologies* developed by AECT. Once ALA Council approved membership in NCATE in July 1987, the Council appointed a special task force to study ALA membership and participation in NCATE and related questions (ALA Council 1987). This NCATE Task Force later recommended that a committee be formed to draft new school library media education guidelines that would be submitted to NCATE for approval (NCATE Task Force 1987). In September of 1988, NCATE approved AASL's proposed new guidelines that were later published in 1989 as *Curriculum Folio Guidelines for the NCATE Review Process: School Library Media Specialist Basic Preparation* (AASL/ALA 1989). Both the AECT and AASL guidelines documents clearly indicated their use in the NCATE accreditation process. In the AECT guidelines, Part II is identified as

Guidelines for the Accreditation of Basic Programs in Educational Communications and Information Technologies. The introduction to Part II states, "The guidelines are intended to accompany and amplify the *Standards for the Accreditation of Teacher Education* (NCATE) and to fulfill the need for the kind of guidelines referred to in Standard 2.4 of the NCATE standards" (AECT 1983, no p.). Similarly, the introduction to the AASL guidelines states, "The purpose of this publication is to provide guidance for school library media education faculty who are preparing a curriculum folio for review by representatives of the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) as part of the accreditation process conducted by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE)" (AASL/ALA 1989, 1). Furthermore, the AASL guidelines established a clear connection to the recently published school library media national guidelines, *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* (1988) and based the curriculum components on the specific roles specified for a school library media professional.

> A curriculum to prepare school library media professionals must take into account that the library media specialist is a manager who has, in addition, three specific roles in the development and implementation of a library media program: (1) information provider, (2) consultant, and (3) teacher. (AASL/ALA 1989, 7)

The guidelines go on to define seven specific functions that must be reflected in the coursework and activities. By contrasting this set of AASL guidelines with the earlier described AECT guidelines, one can see how these two organizations viewed the school library profession differently and also the education necessary for future

school library professionals. The chart below provides a comparison of the basic tenets in each set of guidelines.

Comparison of AASL and AECT Guidelines for School Library Media Education Programs Approved through NCATE 1983 – 1989	
AASL Guidelines	**AECT Guidelines**
Curriculum Folio Guidelines for the NCATE Review Process: School Library Media Specialist Basic Preparation (AASL/ALA 1989)	*Guidelines for the Accreditation of Basic Programs in Educational Communications and Information Technologies* (AECT 1983)
Content of Curriculum to be based upon three specific roles as defined by the national guidelines document: *Information Power: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs* (AASL and AECT 1988)	Content of Curriculum to be based upon three specialty areas as defined by these documents: *Guidelines for the Certification of Personnel on Educational Communications and Technology* (AECT 1974) and *AECT Guidelines for Advanced Programs in Educational Communications and Technology* (AECT 1974)
Curriculum based on three roles for a school library media professional	**Curriculum based on three specialty areas**
Information Provider	Instructional Program Development
Consultant	Media Product Development
Teacher	Media Management
AASL Related Functions	**AECT Related Functions**
Professionalism	Organization Management
Communication	Personnel Management
Collection Management	Research and Theory
Organization	Design
Administration	Production
Instructional Leadership	Evaluation and Selection
Access	Support and Supply
	Utilization (use of media and technology)
	Utilization/Dissemination (of media and technology)

This comparison of the two sets of guidelines for the education of school library media professionals highlights the differences between the two associations. The

AASL guidelines clearly reflected the library background with an emphasis on the learner and information access while the AECT guidelines reinforced their role as audiovisual support and instructional technology. These differing philosophies and views on the school library role certainly suggest why these two associations were unable to come together to write one set of guidelines for NCATE. Two sets of standards from these associations still exist in NCATE today, but NCATE generally promotes the ALA standards for school library media programs and the AECT standards for instructional technology (Gollnick 2008).

While the two sets of guidelines may be the most visible source of controversy, ALA recognized early in their attempts to partner with NCATE that they had met resistance. "It was rocky in the beginning mainly because of AECT, to be honest, just not wanting them [ALA] at the table" (Gollnick 2008). Nevertheless, AECT certainly had a well-respected history within NCATE and had been one of the first professional associations to participate. As noted by Richard Kunkel, NCATE Executive Director 1984 -1990, "Progress in setting standards for preparation of media and technology educators gives AECT an important role in the accreditation process" (Kunkel 1985). Perhaps it was this long-standing relationship with NCATE that made AECT somewhat resistive toward ALA's participation. But in reality AECT could do very little to prevent ALA from participating. As a result, ALA joined NCATE in 1987 and in September 1988 presented its first set of guidelines for school library media programs to NCATE.

SECTION III

ACCOMPLISHING THE PARTNERSHIP

CHAPTER 9

THE VIEW FROM WITHIN THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

The movement for ALA to become a partner with NCATE primarily came from the division level and was led by AASL. As early as 1983 AASL petitioned the ALA Executive Board for permission to join NCATE, but the request was denied. The reason for the request being turned down is unclear from ALA documentation but may have had something to do with the fact that AASL, as a division of an association and not an actual association, could not join NCATE because of NCATE requirements. As Donna Gollnick, who came to NCATE in 1986 as Deputy Executive Director but was the staff liaison from AACTE to NCATE prior to that time, remembered, the issue of whether or not AASL could join NCATE started before the NCATE reform in 1985 and 1986. When AECT protested against AASL becoming a part of NCATE, the issue was partly about AASL being a *division* within ALA. Therefore, ALA would have to be the group to join, not AASL (Gollnick 2008).

The early 1980s was the time period when AASL was very concerned about the overall education of school library media professionals, especially those programs in the schools and colleges of education that were outside ALA's area of accreditation. This concern was reflected in the AASL Committee on Library Education Guidelines report to the AASL Board of Directors at the ALA Midwinter Conference in January 1984. Leah Hiland, the Library Education Guidelines Committee Chair, presented the work of her committee in the form of a proposed *Guidelines for School Library Media Education Programs* (AASL Board of Directors

June 26, 1983). The proposed document recognized that ALA's Committee on Accreditation had the responsibility for developing standards for the accreditation of library education programs that led to a master degree in library science but that the Committee on Accreditation did not accredit any undergraduate library media education programs or graduate single-purpose library media education programs that are parts of teacher education programs in colleges and universities. Therefore, since AASL had the responsibilities for the development and evaluation of professional growth and improvement in the school library media field, the committee had established guidelines for school library media education programs that were outside the area of responsibility for ALA's Committee on Accreditation. The AASL Board of Directors approved this proposal in January 1984 at their Midwinter meeting. The approved document specified that the guidelines were to be used as an evaluation tool by external groups (*i.e.* state education agencies, regional associations, or the national teacher education accrediting organization) when reviewing single-purpose school library media education programs in colleges and universities and as an internal self-assessment for single-purpose school library media education programs (AASL Board of Directors, *Guidelines for School Library Media Education Programs*, 1984). The development and approval of this set of guidelines specifically for programs outside the realm of ALA's Committee on Accreditation show AASL's early concern for curriculum evaluation and the development of school library media education programs.

Planned Strategy

During 1985 AASL became more focused on achieving membership in NCATE. During the December 6 – 8 meetings of the AASL Executive Committee, a representative from the ALA Executive Director's office announced that ALA had decided to pursue NCATE membership but that representation to NCATE would be from AASL with AASL selecting the representative. The Executive Director's office had requested information from NCATE regarding membership (AASL Executive Committee December 6 – 8, 1985). Later during that same meeting period, the new ALA Executive Director, Thomas Galvin, expressed his personal priorities for ALA. He stated that AASL was a high priority for him and one of his specific goals was "to establish and/or strengthen ALA's relationship with other national associations, such as NCATE and AECT (AASL Executive Committee December 6 – 8, 1985). By the annual conference in 1986 Galvin again addressed the NCATE issue with the AASL Executive Committee by stating, "The climate in NCATE is probably receptive now" (AASL Executive Committee May 31 – June 2, 1986). Reflecting on that statement, Donna Gollnick related the time period to the reform process in NCATE.

> But I don't know that the reform really had anything to do with whether ALA could join or not. I think it was working out *who* would join because AECT had been fighting, really fighting their joining. So, I think it was just overcoming that and figuring out that it had to be ALA. And there was nothing that could stand in the way if ALA wanted to join. (Gollnick 2008)

Ann Weeks also connected Galvin's statement to that time period within NCATE. It was a time when NCATE was trying to be more inclusive and really trying to

encourage the specialty organizations. This would explain the reference to the "climate in NCATE" (Weeks 2007). Based on her understanding that Galvin was very "politically sensitive," June Lester assumed there must have been some political dynamics in NCATE at an earlier time where it was not appropriate for ALA to join (Lester 2007). Lester's view certainly would relate to Gollnick's reference about the politics involved with AECT at the time AASL tried to join instead of ALA. Regardless, Galvin was a strong supporter of AASL in its drive to seek membership in NCATE. As a key figure in the overall ALA governance structure, his support would have been a sign of encouragement.

The push for NCATE membership became a focused and planned campaign for AASL at the beginning of 1987. Under the leadership of Marilyn Miller, 1986 – 1987 AASL President, AASL Executive Committee and the AASL Board of Directors developed a strategy for the NCATE proposal during the series of meetings at the ALA Midwinter Conference. At the Executive Committee meeting on January 15, Miller explained that ALA would pay the $6000 membership fee to NCATE and then would delegate to AASL the representation to NCATE. She clearly identified the need to talk to other groups within ALA (*i.e.* the Committee on Accreditation, the other units, and Tom Galvin) to get their support. In addition, Miller already had talked to the Director of NCATE who indicated that they were most anxious to have ALA join. She gave details of the general timeline for the proposal to get approval: First, the proposal would have to go to the ALA Executive Board for approval. If they approved it, the proposal then would move to the ALA Council at the annual conference in San Francisco that summer (AASL Executive Committee January 15,

1987). Later, during this series of meeting in January 1987 the AASL Board of Directors discussed the need to develop a request for NCATE membership to present to the ALA Executive Board for approval. A draft of the proposal had been circulated among several other ALA units during the conference and there had been no negative comments. With this sign of support, the group continued to work on the draft throughout the meetings (AASL Board of Directors January 16 – 20, 1987).

In April 1987 AASL made the official request to the ALA Executive Board for membership in NCATE. In a letter to the Executive Board, Marilyn Miller clearly stated AASL's request:

> The Board of Directors of the America Association of School Librarians (AASL) requests that the American Library Association join the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as a specialty organization and that ALA delegate to AASL the responsibility for participation in the NCATE accreditation process as it relates to school library media education programs not eligible for accreditation by the ALA. (Miller April 3, 1987)

The letter also included a brief explanation of the rising demand for school library media specialists and the geographical limitations to ALA approved education programs. In addition, Miller briefly explained the benefits of membership in ALA. Accompanying the letter was a three-page rationale statement that further explained the mission and purpose of NCATE, the declining numbers of graduates from ALA-accredited programs being placed in school library settings, limited geographical dispersion of ALA schools, the soon-to-be published new national school library

guidelines, and overall concerns about the quality of many of the programs in the schools and colleges of education. Also included with the letter to the ALA Executive Board was a proposed timeline for attaining NCATE membership:

• Proposal for joining NCATE presented to the ALA Executive Board at its April Meeting;

• Proposal forwarded to ALA Council for consideration at the 1987 Annual Conference;

• Application for NCATE membership submitted for consideration during the fall NCATE Council meeting;

• Development of appropriate guidelines and other documents by AASL;

• ALA becomes a specialty member of NCATE for calendar year 1988.

Finally, the letter included a fact sheet about NCATE, its approval process, and standards.

Later in April 1987, AASL Executive Director Ann Weeks reported in a letter to the AASL Board of Directors that the response from the ALA Executive Board to the NCATE recommendation had been positive, but "it will be necessary to mount a concerted effort to ensure Council approval if it goes forward" (Weeks April 27, 1987). She further indicated that Councilors Helen Snoke and Steve Matthews would begin to coordinate the Council campaign as soon as ALA Executive Board approved the proposal. This reference to a "concerted effort" and a coordinated campaign reflected the planned strategy started in January 1987 at the Midwinter Conference meetings by the AASL leaders. The coordinated efforts were to be a public awareness campaign in which AASL tried to be very political by making sure that

they responded to everyone's concerns and by showing that AASL was being respectful to the ALA accreditation process. AASL wanted others within ALA to know that the NCATE proposal would strengthen the field rather than to dilute it. Their "campaign" was directed toward trying to assuage people's fears more than anything else (Weeks 2007). Miller agreed that approaching Council with the NCATE proposal would be a delicate matter. Since most of the ALA Council members were from programs that were accredited by ALA, they might perceive this as a "diminution of ALA's power and that we were allowing second class citizens" into the profession (Miller 2006). Furthermore, the *need* for a concerted effort and political strategy to get the ALA Council's approval of the NCATE proposal was obvious to leaders within ALA. Reflecting on her work to get accreditation standards approved by Council, June Lester agreed that seeking Council approval required a really organized political effort with committee members talking to Council members to get them on board with the issues (Lester 2007).

In advance of the 1987 annual conference, the AASL Board of Directors focused attention on gaining the support from all other divisions within ALA. Following the ALA Executive Board's directive from their spring meeting, Miller informed the AASL Board that they had to present endorsements and/or statements from all divisions to the ALA Board at the annual conference in San Francisco (Miller June 5, 1987). Therefore, Miller sent letters with NCATE background materials to all division presidents and asked them to place the item on their agendas early in the conference schedule. Her letter explained that during the preceding year more school library media specialists were prepared in programs ineligible for ALA

accreditation than were prepared in programs accredited by ALA. As a result, "it is imperative that ALA, as the major library organization in the United States, begin to work to assist in the improvement of all education programs for school librarians. Membership in NCATE could begin this process" (Miller May 25, 1987). Knowing that the ALA Council would vote on the proposal at the annual conference if the ALA Executive Board approved it, AASL also directed efforts to gaining the support of individual Council members. Miller first sent letters to all state AASL Affiliate presidents informing them of the NCATE proposal and requesting their support. But the key request in this letter to AASL Affiliate presidents was for them to contact any ALA Councilors in their state to get their support for the issue (Miller, *Letter to State Affiliate Presidents*, June 4, 1987). Then, in a letter to the ALA Council members, Miller informed them of the pending proposal and explained the rationale for ALA joining NCATE. The letter included information about NCATE and the proposed timeline (Miller, *Letter to ALA Councilors*, June 4, 1987). Furthermore, in a letter to AASL Board of Directors prior to the annual conference, Miller indicated that the strategy at the conference would be to contact division presidents and ALA Councilors both individually and in caucuses. Board members would attend the meetings of the other divisions when the NCATE topic was on their agendas. Coordination of these events and gaining support for the NCATE proposal was their priority for the annual conference (Miller June 5, 1987).

Conflict within ALA

Underlying this strategic, planned approach were several areas of tension and conflict within ALA that affected attitudes about AASL and the NCATE proposal. One major area of concern was how participation in NCATE would affect ALA accreditation. Many throughout the organization were really concerned that involvement with NCATE would in some way detract from the ALA accredited degree. A common view was that if ALA "became involved in NCATE then the NCATE accreditation would be viewed as equivalent to the ALA accredited programs. That was the biggest area of real concern" (Weeks 2007). Knowledge of this prevailing attitude partly accounted for AASL's careful approach to the ALA Council. "It was really important that ALA feel safe and that our joining NCATE would enhance the organization of ALA rather than to detract from it" (Weeks 2007). Miller recalled that this attitude was a *feeling* within ALA --- not *expressed* but just a *feeling* --- that working with NCATE would be a diminution of ALA's power. The movement into NCATE was very controversial with not many groups *really* wanting it except AASL (Miller 2006). While June Lester agreed that there were people who did not support membership in NCATE, she did not think ALA's Committee on Accreditation thought NCATE accreditation would be equated with ALA accreditation. Actually, she thought the people who feared that a distinction between NCATE and ALA would not be made were those who did not deal with the "minutiae of accreditation" (Lester 2007).

Another area of conflict related to the NCATE proposal was the distinction between the master and bachelor degrees. Generally, ALA accredited programs at the

graduate level leading to a master of library science. School library preparation programs in the schools and colleges of education could be at the undergraduate or graduate level and quite often were single-purpose programs. Thus, NCATE-accredited programs could lead to either a bachelor or master degree that would usually be in the areas of education or reading instead of library science. While the topic of master versus bachelor degree had been discussed at various levels within ALA, the most focused discussions came from the Standing Committee on Library Education (SCOLE). This committee's function was to develop and recommend ALA policies on all aspects of education and training of library personnel. The committee promoted coordination and communication among units concerned with education. In its annual report for 1986 – 1987, SCOLE reported that it had appointed a task force to review existing ALA policy on MLS-level education. The task force was charged with drafting a policy on education at the master's degree level for professional positions in libraries (SCOLE July 1986 – June 1987). The emphasis on the master's degree as a requirement for professional library positions brought into question the bachelor's degree that could be received from NCATE-accredited programs. This task force discussion occurred during the time AASL was promoting the NCATE proposal. In her June 1987 letter to the AASL Board of Directors, Miller commented on the discussion of the master's degree: "A major issue that has arisen with the NCATE proposal is the MLS [Master of Library Science] as the first professional degree. I believe that this can be defused if we talk consistently about developing quality education programs" (Miller June 5, 1987). The master's degree was absolutely critical from the ALA perspective. The problem

for AASL was that within NCATE the master's degree could not be designated because it did not fit within their criteria. But AASL could write their guidelines so that it would not have been possible to accomplish the guidelines at the bachelor level. AASL could specify that the appropriate degree was one that met the AASL guidelines with NCATE accredited units. A lot of people throughout the organization were really concerned that if ALA became involved in NCATE that it would in some way detract from the ALA-accredited degree. It was viewed that the preparation in colleges of education was not the equivalent and did not have the same rigor as an ALA-accredited program. "It was the whole idea that NCATE would dilute the masters. That was the primary concern. And that there would be confusion with people who went through NCATE programs who would say that they had an ALA-accredited degree" (Weeks 2007). The issue of the master's degree was a topic that had to be carefully negotiated.

Also, this period was a time of tension between AASL and the overall organization. Many school librarians felt that they had low standing and were ignored within ALA. Between 1984 and 1985 AASL seriously considered pulling out of ALA and forming a school librarian organization separate from ALA. AASL had only an acting executive director for several months before Ann Weeks came on board in March 1986 as the new executive director for AASL.

> There was also that period that was very *divisive*, which isn't quite the right word, but it certainly was an unsettled period within AASL because basically Alice Fite, who was the executive director, resigned primarily because ALA put pressure on her to do so. And so it was a very divisive time within the

> organization because there were really, really, really strong supporters of Alice and there were a lot of people within AASL who were very supportive of ALA who saw *her* as being divisive because she wanted to start the new organization. So there was a great deal of turmoil during that period. (Weeks 2007)

Adding to this conflict with AASL, ALA was having difficult discussions with all the divisions at that time. One issue related to the operating agreement between ALA and the divisions. There were long negotiations about what the divisions could and could not do. Some of the discussions centered on budgetary differences, especially since some divisions had a lot of money and ALA did not necessarily have as much. At that point in time it was very much of a heightened sensitivity around all of those issues (Lester 2007). Furthermore, there was a perceived distinction among many within ALA between those AASL leaders who were from ALA-accredited programs and those who were not. This difference became obvious as those from non-ALA-accredited programs supported certain issues or acted in certain ways. Those who were from schools with programs not ALA accredited were probably very supportive of the NCATE proposal "because they saw that as recognition that was important from their perspective" (Lester 2007). The perceived awareness of a difference between the two groups probably caused a tension among members and may have added to the notion that school librarians had a low status within ALA. Further conflict within ALA at this time came from discussions with SCOLE and the Office for Accreditation regarding what group should be the liaison to NCATE if ALA were to join. They questioned whether it was appropriate for the division (*i.e.* AASL) to be

the liaison rather than the Office for Accreditation. The rationale behind this was that all accreditation activities, regardless of whether it was ALA accreditation or collaborative accreditation with another organization, should be the role of the Office rather than a division (Weeks 2007). These discussions had direct bearing on the NCATE proposal since it included the recommendation that ALA delegate to AASL the responsibility for participation in the NCATE accreditation process. Against this backdrop of conflict and tension within the organization, AASL clearly needed an organized strategy to accomplish their goal of getting ALA to become a member of NCATE.

Passage of the NCATE Proposal

As the 1987 annual conference began, the AASL Executive Committee and Board of Directors continued their strategy of contacting Councilors and attending division meetings to gain support for the proposal. The draft was circulated among members for a final review (AASL Board of Directors June 26 – 27, 1987). As directed by the ALA Executive Board during their April 30 meeting, Marilyn Miller attended a beginning session of the ALA Board with endorsements supporting the NCATE proposal from all of ALA's divisions. Discussion centered on whether AASL as representative to NCATE would bypass established responsibilities of the Committee on Accreditation and SCOLE and on how participation in NCATE would affect ALA accreditation with the master of library science. The discussion ended with endorsements for the proposal. As the proposal moved to the ALA Council, it was approved by the Council Resolutions Committee and became designated as Council Document #51 (AASL Board of Directors June 28, 1987).

During the third meeting of ALA Council on July 1, 1987, Miller addressed the group with a brief report on AASL's proposal that ALA join NCATE. Councilors Helen Snoke and Pat Scales moved adoption of the resolution. President Minudri said that the Executive Board had considered the resolution and they recommended the resolution be passed as presented. Councilor Estelle Black presented a recommendation from SCOLE to table the motion since SCOLE felt that it was the appropriate part of the association to deal with all aspects of library education. A motion was made to divide the resolution to consider the matter of joining NCATE separately from the issue of representation to NCATE. The motion was voted on and was approved with 72 for the division and 62 against the division. Discussion continued about ALA's joining NCATE. The SCOLE chair said that SCOLE moved to table the resolution because of unresolved questions. Further discussion centered on postponing a vote until implications of involvement with NCATE could be studied. A motion was made to postpone action on the NCATE question until Midwinter and to create a task force to study the overall implications. Council voted and defeated the motion. Finally, Council

> VOTED, To adopt CD#51, part 1, that ALA join the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as a specialty organization. (ALA Council 1987)

Discussion continued about part 2 of the resolution that would designate AASL as the representative to NCATE. At last, a motion was made, voted on, and approved to appoint a special task force with representatives from SCOLE, COA, OLPR, AASL, and other units to study ALA membership and participation in NCATE and to report

to SCOLE and to Council at Midwinter 1988 (ALA Council 1987). With those two votes, AASL achieved its long-time goal of getting ALA involved in the development of school library media education programs in the schools and colleges of education.

The official resolution as prepared by the ALA Council was entitled *Resolution on ALA Membership in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education*. The text of the resolution was stated as follows:

> Whereas, The U. S. Department of Education reports that nearly 48 million students use a school library media center each week in more than 93,000 public and private schools across the country; and
>
> Whereas, The majority of school library media specialists are educated in programs eligible for accreditation only by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE); and
>
> Whereas, It is essential for ALA to have input into the graduate education preparation of all school library media personnel; and
>
> Whereas, NCATE has recently changed its membership structure to encourage the involvement of professional speciality organizations, *e.g.* "library/media, school psychologists, counselors," in evaluating teacher education programs; and
>
> Whereas, The forthcoming guidelines for school library media programs will specify a full-time library media specialist for every school, and graduate level education for all professional personnel; now, therefore be it
>
> Resolved, That ALA join the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as a speciality organization; and be it further

Resolved, That a special task force be appointed to study ALA membership and participation in NCATE and related questions, and that the task force be asked to report to SCOLE and to Council at Midwinter, 1988. Members of the task force should be representatives of SCOLE, COA, OLPR, AASL, and other units with a special interest in this issue.

ADOPTED BY THE

COUNCIL OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

July 1, 1987, in San Francisco, California

The official document was signed by Thomas Galvin, Secretary of the ALA Council and the Executive Director of the organization.

(ALA Council July 1, 1987)

The Work Continued

With the approval by ALA Council for ALA to join NCATE, AASL had achieved only part of its original goal. Their work continued in several areas: to get ALA to appoint AASL as the representative to NCATE, to be part of the newly-appointed task force to study ALA membership and participation in NCATE, and to begin developing curriculum guidelines for NCATE approval.

The task force created by ALA Council at the annual conference in 1987 to study ALA membership and participation in NCATE was chaired by Elizabeth Futas, as a representative from the ALA Executive Board. Task force members were representatives from COA, ALISE, OLPR, ACRL, SCOLE, COO, and AASL (*i.e.* Marilyn Miller). ALA staff liaisons included June Lester (COA), Margaret Myers

(OLPR/SCOLE), and Ann Weeks (AASL). As directed by Council, the task force reported to ALA Council and SCOLE at the Midwinter Conference in 1988. While their report included discussion of ALA's responsibility for accreditation and its role in NCATE, the significant recommendation from the task force was in meeting the basic responsibility of appointing a representative for a three-year term to sit on the NCATE Specialty Areas Studies Board. The Task Force recommended:

> The representative shall be appointed by the ALA Executive Board. Recommendations for the appointments shall be put forward by AASL, following solicitation of nominations for interested and qualified individuals from throughout the ALA. (ALA/NCATE Task Force December 1987).

Other recommendations from the task force included appointing a committee to develop curriculum guidelines to be submitted to NCATE for approval and establishing a pool of individuals to serve as folio reviewers. The guidelines committee was specified to include members appointed by AASL with a liaison appointed by SCOLE. The ALA Council voted to approve the report from the NCATE Task Force and the recommendations contained therein (ALA Council January 1988). With the approval by Council of the task force recommendations, AASL had achieved the other part of its goal: to be appointed as the ALA representative to NCATE.

Regarding the development of curriculum guidelines for NCATE approval, the AASL Executive Committee met on July 1, 1987 to discuss the Council decision. An AASL Task Force was formed to develop NCATE curriculum guidelines. The committee members included Blanche Woolls, Margaret Tussia, Marilyn Shontz,

Mell Busbin, Sue Walker, and Marilyn Miller as the Chair. Their timeline was to have a guidelines document ready for approval by ALA at Midwinter in 1988 and to NCATE in March 1988 (AASL Executive Committee July 1, 1987). While work on the guidelines began in the fall 1987, ALA did not approve them until the 1988 annual conference; NCATE approved them during fall 1988. The first NCATE program reviews using the new AASL guidelines were done in May 1989.

CHAPTER 10

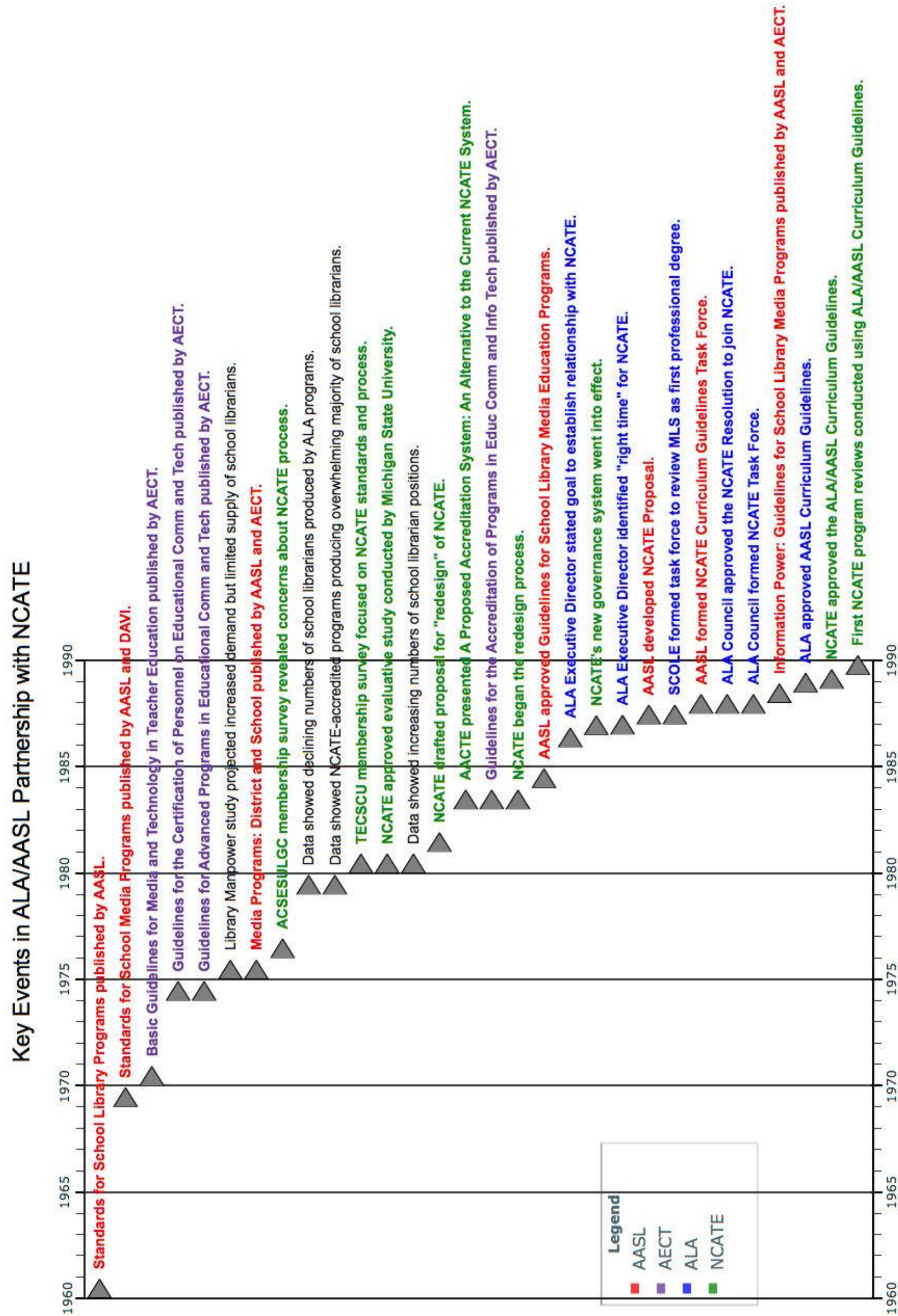
THE RIGHT PEOPLE AT THE RIGHT TIME

The story of ALA becoming a partner with NCATE may have had its early beginnings in the decision made by the 1903 ALA Committee on Library Training. That Committee had the task to study and review library schools. After seeking data from six types of library programs, including library education programs offered by normal schools, the Committee decided that overseeing such programs in normal schools was not the responsibility of ALA but that of the Library Section of the NEA (Vann 1961). From that beginning, ALA neglected the development of school library media education programs in schools of education while other groups such as NEA and, later, NCATE assumed that role. Even though this story may have had a gloomy start, it had an auspicious ending: the right people came together at the right time to provide guidance and leadership in the development of all school library education programs.

This partnership that developed between 1983 and 1989 was made possible by the development of several events. First and foremost was the reform movement in NCATE. Motivated by discontent from AACTE, universities, and many educators, NCATE made significant changes to its structure and organization. The NCATE staff worked actively to encourage participation from specialty area professional groups, such as ALA/AASL, in developing guidelines for those specialty programs in schools and colleges of education. This reform of NCATE was accomplished in 1985 -1986, a time corresponding to AASL's drive to participate in the evaluation and accreditation of school library media programs in the schools of education. Another

key event occurring at the same time was the development of strong divisional units within the overall ALA organizational structure. "It was a really good time in ALA as well because from about 1986 – 1987 – 1988 through about 1994 it was a time when the divisions were particularly strong within ALA" (Weeks 2007). ALA had an amazing group of division directors at that time who were really encouraged to be voices within ALA. It was a time when all the divisions, particularly the type of library divisions, were really encouraged to be very active and play a leadership role within the ALA organization (Weeks 2007). Furthermore, during the early 1980s reports from the U. S. Department of Education and other research studies indicated the majority of school librarians were being prepared professionally in programs not accredited by ALA while at the same time projections indicated that the demand for school librarians would outgrow the supply. And, adding to this mix of events was the development of new national guidelines, *Information Power*, that were published in 1988. These guidelines had the potential for changing the nature of school librarianship with newly defined roles and requirements for full-time library media specialists in every school. If ever the time was right for this partnership to occur, it was the mid-1980s. "It just was that the stars were really in alignment in that NCATE was changing and that [AASL] was developing the new national guidelines that were really quite different from the earlier guidelines" (Weeks 2007). While these particular events certainly were essential for the partnership to develop, they are but small pieces in a larger framework of events that span almost 30 years. No event can be singled out as "the most significant one" but rather it is the *combination of many events* over the span of time that created the right time for the development of

the ALA/AASL partnership with NCATE. The following timeline is an attempt to show the sequence of the many events.



No story is ever complete with just a series of events. While countless individuals contributed to these events, certain people were the "right ones" to be involved at that time. Leading the cast of characters was Marilyn Miller who, in the role of AASL President from 1986 – 1987, certainly provided the organizational leadership to achieve this goal. She had knowledge of how the ALA governance structure worked from her earlier experience as President of ALSC from 1979 – 1980 and from her involvement on numerous ALA committees since the 1960s. Not only was the partnership between ALA/AASL and NCATE one of her goals during her presidency but it also was a personal goal. As June Lester recalled, "If this hadn't have been a real personal crusade for Marilyn, I don't know if anybody else would have had the determination and stamina" (Lester 2007). Marilyn Miller truly was the person who pushed the NCATE proposal through. "It would not have happened had it not been for Marilyn Miller. Absolutely and positively. She was a force to be reckoned with. And I think that one of the most important parts of her legacy is that ALA is involved with NCATE and I do think it continues to be really, really important" (Weeks 2007).

Another individual who played a significant role within ALA during this time was Ann Weeks. As AASL Executive Director from 1986 – 1996 she provided leadership from the ALA staff perspective. Her knowledge of the organization, the issues, and the political nature of ALA Council caused her to suggest to AASL leaders that a "concerted effort" would be necessary to get Council approval. She was very attuned to attitudes and feelings within the organization as they related to ALA accreditation and the fears about involvement with NCATE. "I think Ann was

absolutely right that there needed to be a concerted effort to ensure approval, and by that I would think what she meant and certainly what I meant with getting the new standards approved was that you needed to really organize a political effort" (Lester 2007). On another level, Ann actively was involved in developing the national guidelines *Information Power* that transformed the nature of school librarianship. The development of these guidelines for school librarians certainly is at the heart of Ann Weeks' legacy. She participated actively with a clear vision for the future of the profession. Overall, Ann's role in these events can best be summarized by Marilyn Miller, "She was a great director for AASL, just there at the right time" (Miller 2006). Ann's earlier description of "an amazing group of division directors" in ALA during 1986-1994 would definitely include herself.

While not playing a lead role, Thomas Galvin certainly played a crucial supporting role. As Executive Director of ALA from 1985 – 1989, he began his tenure in that office by clearly stating his support for school librarianship. One of his goals was to establish and strengthen ALA's relationship with groups such as NCATE, a bold statement considering the doubts and fears many ALA members had about NCATE. Support from someone like Galvin in the higher levels of the ALA organizational structure would have been encouraging to AASL, especially as they mounted their campaign to join NCATE. Leaders in AASL recognized Galvin as supportive of school librarianship and their cause as well as being very open and helpful (Miller 2006; Weeks 2007). Furthermore, he had a keen sense of organizational politics as shown when he suggested "the climate in NCATE is probably receptive now" for ALA to pursue membership. As June Lester recalled,

“Tom Galvin was very politically sensitive. I certainly knew that from working with him during the time that he was executive director” (Lester 2007).

Finally, providing guidance and leadership outside ALA, Donna Gollnick was an equally significant person in accomplishing the partnership with NCATE. Having arrived at NCATE as Deputy Executive Director in 1986, Donna brought a wealth of knowledge and experience from her role as at AACTE as staff liaison between AACTE and NCATE. She actively was involved in the redesign of NCATE and was the person with whom AASL leaders had contact. Marilyn Miller recalled having several conversations and letters with Donna during the entire process. “She was wonderful, just wonderful” during ALA negotiations with NCATE (Weeks 2007). In part, her strengths as a negotiator came into play when trying to work out disagreements between AASL and AECT. “We primarily dealt with Donna, who really was trying to negotiate between the two organizations” (Weeks 2007). Throughout all the changes at NCATE and in the relationship with ALA/AASL, Donna Gollnick was a steady guide who was supportive and helpful.

An Assessment of the “Right Time” from a Larger Perspective

Within a larger framework, ALA’s commitment to participate in the NCATE accreditation process of school library programs in schools and colleges of education reflects the 20th century professionalism movement. Historians have identified this movement as a concerted effort by individual occupational groups to achieve professional status similar to the original professions of law, medicine, and the clergy. Using generally accepted criteria, professions can be defined as having these characteristics:

1. a definable exclusive body of organized and expert knowledge;

2. the application of this knowledge as a commitment to public service as opposed to individual self-interest or personal profit;

3. a relative independence and autonomy of professional behavior as self-defined by professional organizations through codes of ethics;

4. a system of rewards resulting from the importance and status of the work performed for the public good. (Barber 1965, Hatch 1988, Smith 2004)

With new levels and types of generalized and systematic knowledge constantly being developed, there were efforts by many occupational groups to be considered as professional in order to reap the benefits from that public recognition. This drive for public recognition as a professional group resulted in the development of "emerging or marginal professions" that would strive to demonstrate these four characteristics (Barber 1965).

As with other occupational groups during the 1980s, librarianship would have been considered an "emerging profession" as it embodied these four characteristics in varying degrees (Barber 1965). Librarianship clearly had a knowledge base as shown by ALA accreditation standards including a standard defining curriculum for master's programs in library and information science that emphasized "an evolving body of knowledge that reflects the findings of basic and applied research from relevant fields" (ALA Council 1992). Furthermore, these standards identified the essential character of the field of library and information studies as including "recordable information and knowledge, and the services and technologies to facilitate their management and use, encompassing information and knowledge creation,

communication, identification, selection, acquisition, organization and description, storage and retrieval, preservation, analysis, interpretation, evaluation, synthesis, dissemination, and management." To further emphasize a body of knowledge, librarianship was even identified as a *science* (*i.e.* "library and information science"). Recognition as a science not only brings prestige but also adds considerable merit in claims of legitimating professional status (Kevles 1988).

Also part of the first professional characteristic of a definable body of organized knowledge is the underlying notion that the expertise is derived from extensive academic training. Professional training and universities are closely linked in an institutional setting that tends to certify quality and competence. The university professional school has as one of its basic functions the transmission to its students of the body of knowledge necessary for professional performance (Barber 1965, Hatch 1988). "Emerging or marginal professions, when they are trying to raise standards for themselves, seek to locate themselves in universities" (Barber 1965, 20). During the 1980s, ALA had extensive discussions about the need to establish the master's degree as the first professional degree for librarianship. Obviously, the master's degree showed "extensive academic training" in a professional university program that further emphasized the unique body of knowledge and professional status of librarianship. In the official resolution for ALA to join NCATE in 1987, *Resolution on ALA Membership in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education*, ALA Council specified a graduate level education was the appropriate degree for all professional school library personnel. A year later, the national school library media national guidelines *Information Power* (1988) also specified a master's degree as the

first professional degree. With clear indication from ALA, librarianship embodied the first characteristic of a profession.

This emphasis from ALA for establishing a master's level program as necessary for librarianship would have added incentive on the part of ALA in the 1980s to control the education of school librarians through NCATE. As has been discussed, many school library media programs in colleges and schools of education required only minimal hours as part of an undergraduate degree in preparing school library professionals. Not only was ALA losing authority over a large group library professionals but it also was allowing a less rigorous academic training. These programs certainly would create questions about librarianship's having a specified body of knowledge that required extensive academic training in a professional degree program. Unless ALA took action to join NCATE, the professional status of the overall field of librarianship could diminish.

Regarding the second professional characteristic of a commitment to public service, librarianship has long been viewed as a service profession. As stated in the ALA Constitution from 1892, the object of ALA is to *promote library service* and librarianship and its mission is "to provide leadership for the development, promotion, and improvement of *library and information services* and the profession of librarianship in order to *enhance learning* and *ensure access to information for all*." Furthermore, the ideas of service and access are also specified in the ALA *Code of Ethics* along with support of intellectual freedom, individual rights to privacy and confidentiality, and intellectual property rights. The *Code of Ethics* even states, "We do not advance private interests at the expense of library users, colleagues, or our

employing institutions" (ALA Council 1997, 2008). With emphasis on these ideals, librarianship clearly is committed to public service as opposed to individual self-interest and personal profit.

ALA's having a code of ethics and various sets of standards and guidelines for librarianship supports the third professional characteristic of having relative independence and self-defined professional behavior. Some kind of self-control through an internalized code of ethics and voluntary associations is necessary for most professional behavior (Barber 1965, Hatch 1988). As an established organization, ALA has a long history with its *Code of Ethics*. The first official version was adopted in 1939 and later revised in 1981, 1995, and in 2008 with frequent revisiting of the document between revisions. ALA even has a Code of Ethics Committee that is a standing committee within the organization. The ALA *Code of Ethics* states:

> We recognize the importance of codifying and making known to the profession and to the general public the ethical principles that guide the work of librarians, other professionals providing information services, library trustees and library staffs.
>
> Ethical dilemmas occur when values are in conflict. The American Library Association Code of Ethics states the values to which we are committed, and embodies the ethical responsibilities of the profession in this changing information environment. (ALA Council 1997, 2008)

The *Code of Ethics* provides clear connection to the notion that ALA as a profession must provide ethical guidance to librarians and other information professionals. In

addition, ALA has a long history with standards and guidelines for the education of library professionals as well as in defining the nature of work. Obviously, ALA has defined library education through its standards for master's level programs at ALA-accredited schools and through the NCATE process. While some professional groups may use standards and codes of ethics in functions for "gatekeeping" or establishing legal requirements as licensure and certification (Hatch 1988), ALA does not.

Finally, regarding the fourth characteristic of professions, the system of rewards for librarianship is more honorary than monetary. ALA gives numerous awards and various recognitions for individual and group behaviors. Holding a national office or being involved with a national committee provide high prestige within the field of librarianship but it all happens at the individual's own personal expense. This approach to rewards in librarianship reinforces the idea that money income is more appropriate in areas of self-interest while prestige and honors are more appropriate for professions of public service and community interest (Barber 1965). This, again, suggest the professional nature of librarianship.

Whether it was a conscious effort or not, ALA's support for the partnership in the NCATE accreditation process does reflect participation in the larger twentieth century professionalism movement. Clearly ALA recognized a large number of school library professionals were being prepared outside ALA (as stated in the 1987 *Resolution on ALA Membership in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education*), thus allowing a large group of library professionals to have minimal academic preparation. This would have reflected badly on the entire profession. Participating in NCATE would give ALA the opportunity to have their standards

accepted and recognized by another national accrediting agency. This would provide another "stamp of approval" for librarianship as a profession and allow it to perform the role of "gatekeeper" for all library professional education. The push from within ALA during the 1980s to have the master's degree recognized as the first professional degree reiterated this desire for the professional status of librarianship. These elements of professionalism were reflected in the concerted efforts from many individuals to have ALA partner with NCATE in the accreditation of school library media professionals.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Questions for Interviews
Linda Gann-IRB Application

Since the participants who will be interviewed represent two different organizations, I have developed two sets of questions that reflect their knowledge and experience with regard to the organization with which they were affiliated.

Questions - Set A

These are the main questions for participants who were members of ALA or AASL. Additional questions may be asked based on their individual responses and the need for clarification.

1. What was your position in the ALA/AASL organization in the1980s?

2. Describe your responsibilities in that position.

3. Within ALA/AASL, discussions of joining NCATE began around 1983. From your perspective, what caused ALA/AASL to seek membership in NCATE?

4. At that time, what did ALA/AASL see as the perceived benefits of membership in NCATE?

5. On several occasions in the discussions of NCATE membership, AASL mentioned a "rising demand for school library media specialists." At Midwinter in 1986, results of a "Supply and Demand" were discussed which emphasized this rising demand. How would NCATE membership affect this increased need for school library media specialists?

6. During an AASL Executive Committee meeting at the 1986 annual conference, Tom Galvin (ALA Executive Director) stated that "the climate in NCATE is probably receptive now" to pursue membership.
    a) What does that phrase suggest to you?
    b) Had NCATE not been receptive to ALA/AASL membership in earlier times?

7. During discussions of NCATE membership, several references were made to the fact that most school library media professionals were receiving their training/education at non-ALA accredited schools (i.e., colleges of education rather than library schools). There was concern expressed about the quality of school library media preparation programs.
    a) What was wrong regarding the preparation of school library media professionals?
    b) Was that concern for the *quality* of those programs, or the *content* of their courses, or was this more of a *control issue* for ALA/AASL (i.e., not wanting to be "left out" of the training for school library media professionals)?
    c) How would NCATE membership address this concern?

8. Did this initiative by ALA/AASL to have "quality control" over school library media preparation programs in colleges of education cause any animosity or resentment from those schools? Or from graduates of those schools who were ALA/AASL members?

9. In a memo to AASL Directors Board dated April 27, 1987, Ann Carlson Weeks states that the ALA Executive Board had concerns about ALA's membership in NCATE. She says their response is positive but that "it will be necessary to mount a concerted effort to ensure Council approval if it goes forward."

   a) What were ALA Executive Board's concerns about membership in NCATE?
   b) What concerted efforts did AASL do to assure approval?

10. In a memo to the AASL Board of Directors dated June 5, 1987, Marilyn Miller states "a major issue that has arisen with the NCATE proposal is the MLS as the first professional degree." How was this a concern?

11. The proposal by the Standing Committee on Library Education (SCOLE) regarding "the master's degree from a program accredited by ALA as the appropriate professional degree for librarians" appears to be in contrast to recognizing NCATE-accredited degrees. Also, as stated during the discussion of NCATE membership before the ALA Council at the annual conference in 1987, SCOLE proposed to table the NCATE resolution since SCOLE "felt that it is the properly delegated arm of the association to deal with all aspects of library education." The SCOLE chair Jana Varlejs further stated that "there are still many unresolved questions" regarding the NCATE proposal.

   a) What caused this conflict between SCOLE and AASL regarding NCATE membership?
   b) Since SCOLE finally gave its support to the AASL proposal, how was the conflict resolved?

12. The drive to have ALA seek membership in NCATE began around 1983 and was finally accomplished in 1987-1988. Why did it take so long to accomplish?

13. Were there people or divisions within ALA who did not support membership in NCATE?

14. a)How did the ALA/AASL general membership support the move to join NCATE?
b) Did the general membership perceive this issue as a high priority?

15. a) How did NCATE respond to the ALA/AASL petition for membership?
b) Were there people within NCATE who did not support ALA/AASL membership?

16. While ALA/AASL developed curriculum guidelines for NCATE in 1988, another group, the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT), made repeated attempts to get ALA/AASL to join with them in a revision of AECT's existing NCATE standards.

a) Why was ALA/AASL determined to have its own, separate guidelines by refusing to join with AECT?
b) Since ALA/AASL's guidelines were eventually approved by NCATE, were both groups still recognized by NCATE?
c) Could a school choose which organization's guidelines would be used for accreditation?

17. What became ALA/AASL's role within NCATE?

18. How would you describe the relationship between ALA/AASL and NCATE today?

19. What problems do you perceive in the ALA/AASL/NCATE accreditation process?

20. What would you like to see change in the ALA/AASL and NCATE relationship?

21. In your opinion, has ALA/AASL membership achieved its goals by becoming a member and maintaining membership in NCATE?

22. In what ways has this partnership between ALA/AASL and NCATE in accreditation of school library media education programs affected the philosophy of school library media education?

23. Has the ALA/AASL/NCATE accreditation process helped to unify the institutions (i.e., schools of library and information studies and colleges/university programs of teacher education) that educate school library media specialists or has it emphasized the differences between the two?

24. Considering what you know now, should the relationship between ALA/AASL and NCATE have been developed in a different way?

Questions - Set B

These are the main questions for participants who were associated with NCATE. Additional questions may be asked based on their individual responses and the need for clarification.

1. What was your position in the NCATE organization in the1980s?

2. Describe your responsibilities in that position.

3. NCATE went through a significant reorganization in the 1980s. How did that reorganization affect specialty areas such as school library media education programs?

4. Did NCATE actively seek and encourage professional organizations such as ALA to partner with them in the accreditation process?

5. a) How does the participation of specialty area professional organizations such as ALA benefit the NCATE accreditation process?
b) What are the disadvantages to their participation?

6. When did you first learn about ALA/AASL's desire for NCATE membership?

7. From your perspective, what caused ALA/AASL to seek membership in NCATE?

8. During the 1986 ALA annual conference, Tom Galvin (ALA Executive Director) stated that "the climate in NCATE is probably receptive now" to pursue membership.
   a) What does that phrase suggest to you?
   b) Had NCATE not been receptive to ALA/AASL membership in earlier times?

9. a) How did NCATE respond to the ALA/AASL petition for membership?
b) Were there individuals or groups within NCATE who did not support ALA/AASL membership?

10. At the time of ALA/AASL's membership into NCATE in 1988, another group, the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT), already had a 12-year affiliation with NCATE.
   a) What was the nature of AECT's affiliation with NCATE?
   b) In correspondence to the AASL President in 1988, the head of AECT stated that it was his impression "that NCATE will only recognize one set of standards in a given area." How does NCATE handle this type of situation (i.e., two groups having standards for the same area)?
   c) Was this situation problematic or a source of controversy within NCATE?
   d) Do many institutions seek review by both ALA/AASL and AECT?

11. While ALA/AASL developed curriculum guidelines for NCATE in 1988, AECT made repeated attempts to get ALA/AASL to join with them in a revision of AECT's existing NCATE standards, but ALA/AASL refused.

a) Why do you think ALA/AASL refused to join with AECT?

b) Do you think ALA/AASL's decision was a good one?

12. In December 1988 (Marilyn Miller as AASL/NCATE Task Force Chair in memo to AASL Directors Board), NCATE had asked ALA/AASL to waive the 18 month waiting period usually associated with newly approved guidelines because six school library media programs within schools or colleges of education had asked to have their programs reviewed under the ALA/AASL curriculum guidelines.

a) Was this a common practice to waive the18 month waiting period for newly approved guidelines?

b) Why did NCATE make this request?

13. What became ALA/AASL's role within NCATE?

14. How would you describe the relationship between ALA/AASL and NCATE today?

15. What problems do you perceive in the ALA/AASL/NCATE accreditation process?

16. What would you like to see change in the ALA/AASL and NCATE relationship or accreditation process?

17. In your opinion, has ALA/AASL membership achieved its goals by becoming a member and maintaining membership in NCATE?

18. Considering what you know now, should the relationship between ALA/AASL and NCATE have been developed in a different way?

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT
TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

PROJECT TITLE: **The Development of the American Library Association (ALA)/American Association of School Librarians (AASL)/National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Partnership in National Accreditation Standards for School Library Media Education Programs**

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: **Linda Gann**

CONTACT INFORMATION: **Email: lgann@ou.edu**

Mail: 4511 W. 89th Street, Tulsa, OK 74132

Phone: 918-446-0123

You are being asked to volunteer for a research study. This study is being conducted at the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. You were selected as a possible participant because you were involved at the national level in the development of the ALA/AASL/NCATE partnership in national accreditation standards for school library media education programs in the 1980s. Please read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in this study.

Purpose of the Research Study

The purpose of this study is to record the development of the ALA/AASL/NCATE partnership in national accreditation standards for school library media education programs for a Ph. D. dissertation by the principal investigator in educational studies at the University of Oklahoma, College of Education.

Procedures

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things: to participate in either (1) an audiotaped face-to-face interview or (2) a telephone interview and to review a typed transcript of the interview for corrections, deletions, and clarification.

If you are asked to participant in an audiotaped face-to-face interview and you decide to refuse to be audiotaped, you may still participate in the study by allowing the PI to take written notes on your responses. You will be asked to review a typed transcript of the written responses to the interview for corrections, deletions, and clarification.

Total Amount of Time for Participants

1. Participants will be asked initially by telephone to respond to further telephone and/or email requests to confirm willingness and availabilty to participate in this study. (Duration: one hour or less)
2. a. Some participants will be asked to participate in a face-to-face interview at a location near their home that will be audiotaped (with all the appropriate informed consent documents being signed). (Note: Principal investigator will travel to their home location.) (Duration: 6 hours or less)

b. Some participants will be asked to participate in a telephone interview (with all the appropriate informed consent documents being signed). (Duration: 6 hours or less)

3. a. Participants will be asked to review a typed transcript of the recorded audio interview for purposes of clarification, correction, deletion, and elaboration. (Duration: 6 hours or less)

b. Participants will be asked to review a typed summary of the telephone interview for purposes of clarification, correction, deletion, and elaboration. (Duration: 6 hours or less)

4. Participants will be asked to be available for further questions and clarification. (Duration: 3 hours or less)

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study

The study has the following risks: none.

The benefit to participation is being identified as an important participant in the development of a significant event for school library media education programs.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not result in penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time.

Compensation

Participants will receive no compensation.

Confidentiality

The records of this study will be used write a dissertation for a Ph.D. degree. In published reports, the research participant will be identified by name and professional association through which he/she was involved in the development of this accreditation process. Research records and audiotaped interviews will be donated to the American Library Association archives housed at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Library.

☐ I consent to the use of my name and professional association in written and/or published reports.
☐ I do not consent to the use of my name and professional association in written and/or published reports.

Audio Taping Of Study Activities:

To assist with accurate recording of participant responses, interviews may be recorded on an audio recording device. Participants have the right to refuse to allow such taping without penalty. Please select one of the following options.

☐ I consent to the use of audio recording.
☐ I do not consent to the use of audio recording.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher and faculty advisor conducting this study can be contacted at

Principal investigator: Linda Gann
Email: lgann@ou.edu
Address: 4511 W. 89th Street, Tulsa, OK 74132
Phone: 918-446-0123
OU faculty advisor: Dr. Joan Smith
Email: jksmith@ou.edu
Address: College of Education Dean, University of Oklahoma
Collings Hall, Rm 100, Norman, OK 73019
Phone: 405-325-1081
You are encouraged to contact the research or advisor if you have any questions.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records. If you are not given a copy of this consent form, please request one.

STATEMENT OF CONSENT

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received satisfactory answers. I consent to participate in the study.

______________________________	______________________________
Signature	Date

APPENDIX C

SCRIPT FOR TELEPHONE OR EMAIL SOLICITATION

Script for Telephone or Email Solicitation
Linda Gann-IRB Application

As stated in the IRB application,

Participants will be identified through literature review and archival document research. The primary investigator through a telephone or email contact will approach them. They will be asked to sign an informed consent document that will include permission for interviewing them (and, if applicable, audio taping the interview) and using their name in the final study document (i.e. a Ph.D. dissertation). The principal investigator will travel to their home location, or call them by telephone, or email questions for the interview.

The following is the script that the primary investigator will use to make initial contact (either telephone or email) with potential participants.

My name is Linda Gann. I am a graduate student in the College of Education at The University of Oklahoma. I currently am working on my Ph. D. dissertation which is a study of the development of the ALA/AASL/NCATE partnership in national accreditation standards for school library media education programs in the 1980s. From research and archival documents, I have identified you as a significant person in this historic process.

I am contacting you to ask your participation in an interview (**note: I will specify "face-to-face" or "telephone" or "email" interview**).

If a face-to-face interview, script continues with: I will conduct the interview at your home/office or other location as you may specify.

If a telephone interview, script continues with: I will conduct the interview by telephone at a mutually agreed upon time determined in advance.

If an email interview, script continues with: I will conduct the interview by sending you via email a set of questions to which you may respond within a set period of time.

Additionally, you will be asked to review a typed transcript of the interview for corrections, deletions, and clarification. Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time.

If you are willing to participate, I will send you via postal mail an Informed Consent form and a Tape Recorded Interview Consent form (note: TRI consent form only necessary for face-to-face or telephone participants). After receiving the signed forms from you, I will contact you again to determine a time for the interview.

Thank you.

APPENDIX D

TAPE RECORDED INTERVIEW CONSENT SCRIPT

TAPE RECORDED INTERVIEW CONSENT SCRIPT

Dear : Date

I am a graduate student in the College of Education at The University of Oklahoma. I invite you to participate in an interview as part of a research study being conducted under the auspices of the University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus. The purpose of this study is to record the development of the ALA/AASL/NCATE partnership in national accreditation standards for school library media education programs in the 1980s for a Ph. D. dissertation by the principal investigator, Linda Gann, in educational studies at the University of Oklahoma, College of Education.

Your participation will involve participation in an audiotaped face-to-face interview. This will take six hours or less. Additionally, you will be asked to review a typed transcript of the interview for corrections, deletions, and clarification. Your involvement in the study is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time. The results of the research study may be published and your name and professional association will be used. The findings from this project will provide information on the development of the ALA/AASL/NCATE partnership in national accreditation standards for school library media education programs with no cost to you other than the time it takes for the interview.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to call me or my faculty advisor:

Principal investigator: Linda Gann
Email: lgann@ou.edu
Address: 4511 W. 89th Street, Tulsa, OK 74132
Phone: 918-446-0123

OU faculty advisor: Dr. Joan Smith
Email: jksmith@ou.edu
Address: College of Education Dean
University of Oklahoma
Collings Hall, Rm 100, Norman, OK 73019
Phone: 405-325-1081

You are encouraged to contact the researcher or advisor if you have any questions.

Questions about your rights as a research participant or concerns about the project should be directed to the Institutional Review Board at The University of Oklahoma-Norman Campus at (405) 325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

I would like to audio-tape this interview. Do I have your permission to audiotape the interview?

Yes ____________ Signature ______________________________________ Date ______________

Thanks for your help!

Sincerely,
Linda Gann
Ph.D. Student, University of Oklahoma

APPENDIX E

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

The University of Oklahoma

OFFICE FOR HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANT PROTECTION

IRB Number: 11185
Category: 2
Approval Date: March 14, 2006

March 14, 2006

Linda Gann
4511 W. 89th St
Tulsa, OK 74132

Dear Ms. Gann:

RE: The Development of the American Library Association (ALA)/American Association of School Librarians (AASL)/National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Partnership in National Accreditation Standards for School Library Media Education Programs

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), I have reviewed the above-referenced research project and determined that it meets the criteria in 45 CFR 46, as amended, for exemption from IRB review. You may proceed with the research as proposed. Please note that any changes in the protocol will need to be submitted to the IRB for review as changes could affect this determination of exempt status. Also note that you should notify the IRB office when this project is completed, so we can remove it from our files.

If you have any questions or need additional information, please do not hesitate to call the IRB office at (405) 325-8110 or send an email to irb@ou.edu.

Cordially,

Grayson Noley, Ph.D.
Vice Chair, Institutional Review Board

Ltr_Prot_Fappv_X

660 Parrington Oval, Suite 316, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-3085 PHONE: (405) 325-8110 FAX: (405) 325-2373