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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the changing instructional role of the high school librarian from 1951 to 1984 to determine: (1) if the purported changes in the instructional role have been fictional or factual; (2) if the changes were those of substance or of form; (3) if the changes represented a process of growth and development in direct relationship to educational and societal revolutions; and (4) if any of the changes noted experienced a period of dormancy between introduction and acceptance by practitioners. Three sources of material were selected as research parameters for the study: representative literature published during the period which described the instructional role of the librarian; standards, guidelines, and reports issued by national educational and library associations; and research studies performed during each decade. Library literature was characterized by its precocity; it usually did not reflect the times so much as advance them. Standards, reports, and guidelines seemed to reinforce the literature, while research studies revealed that the instructional role had changed, but not to the degree indicated in the first two sources. (Author/THC)

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by

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This paper examines the changing instructional role of the high school librarian from 1951 to 1984 to determine (1) if the changes in the instructional role have been fictional or factual; (2) if the changes were those of substance or of form; (3) if the changes represented a process of growth and development in direct relationship to educational and societal revolutions; and (4) if any of the changes noted experienced a period of dormancy between introduction and acceptance by practitioners. Three sources of material were selected as research parameters for the study: (1) representative literature published during the period which described the instructional role of the librarian; (2) standards, guidelines, and reports issued by national educational and library associations; and (3) research studies performed during each decade. The first source of data—library literature—was characterized by its precocity. It usually did not reflect the times so much as advance them. The second source of material—standards, reports, and guidelines—seemed to reinforce the literature, while the third source—research studies—revealed that the instructional role had changed but not to the degree indicated in the first two sources.

INTRODUCTION

The instructional role of the librarian in school media centers has been described in the literature for almost half a century.[1] School media specialists have been characterized as "instructional leaders, curriculum developers, and resource consultants par excellence."[2] Their part in the instructional program of the school has been defined in several sets of national standards[3] and in textbooks published as early as the 1930s and 1940s.[4] The numerous appellations which have been applied to school media specialists within this relatively short period of time might logically provoke a series of questions regarding such rapid change. Have the different occupational titles been employed to define the legitimate activity of the school media specialist[5] or have they been utilized as organization fictions which the profession uses to "overcome an unfavorable stereotype or to provide a more comforting self-image"?[6] Has the instructional role of the school librarian changed over time, for example, from a passive to an active one? Can these changes be termed evolutionary? Have they represented distinct stages coinciding with the transformations occurring in the fields of education and society? If the changes were based in reality, did there appear to be a specific span of time for their adoption and practice by librarians in the field?

OBJECTIVES

This paper will review and examine the relevant literature pertaining to the changing instructional role of the school media specialist from 1951 to 1984 in order to determine whether: (1) the changes in the instructional role have been fictional or factual; (2) the changes were those of substance or of form; (3) the changes represented a process of growth and development in direct relationship to educational and societal evolutions; and (4) any of the changes experienced a period of dormancy between introduction and acceptance by practitioners. Particular attention will be paid to representative literature published during this time span by library/media educators, practitioners, leaders of state, and national professional associations and advisory agencies in order to determine what conditions were like during the various time periods. The educational philosophy and practices of each decade will be discussed to demonstrate, where appropriate, their influence on the growth and development of the librarian's instructional role. Standards published by the American Association of School Librarians during 1960, 1969, and 1975 will be analyzed for official sanctions of changes. Research studies which attempted to document the instructional status of the librarian during various time periods will be reviewed for the purpose of verifying any changes.

RESEARCH PARAMETERS

There are several limitations imposed by a review of this nature. The first pertains to the period of time under consideration. Libraries in schools have been a fact since 1835.[7] Librarians have had a defined or implied instructional role since that time. Yet a review of the literature from 1933 to 1935 indicates that there were only 50 entries under the subject heading of "Relations with Teachers and Curriculum." From 1949 to 1951 the number of such citations increased to 88 entries.[8] The paucity of publications regarding this subject lends credence to the idea that this function of the school librarian, while described by several library educators during the 1930s and 1940s, had yet to be a perceived role by the majority of practitioners. In 1951, however, three significant publications appeared which developed the instructional role of the school media specialist to a fuller extent.

The first publication concerned a statement issued by the International Federation of Secondary Teacher's Association in Amsterdam in August 1950 which recognized that the school library should provide "activities and responsibilities of educational value."[9] The second publication

entitled *The Schools and National Security* mentioned the "importance of teaching the resources of the library in order that students may satisfy their interests and needs."[10] The last work, *A Planning Guide for High School Library Programs*, reinforced the 1950s trend of teaching the integrated use of library materials to students through various subject fields and advocated that teachers and librarians should share responsibility for this.[11]

A second parameter of this paper concerns the selection for study of school library grade levels.

> High school libraries were established before elementary schools...[and] are vastly more diverse and flexible. They generally possess staff members often acclaimed as expert in subject matter fields. In the environment, there is more likely to be more action class to class and more activity between administrators, teachers and learners.[12]

These conditions, which Erickson thought could produce change, were in fact seen by Gaver as inhibiting factors. Gaver contended that the "library in the secondary school is the one kind of school library which is not an innovative unit. Its collection has been long established, its catalog is reasonably accurate and is finished as one ever is, and its staff tend to be older and perhaps set in their ways—all characteristics which add to the difficulty of bringing about change and innovation."[13] These two diverse viewpoints by noted educators provided the basis for the selection of the high school as the appropriate level to study change. The high school library, on the surface, would appear to have had more time to experience change. On the other hand, its earlier founding may have been a factor in preventing change or perpetuating a facade.

The last parameter of the paper relates to a set of definitions which will be used throughout the discussion. These words will be referred to strictly by the cited source definitions.

Role—"The actual or ideal functions a person performs in his or her duties as the professional library/media specialist."

School Library Media Specialist (LMS)—"The professional member of the school library media center staff. Synonymous terms would indicate media specialist or school librarian."[14]

Instructional Role—"The more efficient means to help students arrive at specific behavioral objectives, that is, to gain access to certain information or develop specific skills. A human being may act as an instructor, but often a computer, a programmed text, or some other technological resource provides the most appropriate means of instruction."

Teaching Role—"A compositional act...existing in two phases—the preactive and interactive. Normally the preactive phase is equated with the

planning that a teacher does prior to a particular encounter with students in order to make that encounter work."[15]

Change—"The act of making something different in form, quality or state...the fact of becoming different."[16]

Evolution—"A series of related changes in a certain direction...process of change."[17]

METHODLOGY

The instructional role of the school library media specialist has always been indelibly linked to the total educational program of the school and to the current problems and concerns of society. Perspectives in viewing the instructional role of the school librarian thus begin with an understanding of the educational philosophy and practices of each decade as well as the contemporaneous major events which occurred in society.[18] This discussion will be followed by a critique of selected articles and books published by practitioners and media educators and will provide evidence of the instructional role being embraced during each decade. The literature review will subsequently be used as a basis for comparison with two additional sources—i.e., reports and guidelines issued by national and/or state professional associations and research studies. These publications will be examined as a second step since they are frequently believed to be synergistic to the literature written during the time. The research studies will be examined as a third stage because they can confirm or contradict the practices described in the previous literature. Within each decade, any changes noted vis-à-vis these three sources will be analyzed and discussed. A brief conclusion will be provided at the close of each decade's discussion.

THE FIFTIES

The decade between the close of World War II and the mid-fifties was termed by many educators as a "decade of American complacency."[19] Americans had emerged victorious from a world war and were exulting in their acknowledged superpower status.[20] School librarians floundered in a wave of anti-intellectualism and the conformity which was precipitated by technological democracy and the cold war.[21] Reactionary citizens' groups argued against the need for increased taxes to construct schools, employ additional teachers, and purchase new materials.[22] As a result of this poor financial support only 37% of U.S. secondary schools reported receiving the services of a centralized library by 1953-54 and 5% of the schools reported no services at all.[23] Society demanded that schools assume the

responsibility for teaching a multitude of new subjects thus creating a gap between teachers of traditional subjects and those of vocational or commercial kinds.[24] Teaching, despite the noticeable increase in audiovisual services offered by school libraries, was still dominated by the textbook.[25] Advocates of traditional learning, such as Bestor in his book *The Educational Wastelands*, debated philosophically with Mayers who attempted to assume a more neutral position vis-à-vis the controversy with his book, *The Schools*. As the debate continued, the question began to turn to whether or not the schools were prepared to adjust themselves to the growth of technology and the rising aspirations of their students.[26]

The launching of Sputnik in 1957 was the catalyst which halted America's complacency and expedited the educational process.[27] Sputnik led the way for American's receptivity to such reports as *The Pursuit of Excellence* (1958) by the Rockefeller Brothers Fund and *The American High School Today*[28] which demanded excellence in all aspects of the educational endeavor.[29] At this point federal funds were made available for the purchase of instructional materials which helped contribute to the concept of the school library as a resource center and not merely as a depository.[30] By the late 1950s American educators were determined to provide the "basic tools of learning to all individuals" and "to encourage a lifelong pursuit of knowledge and meaning."[31] Schools finally began to focus on learning rather than teaching and on curriculum methods which permitted a broader instructional role for the school librarian.[32]

Although the previous programs and events greatly influenced the growth and development of the school librarian's instructional role, a survey of the literature demonstrated that practitioners and library educators were already preparing the way for substantial change. In "School Libraries, 1949-1950: A Summary," Krentzman described the role of the librarian as being a "teacher of teachers as well as a teacher of boys and girls," and she noted that the library is in a "particularly strategic position to participate effectively and to provide some leadership in curriculum development."[33] Her denouncement of the use of the library as a study hall and her promotion of its use as an activity center were prescient. Her views of the instructional role of the school librarian promoted course-integrated instruction rather than a prescribed number of nonrelated library lessons.[34] Within the same year Hunt echoed similar views regarding the need for an expanded instructional role for the school media specialist. Defining the librarian as a "professor of books and general teacher," Hunt advocated that the librarian should be a "reader's adviser, a coordinator of instruction and an expert in diagnostic and remedial procedures in reading and should play a key role in the development of the school program."[35] A similar

article by Berger described the role of librarians in a curriculum program as one in which they: (1) served as consultants for the curriculum by collecting, demonstrating, and evaluating materials; and (2) planned with teachers and students during the initiation of learning activities.[36] The publication of these three articles should probably be considered more prophetic than descriptive of the period. They did, however, provide evidence that not all librarians and educators were wallowing in the sea of apathy which supposedly characterized the early fifties.

A further examination of the literature provides a more realistic set of activities. The majority of librarians in the early fifties had their role officially defined by Fargo in her classic textbook, *The Library in the School*. In it she defined the aims of the school library as being the provision of reading guidance and cooperation with the faculty on curriculum committees. Her interpretation of the librarian's instructional role was basically a passive one in the sense that she viewed the librarian as a provider and nurturer of "aesthetic experiences through the application of books."[37] In another 1950s publication, Henne et al., in *A Planning Guide for the High School Library Program*, relied upon the 1945 purposes set forth by the AASL (American Association of School Librarians) as defining the instructional role. These goals similarly encouraged "participation with other teachers and administrators in programs for the continuing professional and cultural growth of the school staff and stimulating and guiding pupils in all phases of reading."[38] Although this guide may have assisted in the perpetuation of a passive instructional role, librarians were also encouraged by Henne to undertake one course-integrated project per year and to use the *Experimenting Together Series* (course-related bibliographic instructional units) published during previous years by the ALA. In 1952, an article entitled, "The Action-Packed Library" described the instructional role in a more active sense by supplying examples of programs and methods by which libraries could be integrated into the curriculum.[39] Although useful for its timeliness, it could not be cited as an indication of substantial change since it continued to define the instructional role as one of supplier and recommender of materials. It did indicate, however, that progress was being made, however slowly.

In 1953, Lohrer introduced her school librarianship issue of *Library Trends* by proposing that "library service was beginning to be expressed in terms of social, reading and vocational guidance and as part of the teaching functions of the school library."[40] In that same issue, James indicated that the "modern concept of library work had been gradually changing." Her perceptions of the instructional role of the librarian included: (1) provid-

ing books and, for the first time, audiovisual materials to the students and faculty; (2) helping with curriculum development; (3) visiting classes and being interested in the presentation of materials; (4) consulting with departmental groups about their needs; and (5) preparing bibliographies for course units. It was also recommended that librarians teach the uses of library materials as part of their duties. No particular methods, however, were advocated for achieving these objectives.[41] The James article essentially reflected the educational philosophy for school librarians during the early fifties. Although the instructional role of the librarian was delineated, it still remained one of advising, supplying, and guiding students and faculty. Its passivity can be readily detected in such statements as items 3 and 4 noted earlier.

In that same year, it remained for a professor of education, W.L. Davis, to recommend a more active instructional role for the school librarian. Davis visualized the librarian "first and always a teacher." With this definition asserted, he proceeded to describe a librarian who provided course-integrated instruction for students in the use of materials centers. He portrayed a librarian as a professional who "worked together with teachers in planning units in the total school program." Davis, although not the first, was another frequently cited prophet of a more active instructional role for the school librarian in the fifties.[42] Although his perceptions were ahead of his contemporaries, they do provide testimony to the fact that progress was being made.

As the decade progressed, articles continued to appear which provided examples of the redundancy of thought which typified much of the period but also furnished valuable information concerning the more contemporary practices and issues of the day. The fifties instructional role of the school librarian primarily involved the social guidance function. School libraries were described as "social laboratories" with the instructional role defined as one of guiding students to make vocational and social decisions through the use of books.[43]

Another prevailing debate of the early fifties which definitely affected the instructional role of the school librarian concerned the study hall concept of the library. A review of the literature reveals the contradictory views regarding this idea and indicates the extent to which libraries were being used in this manner. Goudeau provides a detailed list of the advantages and disadvantages of the concept while simultaneously asserting that librarians should be regarded as teachers with their departments being totally integrated into the curriculum.[44]

By the mid-fifties the debate concerning these two issues abated, and the instructional role of the school librarian began to reflect the changes that were occurring in the basic philosophy of education. The most important of these changes in relation to school libraries were: (1) an emphasis upon the child as an individual; (2) a recognition of individual differences and the concept of a developmental rather than a selective-elimination approach; (3) use of many sources of information; and (4) the use of small-group as well as individual and class learning activity.[45] With the stress upon these new principles of education, articles began to appear that emphasized the need for school libraries to be able to select materials based upon the needs, interests, and abilities of individual students. Educators began to promote the idea of integrating all teaching subject units with library units. The guidance function and passive instructional role still appeared to be present, but the focus upon course-integrated instructional units and the change in educational philosophy seemed to require a more active set of instructional functions.

In 1958 Ahlers published an article which precisely defined the instructional role of the school librarian in relation to the faculty and administration. She attempted to banish permanently the idea that course-integrated instruction was to be the "special province of the librarian alone or of the librarian working with the English teacher."[46] She instead advocated that principals, teachers, and librarians coordinate their efforts and incorporate library instruction skills into every subject area. She perceived the instructional role of the librarian as involving among other duties: (1) providing an effective teaching and learning center for teachers and pupils; (2) encouraging teachers to discuss their units and the materials they needed for them with the librarian; (3) helping to prepare lessons, tests, and other materials necessary for library instruction, and (4) maintaining an awareness of all units being taught at various grade levels.[47]

A cursory analysis of these roles might suggest that there had been no change in the instructional role of the school librarian from the early to late fifties. This would be wrong. From 1950 to 1959 the literature indicated that changes were occurring to the extent that school librarians were perceived as being less passive and were responsible for initiating library instruction that was integrated with class work. Much of this changing role could be attributed to the decreasing dependence of teachers upon the textbook as the only mode of instruction. The concomitant use of many sources of information and the introduction of audiovisual materials into the curriculum abetted the change and began to awaken school librarians from the educational torpor of the early fifties.

Fain, however, in reviewing the literature on this subject, discerned what she termed an "undercurrent of disappointment between the idea of the school librarian as being at the hub of a creative instructional program, and the actuality—the school librarian has frequently had only a marginal role."[48] While the proof of this perception is extremely difficult because of a lack of concrete support, her observation should not remain unacknowledged. A mere tracing of articles within a specific time period does not necessarily indicate actual practices at a universal level. Although it would provide a representative sample of the ideas, practices, and issues which could lead to some generalizations, precise conclusions would be impossible to draw. Research studies performed during this period, however, may provide further evidence to illuminate the dichotomy which Fain perceived in the literature.

During the 1950s, several studies concentrated on the instructional role of the school librarian. Romine, in a 1950 study of reports from 340 North Central Association high schools in 20 states, found that the multitude of services performed by a librarian could be classified into 18 areas. Of these, three were instructional in nature: (1) assisting pupils in use of the library, (2) assisting teachers in using the library and (3) instructing pupils in library science. Using a rating scale of 0 to 3, librarians indicated that they gave little attention to activities 2 and 3 and some attention and time to activity 1. Of the 47 different combinations of library and other instructional duties, 20 involved the field of English, with social studies also prevalent. A last aspect, and the most interesting, concerned the finding that in schools of less than 500 pupils, librarians had less than a 50-50 chance of operating a study hall concept library. These findings, while disappointing with respect to the instructional role of the librarian, do corroborate several of the articles which were published during the early fifties.[49]

About the same time, Mahar studied 50 New York state school libraries to determine their contribution to curriculum improvement. Her findings indicated that activities relating to traditional concepts of the school library were performed generally by the school librarians, whereas activities implied by recently developed concepts were not performed to any great extent. Librarians served primarily as providers of materials. The newer concepts pertaining to reading guidance, curriculum development, and audiovisual provision were not being implemented at significant levels. Mahar's study graphically demonstrated that the contemporaneous literature discussing these concepts was ahead of actual practice. Some instructional functions were being carried out in isolated cases, but the majority of librarians were practicing their profession in a textbook-

dominated study hall environment which did not dispose itself to the idea of an instructional materials specialist.[50]

In 1955, Voisard studied high schools with over 1000 enrollment and found that while librarians were frequently included in committees for special curriculum projects, they were rarely full participants.[51] These findings seem to verify the climate of the times. Education was just beginning to acknowledge individual learning styles, to provide other sources of materials, and to permit a more active instructional role for the school librarian. Two years later a study by Smith reported the most frequent activity of school librarians to be that of providing guidance materials, the least frequently reported activity was participation in curricular improvement meetings. These findings are not surprising in light of the philosophy and practice of education during this period of time.[52] The last study by Bianchi involved a survey of 5000 teachers in urban secondary schools to identify teacher attitudes toward the school library and the use they made of it. Although some of the results could be termed disappointing in light of the new concepts proposed in the literature for that time, it seems evident from an analysis of the findings that progress had been made. The library was cited by 88.8% of the respondents as playing an important role in the total instructional program of the school. A breakdown of the survey results revealed that English, social studies, and science teachers were found to be major users of the library while other subject teachers were minor users. This finding coincided with Ahler's article which argued for fuller faculty involvement. With regard to a specific instructional role, only 27.6% of the faculty stated that they frequently consulted with the librarian in planning new units of work with another 39.3% reported doing so only occasionally. The last finding, which related to a constant problem discussed in the literature, pertained to the fact that 30.6% of the surveyed faculty taught in a school whose library doubled as a study hall. This factor would obviously influence the instructional role of the librarian with respect to the implementation of new concepts.[53]

A third source of material which furnishes information about the degree of change includes the pronouncements and standards of state and national library associations and education departments regarding new concepts. Since these publications are formulated by groups representing librarians and educators, an assumption is being made that they serve as official interpretations of the librarian's instructional role.

With the introduction of audiovisual materials into the curriculum, the adoption of less traditional subjects, and the abolishment of the library as a study hall, the road was being paved for the concept of the school library as

an instructional media center and for a changing instructional role for the school librarian. As early as 1956 the American Association of School Librarians acknowledged this new concept by issuing a statement which defined the role of the school library as serving as a center for print and nonprint instructional materials and that of school librarians as "coordinators, consultants and supervisors of instructional materials on each level of school administration."[54] This official statement by a national organization representing school librarians introduced the changes that were slowly taking place in the literature and in libraries with a degree of certainty. They endowed the literature and even future research studies with a framework of acknowledged reality.

THE SIXTIES

The decade of the 1960s in school library development and education in general can be described as a "time of ferment."[55] "Rhetoric and ideas abounded as to what education would do to solve a number of pressing social issues—from integrating the schools racially to promoting a love of reading among the disadvantaged or disinterested."[56] The curriculum became subject to broad interpretation as students evidenced a growing need for all kinds of education and aspired to greater educational achievement. Learning was no longer viewed as a transitory state but was instead seen as a continuing and lifelong process. Schools introduced a variety of curricular and instructional changes involving such diverse areas as social studies, science, mathematics, communication arts, citizenship education, vocational education, fine arts, and the humanities. Innovations in methods of instruction included:

> Independent study, advanced placement, accelerated programs, greater interrelation of subjects, team teaching, special attention to the socially and economically deprived, the track system or ability sectioning, selective instruction to curtail dropouts, upgraded elementary schools and high schools, greater use of a wide range of materials (including audiovisual and other new media on all grade levels and in all subjects) and expanded block periods for both large and small-group instruction.[57]

A larger number of children and youth attended school for longer periods of time. Centralization of school districts occurred which resulted in gains of efficiency and versatility.[58] During the 1940s there were over 100,000 school districts in the United States. By the 1960s this number had been reduced to less than 40,000.[59] Federal funds became available to schools and libraries with the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958, the Library Services and Construction Act in 1964, and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965.[60] Monies became available for the purchase of increased materials beside just textbooks.

Education in the 1960s became imbued with a "spirit of innovation" which created a world of manipulated expectations and promises.[61] The introduction of media in the form of filmstrips, television, films, and cassettes became a false panacea for illiteracy and ushered in a belief according to Marshall McLuhan that "the era of total communication had dawned."[62] By 1962, audiovisual materials were found in 62.7% of the secondary school libraries surveyed in the United States.[63]

The changes which occurred in education in the sixties had a definitive impact on the instructional role of the school librarian. The school's new emphasis on "diversified learning materials—both printed and nonprinted—for all subjects and levels of ability" finally brought to school librarians the opportunity for the greater instructional role which had been described by Berger, Davis, Hunt, Henne, and Mahar in the 1950s.[64] The status of the librarian in Davies's glorified words changed from study hall monitor and book curator to "team teacher, learning expediter and media programming educator."[65]

An examination of the library literature published during this period presents a similar picture built upon the sense of optimistic expectation which characterized the times. One of the first library educators to express such assurance in the changing instructional role of the librarian was Grazier. In a futuristic article, she perceived and defined the librarian's instructional role as that of a provider of "expert assistance in the use of materials based on an understanding of the methods, concepts and data in a given field."[66] Although this role was well-established in the 1950s, Grazier developed it a step further by advocating the structured use of book talks which amounted to an integrated school-wide reading guidance program cooperatively planned by teachers and librarians. The librarian's role in library instruction was solidly based upon course-integrated instruction. Grazier urged that specific library skills be coordinated with various subjects, and she introduced a skills continuum so that a library curriculum existed within each subject area. Trump, in the early 1960s, reflected a similar enthusiasm when he described the librarian's instructional role as a "part-time member of the teaching team."[67] Viewing their services as closely interrelated with the teaching/learning process, Trump predicted that librarians would be part-time members of teaching teams and that they would plan and evaluate instructional programs as members of these teams.[68] In another related approach, Taylor spoke of the instructional role as being one of a consultant. He proposed that librarians "seek opportunities to work with students and their teachers in classrooms and within materials centers," assuming roles of active educational leadership, and he suggested that librarians should teach ways to "introduce materials,

present them to advantage, and conclude with class discussion and evaluation."[69] In 1963, Ellsworth and Wagener published a book which graphically depicted the concept of the school library as a teaching laboratory.[70] Organized under the concept of team teaching, they recommended that librarians serve as members of teams and meet with teachers to evaluate instructional programs. Ellsworth and Wagener also paralleled the development of the instructional role of the librarian to an evolutionary pattern evident in the development of college librarianship. They indicated that there appeared to be a ten year lag between the introduction of a concept and its actualization in the profession.[71] This observation, while somewhat consistent with a comparison of related literature vis-à-vis research studies, is still difficult to prove. Introduction and acceptance of change in the school library seem more dependent upon the speed with which changes occur in society and education. For example, from 1900 to 1950 knowledge doubled once. By 1960 it was doubling every eight to ten years.[72] In 1950, 120,000 titles were produced. By 1960 that number had increased to 195,000, and by 1965 it had climbed to an astounding 365,000.[73]

A further examination of the literature describing the instructional activities during this period indicated that the librarian's instructional role evolved more rapidly than it did in the 1950s. A series of articles published in the *ALA Bulletin* in 1963 illustrated the more active role that librarians were taking with the curriculum. The first in the section described a school librarian's opportunity to demonstrate the values of planning assignments for effective use of library resources. In three sample subjects—music, sociology, and English—the librarian was actively involved in planning, executing, and evaluating the lesson from start to finish.[74] The second article featured a demonstration of a library teaching unit in action via closed circuit television. The subsequent film was used to show faculty members the new concept of a librarian in an active instructional role.[75] The last article discussed the library as functioning as a "workshop-laboratory" and the librarian serving in a dual capacity of teacher and materials expert. In this specific instance, the "librarian suggested additional topics for teacher consideration, acquainted the teacher with new materials pertinent to unit and suggested activities and opportunities to integrate the unit with other subject areas."[76]

Although the previous articles furnished definite clues that the instructional role of the librarian was changing from a passive to an active one, there were still several issues of the early sixties which impeded the progress of change. Also prevalent in the literature were articles which weighed the pros and cons of classroom libraries *v.* central libraries. While this debate might seem irrelevant in light of today's situation, it was a

critical factor in the evolution of the instructional role. Librarians experienced great difficulty in coordinating teaching units with faculty who were ensconced in their classrooms with a sufficient collection to continue their own instruction.[77] A second issue pertained to nonlibrarians who accepted the new concept of an instructional materials center but who could not conceive of a different instructional role for the librarian in that setting. As late as the mid-sixties publications continued to describe the instructional role of the librarian as one of sophisticated supplier of print and nonprint items rather than as an active participant in the educational process.[78] Even by 1967, Sullivan, in his book *Realization: The Final Report of the Knapp School Libraries Project*, noted that there were still educators who referred to school libraries housing all varieties of instructional materials as "new or experimental." She noted, however, that "their number was decreasing."[79]

In that same year, however, a position paper prepared for the Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI) of the National Education Association described the role of the media professional in education in such new terms that its descriptive standard contir d to be employed in the seventies and eighties. DAVI perceived the "role of the media professional as changing from that of a keeper and dispenser of teaching aids to that of an analyst and designer of instructional systems who must be centrally involved in the planning of learning environments, and in providing for related support functions and evaluative procedures."[80] Among other things, they proposed that the media professional prepare teaching materials, provide in-service education for teachers and administrators in the selection and use of instructional materials and techniques, and assist with the evaluation of the results of the use of instructional materials and technological resources for teaching.[81] Their perceptions were reinforced by another advocate of the pending library and media merger, Heinich, in a book entitled *Technology and the Management of Instruction*.[82] Heinich viewed library audiovisual materials as an integral part of the instructional process planned for "prior" to teaching, with library service generally being requested as a "result" of instruction.[83] He proposed that the librarian enter into the curriculum-development process prior to instruction rather than as an afterthought.[84]

A content analysis of the two previous statements reveals a significant synapse in the instructional role described in the library activities of the early to mid-sixties and the role described by the DAVI definition Library educators had not yet employed the terms analyst, designer, and preparer with respect to materials. Articles continued to depict the instructional role of the librarian as a materials specialist who actively served as a "liaison

between knowledge about, interest in, and optimum use of materials."[85] Rossoff interpreted the educational goals of the media center as being the same as those previously established for the school library. He envisioned the librarian working closely with students and teachers, selecting materials, and maintaining an acquisitions awareness program for all.[86] Neither Heinich or Rossoff described the librarian's role as being more assertive than those that predated Norberg and Heinich.

At a time when the instructional role of the school librarian seemed to be almost synchronous with the times, Norberg's and Heinich's statements had a truly momentous impact, accelerating the active role of the librarian in the instructional process.

Although the previous analysis of selected literature helps one to understand part of the changing instructional role of the librarian in the 1960s, a survey of research studies performed coincidently reveals a more realistic aspect. Five studies performed in the sixties attempted to clarify or categorize the instructional role of the school media specialist. In 1961, Lohrer received a grant to conduct a nationwide status survey to determine the role of school libraries which function as instructional materials centers.[87] In a progress report, Lohrer reported that the integration of the library program into the overall teaching program appeared to be greater in schools where the library served as the center for providing all materials. This finding coincided with the development of the media center concept in the early 1960s.[88] In 1966, Lane gathered data on all aspects of school library programs for 63 elementary and 202 secondary schools in the state of Oregon. In her study she attempted to evaluate library programs by comparing the number of services offered students and faculty with other schools of similar size. Her findings regarding the instructional role of the school librarian were interesting but also disheartening. Only 53.9% of the librarians reported working with teachers in the selection of materials; 64.2% of librarians kept teachers informed about new materials; 44.2% prepared bibliographies upon request; 22.9% helped in planning units of instruction; 42.8% provided professional materials; 37.5% introduced new materials through book talks, demonstrations, or displays; and 53% supplied classroom collections as needed.[89]

In 1968, Sullivan published the results of a massive research effort entitled *Knapp School Libraries Project*. Most pertinent to the instructional role of the librarian were the descriptions given of two high schools which were chosen as demonstration sites for the excellent library programs they had already established. Roosevelt High School in Portland, Oregon had structured its library program within the framework of the AASL 1960 *Stan-*

dards for School Library Programs which will be discussed later in this paper. The instructional role of the librarian was to provide a program of instruction in the use of the library through subject matter that had been developed through cooperation with the teacher. Visits to the classroom were made by the librarian to demonstrate library tools before the students commenced work in the library. The second high school, Oak Park and River Forest in Illinois, involved a staff of three full-time and one half-time professionals whose duties consisted of those similar to academic librarians. They were available for reference consultation several periods a day in the main reading area, provided selected bibliographies upon request, conducted orientation tours, and supplied audiovisual equipment. Although they were successful during the project in establishing several additional resource centers attached to the library, their instructional role had not changed from providing and supplying materials.[90] A comparison of the previous instructional programs with the literature confirms that these two school libraries had wholeheartedly adopted the media center concept and had assumed a slightly more active instructional role. Yet when scrutinized for details, the programs yield a level of instruction which is still far behind the role advocated for librarians in the media and library literature. A portrait emerges of librarians following the lead of teachers in instruction and only preparing library instruction or materials upon request.

Another research study performed by Gaver in 1969 attempted to identify the variety of services which high school media staffs offered their patrons through a survey using a checklist of approximately 280 items. Although the survey represented the opinions of media specialists and not the faculty or student body, more than 60% of those surveyed identified 15 instructional services offered in their libraries. Among the instructional activities were: (1) orientation given to new students; (2) instruction in the use of the media center which implemented a consistent program to develop patterns of library instruction; (3) individual and group instruction in the use of the media center; (4) instruction in the use of the center integrated with English classes; and (5) class visits scheduled for supervised reference work in the media center.[91] A study of these services discloses the extent to which the literature published in the sixties mirrored actual library practice. The results of Gaver's research helped to demonstrate that the instructional role of the librarian was still somewhat static. It can be viewed, however, as a change from the passive instructional role which typified the school librarian of the 1950s.

The last research effort which illustrated the instructional role of the librarian was the *School Library Personnel Task Analysis Survey* which

was part of the initial data collection for the School Library Manpower Project conducted by AASL from 1969 to 1975. This study identified superior school library media centers in each of the 50 states and surveyed them using a checklist of 300 task statements to ascertain the functions of different staff members. Phase I of the project resulted in the publication of *Occupational Definitions for School Library Media Personnel* and described the instructional role of the librarian in terms of the following abilities: (1) contributing to collection development; (2) working cooperatively and effectively with the head of the SLMC, other SLMC staff, and teachers; and (3) teaching students how to use materials and equipment critically and independently. These three competencies, among other abilities listed, were cumulative statements derived from visits to 694 "outstanding school library programs" in the United States. Therefore they may be considered descriptive of the current practice in the leading school libraries during the late sixties. Their perceptions of the nature and scope of the position depicted "an active teaching role in the instructional program of the school through instruction in the effective use of media and equipment."[92]

A third influence which contributed to the changing instructional role for the school librarian was the issuance by the AASL of two sets of standards, another set published by the National Education Association, and several reports and criteria disseminated by national and regional groups and state departments of education. All of these recommended the concept of the school library as a media center and espoused a changed role for the librarian.

The first report, published by the National Study of Secondary School Evaluation, expanded the 1960 edition of *The Manual for Evaluative Criteria* to include a means for evaluating the school library as an instructional materials center. Furthermore, among other duties, it defined the role of the librarian as: (1) providing print and nonprint materials; (2) offering leadership in developing use of various materials by teachers and students; and (3) furnishing assistance in the production of instructional materials and displays.[93] In the same year, the American Association of School Librarians issued a set of standards which detailed the instructional role for the librarian. Beginning with a list of eight general principles which presumed that the "true concept of a school library program meant instruction, service, and activity throughout the school rather than within the four walls of the library quarters," the standards recommended an overall plan of instruction with the use of materials being fully integrated with classrom work.[94] Two years later, in a *Manual for Accrediting Secondary Schools* (published by the Northwest Association of Secondary and

Higher Schools), the school library was officially recognized as an instructional materials center.[95] By 1963 the National Committee of the National Association Project on Instruction entitled *Schools for the Sixties* declared that "in each school system there should be one or more well-planned instructional materials and resource centers...staffed by persons who are adequately prepared in curriculum and instruction, and in library service, and in audio-visual education."[96] In 1965 the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools declared that the library should be organized as a media center for the entire instructional program and that the number and kind of print and nonprint materials should be adequate for the number of students and requirements of instruction.[97] All of these reports and proclamations indicated that a change in the educational role for the school librarian was being advocated, and in 1969 the American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction recognized it by issuing a new set of standards. While similar in many ways to the 1960 standards, the new ones described a more unified media concept. References were made to media specialists and their instructional role involved: (1) "Acting as resource persons in the classroom when requested by teachers; (2) serving on teaching teams; (3) working with teachers to design instructional experiences; (4) working with teachers in curriculum planning; (5) assuming responsibility for providing instruction in the use of the media center; and (6) assisting teachers...to produce materials which supplement those available through other channels."[98]

The instructional changes mirrored in the 1969 standards and literature of the sixties were unfortunately not reflected in the actual practice of school librarianship. But change did appear to occur more rapidly for the reasons previously noted than it happened during the 1950s. There was a discernible pattern of progress. More school librarians—now called media specialists—were, when not preparing instructional programs, consulting and cooperatively working with faculty members to supply them with additional materials. The instructional media center concept, if not the media specialist's more integrated role, had become an accepted fact by administrators, faculty, and students. Nonetheless, problems such as teacher reliance on textbooks, the isolation of librarians from curriculum planning, and the reluctance of teachers to collaborate limited the full development of the instructional role described so eloquently in the literature.[99]

THE SEVENTIES

If the sixties were described as a time of ferment in education, the seventies were termed a "time of action."[100] Crises precipitated by an economic recession and energy shortages emotionally enhanced the criticism of education which had begun as early as 1956 as a reaction to the level of student achievement. "Momentous legislation and the social upheaval of the late sixties reduced the autonomy of schools and culminated in a significantly altered educational philosophy." This period witnessed an actual—rather than merely a proposed—change from passive learning on the part of students to an environment in which students and teachers actively participated together in projects and activities which served to convey information previously provided by a textbook or a teacher.[101] The form of change which occurred in approximately one-fourth of the school districts involved the establishment of some type of alternative school. Examples of these schools were: (1) continuous progress—a school based upon a philosophy that a child learns most quickly and successfully when permitted to progress at his or her own pace; (2) bilingual—a program which incorporated a culture other than American English; (3) environmental—a curriculum which provided students with basic skills and an educational experience in environmental studies; (4) performing arts—a set of studies which combined traditional subject areas and course work in drama, dance, speech, and other nonacademic areas; (5) Montessori—school founded upon the principle of Maria Montessori which was adapted from the private sector to the public school system; (6) schools without walls—a curriculum in a nonhome-based setting with students defining their area of study and arranging to take courses from instructors at a variety of educational facilities; and (7) the mini-school—which offered a school-within-a-school such as fine arts, career, work study, and special education.[102]

The diversity associated with the introduction of these programs produced a climate in which the school became increasingly regarded as an agent of change. A watchword for the curriculum was the term *relevancy*. The emphasis shifted from teaching to learning—from the learning of facts to the understanding of principles. The school which had long been viewed in the community as a self-contained and wholly autonomous structure began to be considered more as an extension of the community and as an institution whose instruction extended beyond the boundaries of school.[103] The democratization of education emerged as part of the search for greater equality and social justice, and was apparent in the priority given to education by minority groups and students residing in rural areas.[104] By the late seventies, however, educational institutions began to encounter

opposition to some of their aims and objectives, and pleas were heard for a return to the basics. Accusations were made that schools in search of a philosophy of education were producing a generation of "idea hoppers."[105] The schools responded with a reexamination of their goals and began formulating standards for minimal competencies.[106] As national test scores plummeted, changes were again made in curricula, and schools began to focus on such areas as: (1) adaptation to change, (2) development of competencies; (3) problem-solving skills; and (4) the use of research skills.[107]

Within this environment of change, the school library finally received assurance that its educational goals and objectives, which in many cases were ahead of the times, were now appropriate.[108] An examination of the literature during the 1970s indicated not only an increase in the number of pertinent articles but also the fact that they were characterized by a greater recognition that librarians were indeed realizing their objectives.[109] Some, however, authored by librarians as well as educators, accused school librarians of laboring under several instructional delusions and cast doubt on the ability of librarians to achieve their goals. In 1970, for example, Brickell persuasively argued that the school was such a "complex system" that librarians could not successfully accomplish the deep intervention associated with the establishment of an instructional role for themselves which involved consultant services and direct instruction.[110] Hannigan informed librarians in 1973 that they were mired in a world of print. She charged that librarians lacked sufficient knowledge of "communications theory" and "a sufficient degree of media sophistication" to apply "differing modes of sensory perception to achieve instructional goals."[111] A year later, Miller described the instructional goals of media specialists as "curriculum delusions," claiming that librarians possessed inadequate knowledge of curriculum theory and were possibly unqualified to function in such a role. Miller outlined the causes of their failure: (1) teachers still being wedded to a textbook approach to learning; and (2) librarian's passive participation on curriculum committees.[112] These criticisms seemed to reflect an evolutionary pattern as librarians reacted to the permanent addition of nonprint materials, their need to instruct, and their desire to participate in the curriculum process. They had to learn how to incorporate audiovisual materials into learning situations at a time when little research guidance was being provided in the literature. They had to devise methods to wean faculty from their classrooms. They had to become fully informed about the total curriculum rather than just a particular department's wish to create a new teaching unit.

By the mid-seventies, books such as *Instructional Design and the Media Program* by Hug, *The School Librarian as Educator* by Wehmeyer, *The Learning Center* by Peterson, and *School Library Media Center* by Prostano defined the accepted role for the librarian in education and even provided a series of course-related suggestions for performing that role. Articles began to appear which acknowledged the instructional role of the librarian as "working with teachers to develop objectives" but which also recommended that the main role of the librarian was that of consultant in instructional design.[113] Davies, in her 1974 edition of *The School Library Media Center: A Force for Educational Excellence*, devoted an entire chapter to "The Teaching Role of the Library Media Specialist" and another to the implementation of instructional design.[114] In 1975, Taylor wrote an article in which he stressed the "importance of the act of teaching for the media specialist." Taylor's analysis of the choice of teachers and librarians to employ media as either a "surrogate or an artifact" proved very educational in light of Hannigan's charges in 1963. His examples of media being inappropriately used to take the place of teaching and its appropriate use as a complement to the instructional process indicated that problems still existed within this area regarding the librarian's instructional role.[115] Most of the literature during the mid-sixties, however, had exhorted librarians to fulfill their roles as educators in the media center and as actual members of teaching teams.[116]

In 1976, Aaron identified several factors which influenced the instructional role of the media specialist who served on a teaching team: (1) the size of the professional and clerical media staff; (2) the attitude of administrators toward the role of the media staff; and (3) the media specialist's perceptions of what his or her instructional function should be. Aaron perceived the instructional role as consisting of the following elements: (1) helping teachers locate or design and utilize the wide range of learning resources; (2) helping teachers analyze and categorize materials and activities according to instructional unit objectives; (3) assisting teachers to decide which learning materials must be locally produced; (4) giving consultative and technical assistance to students engaged in the design and creation of materials in all formats; and (5) helping teachers to systematically organize and schedule media-based learning activities. The successful fulfillment of these activities was based upon the three previously noted factors.[117] As the decade progressed, the literature was characterized by a plethora of scholarly articles which no longer recommended that the instructional role of the media specialist be active. They instead discussed various factors which affected the further development of the education role. Grazier, for example, discussed the relationship of three factors which were critical to the role of the media specialist in curriculum development: (1) the point of

entry and exit of the media specialist in curriculum development; (2) the perceived role of the media specialist by the teacher, administrator, and media specialist; and (3) the competencies the media specialist brought to the task.[118] To illustrate how the existing and potential functions of media specialists in curriculum development related closely to the perceptions of such roles held by teachers, administrators, and the media specialists themselves, Grazier provided the main characteristics of the old and new instructional roles. She contrasted the instructional role under which the librarian operated in the sixties with the new role being recommended in the seventies. Grazier defined the "traditional" media specialist as one who offered "story telling, book talks, recreational reading, viewing or listening." Librarians taught library skills, supervised classes when teachers needed planning periods, and provided resources for students pursuing independent study. In the seventies role, the media specialist was an integral part of the teaching and learning function and one who used a variety of strategies to instruct students to locate and evaluate resources. They assisted in the design of instructional strategies and offered in-service programs to help teachers produce and use materials.[119]

By the late seventies, most articles and books focused upon the concept of instructional design and the librarians' role in it. It had been ten years since the term had been employed as an instructional function of the media specialist by the Department of Audiovisual Instruction in 1967. In 1978, a study in librarianship published by the Catholic Library Association stated that to establish a relationship of the library to instructional systems, librarians needed to "participate with other professional personnel in designing educational programs for different objectives, grade levels, curriculum areas, modes (large-group, small-group and independent study), and environments (learning stations, media centers, classrooms, auditoriums, the community)."[120] The following year Chisholm and Ely published a primer on the subject. In it they described the role of the media specialist with regard to instructional design, and they provided a context for considering instructional design (ID) in relation to the school media program. Chisholm and Ely paid particular attention to the systematic selection of instructional strategies and media in their work. From a distillation of many other scholarly definitions they chose to define instructional design as "the process of selecting, planning and using instructional strategies and media based upon instructional objectives."[121] They further noted that the librarian had historically served as a resource person in the creation of new instructional designs and that their role had been "more or less passive."[122] Their views of the current status (late seventies) of ID described "media specialists serving on design teams as proactive persons who not only recommended resources but also recom-

mended teaching procedures and evaluation approaches. In some cases the library media professional initiated the process."[123]

The publication of this book precipitated a controversy over the definition of the instructional role of the school media specialist. Some members of the profession placed the instructional responsibility of the librarian solely in the realm of ID while others subsumed the teaching function in a list of general responsibilities. That same year Vandergrift explored the issue in a book entitled *The Teaching Role of the School-Media Specialist.* She defined the school media specialist as a teacher, and she differentiated between the terms *teaching* and *instruction*. The act of teaching was defined as "creating environments in which students will be confronted with knowledge and ideas and presented with various opportunities to achieve in instructional performances."[124] The act of instruction was defined as "the more efficient means to help students arrive at specific behavioral objectives."[125] Instruction did not assume the need for human interaction as did teaching. Vandergrift believed that these distinctions were necessary to the further evolution of the librarian's instructional role. An overdependence upon instructional technology to achieve the tasks of a librarian was to be guarded against. Teaching was to be considered a necessary educational role and not an indulgence as it was by instructional design proponents.[126] By the close of the decade, librarians had become involved for the first time in an identity crisis concerning their instructional role. Still, within 30 years, they had evolved from passive, occasional suppliers of books to certified professionals whose instructional role, while imprecisely defined, caused them to become engaged in active collaboration with students, teachers, and the curriculum.

The research studies conducted during this period did not indicate that such a dichotomy between the terms *teaching* and *instruction* was occurring. They did occasionally indicate that a disparity existed between the perceived instructional role of the librarian and the actual role. Some also revealed that the perceptions of media specialists were quite different from those held by teachers and administrators. The first study, conducted by Lacock asked representatives from each of the earlier groups questions regarding the abilities a media specialist should possess in production, consultation, utilization, instructional design, and development. In this study both teachers and librarians agreed that the media specialist's role should include involvement in instructional design, development, and consultation, and teachers acknowledged their acceptance of such functions.[127] In that same year, however, Larsen conducted a study of secondary school principles and media specialists in Utah and concluded that the principal and media specialist often disagreed about the appropriate role

for the media specialist.[128] A similar study performed by Loertscher in Indiana high schools compared the opinions of teachers regarding instructional services they received with the opinions of the librarians regarding the services they offered. Loertscher identified and evaluated eight categories of services which included instructional design, utilization, and evaluation, and he found that the media specialist had not yet assumed a partnership role with teachers in the instructional program of the school. Media specialists preferred and implemented the traditional services of acquisition, accessibility, awareness, and distribution rather than the ones espoused in the literature.[129] These results indicated that many librarians still practiced a form of librarianship reminiscent of the early sixties rather than the one described in the 1969 AASL standards.

In 1973 Aaron developed and tested a model which assigned the librarian an active instructional development role on the school's teaching team. In the model she provided strategies for: (1) the analysis and formulation of learner tasks; (2) the design of instructional systems; and (3) the implementation and quality control of the system.[130] Her recommendations, which were based upon a concensus of panelists concerning the model, included plans for further study in which media specialists were to experience their enlarged role within the school.[131]

In the Fall of 1973, Alabama A and M University Normal, School of Library Media surveyed 456 secondary school media specialists in the Southeastern United States concerning their perceptions of their roles and functions. The findings indicated that the function and use of the media center had improved with the media specialist being more fundamentally and actively involved in the development of the school program.[132] Daniel's study, however, somewhat contradicted this conclusion. After conducting a survey of 138 public schools in the state of Maryland, Daniel concluded that the roles of the library and librarian were marginal in the schools. She found no support for the librarian's role as teacher except for the provision of informational skills. Within the area of curriculum planning, all three groups (librarians, teachers, and administrators) emphatically rejected library responsibility for this function.[133]

Cantor, in a similar study conducted in senior high schools in Westchester County, New York, found that media specialists had significantly different expectations for themselves regarding team teaching functions, assisting teachers to integrate media into the curriculum, providing instruction in the use of the media center, helping teachers to plan learning activities, and participating in curriculum development and revision. Teachers and administrators did not perceive librarians as participating in instructional

development and design, nor did they feel the need to avail themselves of these particular services.[134] That same year, Johnson attempted to identify the factors which affected teacher utilization of the library and found that teachers perceived no need for it. The greatest use of the librarian involved the selection of materials and the preparation of bibliographies, both of which were being performed by librarians two decades earlier.[135]

Kerr's study took a different approach and attempted to determine the psychological and sociological characteristics which were necessary for an acceptance of the changing instructional role of the librarian. Using an exchange resource theory as the study's framework, Kerr surveyed 450 teachers, administrators, and LRSs (Learning Resource Specialists) to determine what might have social exchange value --career mobility, professionalism, cosmopolitanism, and role-taking ability (empathy). He found that the most accepted role concerned the provision of informational services. At the high school level, administrators were more interested in having the LRS engage in instructional development than were the LRSs themselves. Of the sociological components, role-taking ability was considered to be a significant variable associated with teacher acceptance of the changing role of the LRS.[136] In 1976, Pfister and Alexander made findings similar to those ascertained in the Daniel's study when they examined the differences between actual and ideal roles of school librarians in selected Texas schools. Based on a survey analysis, Pfister and Alexander concluded that librarians, teachers, and administrators all perceived the gap between the actual and ideal condition and that the role of the school librarian in instructional development was still marginal.[137] In an analogous study of secondary school library media specialists in Alabama, Bucher queried superintendents, principals, teachers, and media specialists regarding the librarian's function. Although there were no significant differences between role expectations held by the four groups, there were significant differences between role expectations held by teachers and media specialists and between those held by superintendents and teachers regarding the librarian's role as a clerk.[138]

From 1977 through 1979 several studies were published which continued to reinforce the fact that librarians were not practicing the new instructional role prescribed for them in the literature. In an investigation which surveyed the growth of school library media programs in Georgia from 1965 to 1975, Jones found that there was agreement between the instructional role perceptions of principals and librarians but significant differences between librarians, teachers, and students. All agreed, however, that making information available was of primary importance.[139] Rosenberg's study, which collected survey data from a sample population of media

specialists and principals, achieved dissimilar results. Principals had not accepted the changed instructional role of the school librarian.[140]

In 1978 Burnell surveyed 200 high school principals at random in Iowa to assess their perceptions of the instructional role of the high school media specialist. Her findings indicated that administrators discerned a difference between actual and ideal performance. Their expectations were that librarians should participate as members of the educational team and that a resolution of the gap between actuality and theory needed to be made.[141] Teagarden's research concluded that even though school librarians desired to be involved in curriculum decision-making, they were in fact minimally involved.[142] Corr's interviews at a number of selected small high schools in Oregon echoed previous research findings. The librarians were not typically involved in curricular decisions, yet all groups indicated that they should increase their involvement.[143] During the same year, Mohajerin and Smith selected seven functions, two of which (teaching and curriculum planning) described an instructional role for the school media specialist. Their questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 380 librarians, administrators, teachers, and media educators in a ten-district consortium of schools in eastern Alabama. Mohajerin and Smith found that as programs of media education evolved in institutions of higher education, expectations rose for a larger instructional role for the media specialist and that the distance widened between the perceptions of media educators and practicing media specialists.[144]

In 1979 Willis conducted a study which focused upon the knowledge and practices of selected high school teachers and media specialists in instructional design and in the employment of audiovisual materials. Her conclusions recognized that (1) teachers and media specialists lacked information about instructional design; (2) the selection of an appropriate medium in execution of daily lessons was considered to be unnecessary by teachers; (3) librarians continued to serve as providers of materials and were not involved in instructional design and media utilization; and (4) teachers did not desire media utilization assistance.[145]

The research studies and literature published during this period indicated "an almost obsessive concern by school librarians to prove their instructional worth as teachers."[146] They had a desire to succeed at achieving educational ideas.[147] Nonetheless, a question remains whether the majority of school librarians succeeded in assuming an active, instructional role in the curriculum. Although some of the studies did discern a more active role with respect to the providing of materials and the satisfying of the informational needs of students and teachers, the majority found that

practitioners were still only marginally involved in the programs of the school and were practicing an instructional role more characteristic of the mid-sixties. While many school librarians were clearly ahead of teachers and administrators with regard to their expanded role expectations, their achievements generally trailed their theoretical contemplations. All of the studies acknowledged an expanded role for the librarian but only as reflected in the library literature.

Two other types of publications influenced the evolving instructional role of the librarian during this period. The first type consisted of guidelines and reports issued by state or national agencies. The second type concerned an AASL set of standards which were published in 1975. Both forms of publications complemented the published research and literature and assisted in raising the instructional goals of the period.

In 1971, *School for the Seventies* emphasized the movement toward the "flexible classroom." The published recommendations of the seminar indicated that curriculum was the single most important part of the instructional program and that new applications of existing curricular methods were needed. Accompanying this pronouncement were descriptions of team teaching, differentiated staffing, individually prescribed and programmed instruction, plus modular or flexible scheduling.[148] As chaotic and disorganized as these approaches sometimes were, they helped to break the bonds formed by the single textbook classroom approach which dominated education during the early fifties and sixties. The changed methods of instruction recommended in this seminar stimulated the appropriate instructional response from many librarians as was evidenced by a review of the literature. Many, however, possibly because of the problems associated with the perceptions of teachers, students, and administrators, did not change their instructional role as was evidenced by the numerous research findings

Two years later, Phase II of the *School Library Manpower Project* was completed and the results were published in the form of a *Behavioral Requirements Analysis Checklist* (BRAC). Based upon the experimental school library programs conducted by six institutions funded in Phase II of the School Library Manpower Project, the checklist identified approximately 700 tasks to be performed by the school library media specialist. Although its list of functions, when viewed in its entirety, was overwhelming, BRAC represented the "first attempt to anticipate, and in some instances conceptualize, the functions and tasks of school media specialists...."[149] They provided a sanctioned definition of the instructional role of the school librarian.

In addition to the recommendations and definitions stated in agency reports, quantitative data were still useful for furnishing evidence regarding the need for change. In 1974 the National Center for Educational Statistics surveyed a nationally representative sample of public school media centers. The findings revealed shortages in collections, acquisitions, professional and support staff, and operating expenditures.[150] The negative aspects of the study were subsequently used to stimulate a response from state and local departments of education and helped to focus attention on the need for a new instructional role for the school media specialist.[151] As guidelines, reports, and recommendations were published concerning the instructional role of the school librarian it became apparent to AASL that the 1969 *Standards for School Media Programs* did not discuss sufficiently the manner in which librarians were to: (1) serve as instructional resource consultants and media specialists; (2) work with teachers in curriculum planning; (3) work with teachers to design instructional experiences; and (4) serve on teaching teams.[152]

AASL responded to the problem by publishing a new set of standards entitled *Media Programs District and School.* The activities of the media program were considered "in light of four programs," two of which directly pertained to the instructional role of the school media specialist.[153] The first function—design—advised media specialists to "initiate and participate in curriculum development and implementation; design in-service education; develop materials for self-instructional use by learners for specified objectives; and determine the effectiveness or validity of instructional materials and sequences." The second function—consultation—encouraged media specialists to "recommend media applications to accomplish specific instructional purposes; serve as instructional resource consultants and materials specialists and develop user understanding of the strengths and limitations of various presentation forms."[154] The new set of standards served to elevate the instructional role of the media specialist, and it delineated the requirements for that role. By the mid-seventies librarians were provided with an official interpretation of the instructional role they were to play within the educational framework of the school.[155]

The last significant publication to emerge during the 1970s which influenced the instructional role of the school librarian was AASL's *Certification Model for Professional Media Personnel.* Based upon the tasks set forth in BRAC, this guide established a set of seven major competencies in which media specialists needed to demonstrate proficiency depending upon the level of the position they were seeking. Of the seven designated areas of competency, three directly related to the instructional role. Dem-

onstrated ability was required in.. "(1) relation of media to instructional systems; (2) utilization of media and (3) production of media."[156] To bolster these three general areas, specific behavioral objectives were described which left no doubt regarding the instructional role expected of school librarians.

By the end of the seventies the school media specialist's instructional role had evolved in the literature to one of prominence. The research studies, however, demonstrated a fairly consistent pattern indicating that the evolution may have occurred on paper only. The controversy over the terms *teaching v. instructional design* were rendered moot by the empirical evidence documenting the fact that librarians were still confronting the more basic questions surrounding the structuring of an educational role in a setting which in many instances had not evolved from the methods and curriculum practiced in the 1950s.

THE EIGHTIES

Although the changes which took place from 1980 to 1984 in education cannot be placed in a decade framework, a set of new issues—which were products of the earlier decades—typified the period. During the latter half of the seventies it was expected that more education for more people would solve a multitude of socioeconomic problems.[157] By the beginning of the 1980s, however, many people doubted the school's capacity to contribute to these democratic ideals.[158] In 1974, for example, 18% of those asked in a Gallup poll to grade their schools gave them an "A," while 6% gave them a "D." Eight years later, only 8% were willing to give the schools an "A," while those believing the schools deserved a "D" had more than doubled to 14%.[159] Accompanying the public loss of confidence in the schools was a decline in the "coalition of legislators, educators, parents, and others that held the system together and expanded it." The educating functions which were traditionally performed by the home, school, and church changed.[160]

From 1960 until the mid-1980s, the number of children affected by divorces doubled. Approximately one out of five families is currently maintained by a woman who is either divorced, separated, widowed, or never married. Two-thirds of these mothers work.[161] Although declining enrollment had been a factor in the late seventies, by 1980 it became a fiscal reality. Tax revolts began reflecting not only parents' growing disillusionment with schools but also the feelings of people whose children no longer attended.[162] As education attempted to respond to these major socioeconomic changes, it was confronted with major technological advances. The

rapid development of computer technology had a tremendous impact. A survey conducted by Market Data Retrieval in 1982 found that 8,943 out of 15,314 school districts were using microcomputers in some manner. This reflected a 39% increase over 1981.[163]

While schools valiantly endeavored to maintain themselves within this mercurial environment, educational issues evolved around themes such as "racial equality, the use and abuse of educational technologies, methods used to deal with individual differences in a society becoming increasingly pluralistic, and religion or moral values in education."[164] The approach adopted by many schools to deal with these challenges reflected a swing from the "permissive, open, child-centered education to a return to basics and teacher-centered learning."[165] Education became "acutely self-conscious of what it was trying to do."[166] Efforts were undertaken to tighten standards and inform high school students of what was expected of them.[167] A resulting agenda began to form for a reconstruction of schools based upon the gap created by parents' expectations and perceptions.[168]

Since school librarians functioned within the context of this educational system, they became subject to the same social, economic, and political factors which shaped the school.[169] Therefore, any further development of the school media specialist's instructional role had to be viewed from the perspective of the previously described events. A review of the literature for the period 1980 through 1984 revealed that, despite financial cutbacks, school librarians continued to forge ahead by publishing a host of books and articles which further defined their instructional role. Monographs such as *The Library Specialist in Curriculum Development,*[170] *The Library Media Program and the School,*[171] and *The School Librarian as Educator*[172] provided practitioners with a philosophical base for their instructional role and pragmatic examples for implementing it.

In 1980, Biggs wrote a proposal for course-related library instruction which entailed the use of undergraduate reference materials at the high school level.[173] A year later a sophisticated model was published by Johnson which focused on the librarian's role in instructional design. Using a three stage approach, Johnson structured his model upon: (1) a needs assessment involving the setting, resources, and curriculum requirements; (2) the development of intended outcomes based upon performance objectives and instructional activities; and (3) an evaluation of the project encompassing a field test and summary evaluation.[174] In 1982, *Wilson Library Bulletin* dedicated an issue to examining the "school library media center's revolutionary past and future."[175] Termed the "second revolution," instructional development was defined as a systematic process of

designing teaching units for students by a team of professionals which included a teacher and a librarian knowledgeable in instructional technology. It was viewed as a natural extension of the role of the media specialist. Although the terms and process were not new to the 1980s, this article advanced instructional development by producing a well-formulated taxonomy. Consisting of 11 successful levels of involvement, an interested librarian could simply check the concepts and activities assumed for each level and determine their current status vis-à-vis instructional development, or employ it to decide their next level of aspiration. A third article in the series focused upon examples of varying taxonomic levels which were taking place in different parts of the country.[176] In a discussion of future implications, Stroud stressed that this approach would provide media specialists with more comprehensive and valid evaluation procedures than presently existed.[177]

Although it is evident that instructional design as a new educational role was based on a firm instructional footing, proselytizing articles (especially those by media educators)—continued to appear during this period. In 1983 Turner and Naumer provided a guide to instructional-design consultation which possessed four levels. In the active level, the media specialist was featured as a full member of the instructional-design team. At the reactive level, a faculty member was expected to instigate a request for design involvement and the media specialist was to respond. Level three consisted of passive participation in design in which the media specialist was to serve as a selector of materials for use by the faculty. Level four did not involve the media specialist at any point in the design process.[178] While these levels are described in their simplest form, they did represent a graduated level of involvement in recognition of the fact that the ideal was considered "unrealistic" for many librarians to achieve.[179] Cleaver also noted a dichotomy between the actual role of the school librarian and the one proposed by the profession in publications. Citing research findings from the sixties and seventies which supported her observation, Cleaver recommended that the instructional role of the librarian be expanded more slowly in a planned series of steps.[180]

While the instructional role of the school librarian from 1980 to 1984 could be characterized as a period of adjustment concerning the implementation of instructional design activities, the introduction of computers confronted librarians with a new set of problems. By 1983 librarians were attempting to define their instructional role with respect to this new technology in the literature.[181] As was the case with the introduction of audiovisual materials in the 1950s, most of the recommendations placed the media specialist in the role of supplier and passive resource consultant.

The tentative exploration of a new instructional role was described hesitantly as if librarians were "too overworked and busy" to consider a more active instructional role.[182] Finally, in 1984, Troutner devoted a substantial portion of her book to the instructional uses of the computer. From her perspective the media specialist was expected to perform an active role to help design teaching units which integrated the computer into the curriculum.[183]

An analysis of the books and articles published during this short period depicts librarians who had a realization that they must retain an active instructional role with teachers and students while simultaneously adding yet another educational dimension to their role. There is evidence that more systematic approaches were being followed for instruction and that librarians were being urged to consider their educational role within the framework of the total program.

A review of research studies conducted during the early 1980s resulted in the finding of three major studies relating to the media specialist's instructional role. In 1981, Staples published the results of a statewide Texas survey involving 224 practitioners. Her study sought to determine answers to three questions: (1) What skills do learning resource specialists believe are most important for effective job performance in the present era when their roles are expanding tremendously? (2) How do they rate their ability to perform these skills? and (3) Where do they see a need for continuing education?"[184] Using a list of 60 competency statements summarized under four function levels—(1) organization and management; (2) acquisition and dissemination; (3) consultation, utilization, and instruction; and (4) learning resources development—Staples discovered that librarians placed more importance upon functions 1 and 2 than 3 and 4. Respondents also rated themselves as having a significantly lower level of expertise with respect to the function 3 and 4 competencies. These findings confirmed some of the results discovered in studies undertaken during the 1970s which had indicated that librarians were not as interested in the instructional function as much as administrative management.

Turner's 1982 study investigated the extent to which students in the master's-level school media program were provided with instructional design competencies. Using a questionnaire which isolated thirteen instructional-design competencies, Turner surveyed all accredited library programs in the United States. His findings indicated that schools tended to adopt instructional design as a unitary innovation. A substantial number of programs were discovered to require none. His conclusions suggested that as new faculty were employed and revised certification

implemented, more innovative competencies would be incorporated into required course sequences.[185]

In 1983, a study by Royal used the survey method to question 235 library practitioners in the states of Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma to ascertain whether school library media specialists were really changing with regard to instructional design. Members of the survey group consisted of librarians who possessed nonprovisional certification resulting from library work at either the undergraduate or graduate level.[186] Using a list of 21 competencies, Royal asked the subjects to indicate whether (1) they had performed the function, or (2) had supervised it. Of the 20 competencies, the only ones performed to a significant degree by media specialists involved the selection of appropriate media for learning activities and the establishment of efficient schedules to ensure the distribution of resources. Respondents did not indicate to a substantial degree that they performed any instructional design competencies. Another part of the questionnaire asked media specialists to place a value on each competency vis-à-vis their job. Media specialists perceived the instructional competencies to be valuable even if they did not practice them.[187] Part II of the study identified perceived instructional design competencies and sought to determine where these skills had been acquired. For those found to be taught in school library media programs, additional information was solicited regarding the types of coursework and methods used. Royal's findings regarding the second division of the study indicated that few instructional-design competencies were acquired by practitioners from school library media programs. Most of the competencies were learned during actual practice. Of those competencies learned in library school, however, almost half were taught in the required courses. Royal's data provided evidence that a large number of instructional design competencies were conveyed as information. Consequently, few of the subjects perceived their ability to perform instructional design tasks at more than a medium/high level. As a solution to the problem, Royal recommended that more research be conducted to demonstrate the integration of instructional design into the curriculum and to determine where librarians could learn these skills.[188] The conclusions drawn from the previous studies implied that instructional design, while introduced as an officially sanctioned activity by the 1975 AASL's standards, was far from a practiced reality as late as 1984. The gap which persisted between the initiation and acceptance of an idea continued to exist.

The guides and reports issued during this period served to alert educators and the public to the plight of education in general, but none referred to the school library specifically. In 1981, the Ontario Department of Educa-

tion published a guide which provided a thorough program for fully integrating the library into the rest of the curriculum. The roles of principal, teacher, student, and librarian were precisely delineated and no doubt remained concerning the active instructional role the librarian was supposed to perform with respect to planning and developing activities.[189] In April 1983, however, a devastating report entitled *A Nation At Risk* was issued which attempted to warn Americans that "our once unchallenged preeminence was being overtaken by competitors throughout the world."[190] Charging that educators had lost sight of their basic purpose, the report cited evidence such as the decline in test scores and science achievement, lower achievement scores in comparison with other countries, and a possible 40% functional illiteracy rate.[191] The report recommended that schools establish a foundation of five basics which would include: (1) four years of English; (2) three years of mathematics; (3) three years of science; (4) three years of social studies; and (5) one-half year of computer science.[192] Although this report did not specifically refer to libraries, the severity of the problems noted brought numerous responses from practitioners, library educators, and related ALA organizations which served to renew the idea that change should occur. The following year the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching issued a similar report on American high schools based upon an in-depth study of 15 high schools in various geographic locations. Their recommendations—among others—suggested that the time had come to establish a core curriculum and to improve instruction in the schools.[193] Within the area of instruction, Boyer noted that the textbook-centered approach should be discouraged and that the "classroom use of primary source material be expanded."[194] With regard to the advances and uses of technology, he recommended that computer resources be related to their educational objectives.[195] While both reports neglected to cite the library per se, there was no doubt that their publication instigated a more thorough examination of the role of the library within the overall school framework.

During 1980-1984, no new standards were issued by AASL although articles did endeavor to place existing standards in an appropriate perspective. Jones observed that the previously enunciated standards reflected the climate of the times and the perceptions of their formulators. With respect to 1984 and beyond, she noted the necessity of using research to develop new standards, and she urged that technological innovations such as the microcomputer be studied to help determine that instructional role in media centers.[196] Hannigan observed that the librarian's teaching role had never been seriously addressed in any standards and indicated that specific areas of competency should be identified in the future as being within the sole

instructional domain of the media specialist.[197] In an acknowledgment to the advances of technology, Hannigan also recommended consideration of the role that the computer could be expected to play with regard to future instruction.

CONCLUSION

In attempting to determine whether the changes in the instructional role of the school librarian from 1951 to 1984 were (1) factual or fictional; (2) substantive or semantical; (3) evolutionary or stationary; and/or (4) practiced or ignored, three forms of literature were examined. The first consisted of publications by leading educators and practitioners in the field. In all four decades these were characterized by their precocity. They usually did not reflect the times so much as advance them. They had a conversion effect upon the second source of material examined—standards, reports, and guidelines—which sought to reinforce the literature and recommend the highest level of achievement to school librarians. Although these sources provided a substantial body of reading which included no realistic means of verification, they created the distinct impression that changes were occurring at a rapid rate. A study of the third source of material—research studies—indicated a clear pattern of disagreement between the contemporary literature, standards, and actual practice. In some cases research findings indicated a time lag of ten years between the actual instructional role of the librarian and the one espoused in the literature.

Given the disparity between sources, questions arise pertaining to the degree of actual instructional role change. Admittedly, from 1951 to 1984, evolution occurred. Librarians evolved from providing occasional library instruction to teaching course-integrated units. They appeared to assume a more active instructional role with regard to consultation. Studies indicated that they did supply resources for specially designed curriculum units. As for instructional design which has provided the educational model for the eighties, there is little evidence to suggest that this new role has been accepted and is being practiced by the majority of librarians despite the numerous books and articles which have discussed it.

Some of the changes over the 34-year period can certainly be termed substantive. There is no doubt that librarians in most media centers have assumed a definite educational role. Can the changes which occurred in approximately 30 years be termed evolutionary? On paper, yes. A clear pattern of progressive development of the instructional role has persisted in the literature and in the standards. In actual practice, however, the

answer would have to be principally, no. Was the instructional role altered as a consequence of the changes in education and society? This answer requires equivocation. In the case of the late fifties and early sixties, the instructional role visualized by practitioners and the standards preceded those being recommended by education specialists. As time passed, however, the instructional role seemed to evolve into more of a reaction to educational changes brought about by technological advances.

It is evident from the uncertain replies given to these questions that no composite instructional role of the school librarian has emerged. Since 1951 school librarians have had a substantial number of professional and clerical demands placed upon them which may have influenced the rate of growth and development of their instructional role. Although numerous publications have been issued pertaining to instructional design, Royal's studies, for example, indicate that there have been few opportunities for librarians to receive training in this new skill in either an academic or continuing education setting. What did surface was the tremendous amount of change that occurred in education and society during this period and the attempts of a profession to cope with it in a unified fashion. The different instructional roles defined for school media specialists from 1951 to 1984 did not imply any significant attempt to overcome an "unfavorable stereotype or provide a more comforting self image."[198] These seemed to be a sincere attempt by library educators and practitioners to awaken their members to a new set of needs necessitated by changed circumstances.

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