ED 318 457   IR 014 372

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TITLE   The Teacher-Librarian as Instructional Developer.
PUB DATE   86
NOTE   28p.; For related papers, see IR 014 370-371.
PUB TYPE   Viewpoints (120)

EDRS PRICE   MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS   Consultants; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign
                Countries; *Individualized Instruction;
                *Instructional Development; *Interpersonal
                Competence; Library Role; *Media Specialists;
                Metacognition; *Professional Education; *Resource
                Teachers
IDENTIFIERS   Canada; Newfoundland; *Teacher Librarians

ABSTRACT
                The implication of an ever-increasing knowledge base
is that students will need to know how to select, evaluate, and
utilize information. In response, a resource-based approach to
learning which emphasizes learning how to learn has been recommended
in curriculum guides in Newfoundland from kindergarten through the
final year of secondary school, requiring teachers to use resources
beyond textbooks in order to provide a variety of individualized
learning experiences to students with very different needs. It is
unrealistic to expect classroom teachers to meet all of the demands
of the new curriculum without support. An expanded role for
teacher-librarians is envisioned that will necessitate significant
revision of teacher-librarian training programs. Educational
technology must be an essential part of the academic training if
teacher-librarians are to successfully assume their new roles as
collaborative consultants and provide the support required by
classroom teachers. Among the new competencies for the position are:
(1) curriculum planning, implementation, and evaluation; (2) analysis
of materials in terms of their ability to achieve instructional
objectives; (3) conceptualization and design of media to achieve
objectives; (4) human relations and group dynamics skills; and (5)
the ability to assume the teacher's frame of reference. (28
references) (GL)

The Teacher-Librarian as Instructional Developer

by

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The Teacher-Librarian as Instructional Developer

Introduction

Across the country there is no doubt that curriculum planners are concerned about what we should be teaching to prepare our students for the future. A look at documents from several Canadian provinces indicate the concerns that educators have. Fuel for Change is a British Columbia document, produced by the British Columbia Teacher-Librarians' Federation, and it begins: "Our world is changing at an incredible rate. Terms like "future shock" or "information explosion" have become a part of our everyday language and life" (p. 1). It further states:

> Between 6,000 and 7,000 scientific articles are written each day. Scientific and technical information now increases 13%, which means it doubles every 5.5 years. But the new rate will soon jump to perhaps 40% every year because of new, more powerful information systems and an increasing population of scientists. That means that data will double every twenty months. (John Naisbitt, Megatrends, cited in Fuel for Change, p. 1).

It goes on to point out that 30 billion new documents are produced each year in the United States alone, that 12 reading years would be required to cover but one-tenth of one percent of the available information on any given field of science or technology. In such a society, what do we teach our students? Fuel for Change suggests:

> Learning never ends -- life is not simple. The number of all
> things we modern people would have to know in order really

to understand what goes on around us has increased more rapidly than the number of things we do know. (Royal Bank of Canada Monthly Letter, cited in Fuel for Change, p. 2).

These concerns are expressed across the country. An Alberta document, Focus on Learning, published by Alberta Education, begins with a description of the world Canadian students have to face:

These students live in a world fueled by change. A world of science-fiction predictions come true and catch-phrase realities. Mediums have become messages. The world, a global village, with the haunting face of Third World famine juxtaposed alongside the banalities of television situation comedies. Future shock jolts us daily as the technology of our information society races ahead of knowledge and wisdom (p. 1).

The world that today's students face has compact laserdiscs that contain the entire text of all volumes of the Encyclopædia Britannica, and microcomputers in a large number of homes. Focus on Learning asks the question that is being asked all over this country: What implications do these facts have for education in general, for the schools in particular, and, most importantly, for the student?

The most obvious implication is that students will need to know how to access information that is bombarding them; they must learn how to select, evaluate, and utilize that information. This means that textbooks may be an important resource, but only one of many. Because of this, across the curriculum, there is an emphasis by curriculum planners on what is known as resource-based learning.

Partners in Action, a document published by the Ontario Ministry of Education in 1982, provides what has become a widely accepted definition of this approach:

> Resource-based learning refers to planned educational programs that actively involve students in the meaningful use of a wide range of appropriate print, non-print, and human resources. Such programs are designed to provide students with alternative learning activities; the selection of activities, and learning resources, the location of the activities and the expectations for a particular student depend on the objectives established for that student (p. 6).

Fullan (1982), in tracing the sources of curriculum reform in Canada, noted that curriculum guides and programs were similar in all provinces. The examples that are used in this paper are taken from the Newfoundland prescribed curriculum, which I believe is similar to the approach taken in the other provinces as well.

The Curriculum

In Newfoundland the resource-based approach is being recommended in curriculum guides from kindergarten to the final year of high school. Teachers are being asked to formulate objectives based on the approved provincial curriculum and the learning needs and styles of individual students. Teachers are expected to use prescribed textbooks, but they are also expected to use other resources (print and non-print) as they provide a variety of learning experiences for the mastery of the objectives. Major understandings in the curriculum

are developed as students move from the known to the unknown, from the home and local community to the provincial, national, and then world community. Rather than learn about their community and culture, teachers are being asked to design learning experiences so that students will experience things directly whenever possible. Emphasis is placed on the process of learning, on learning how to learn. Because the provincial curriculum is so content heavy, teachers are encouraged to integrate across the curriculum when possible and to use themes that will organize the content, motivate students, and provide opportunities for an interdisciplinary approach.

There are numerous examples from curriculum guides and course descriptions which support this interpretation of the current expectations for teachers.

The following quotes illustrate how this approach applies to all grade levels across the curriculum:

> The individual differences of children must be accepted by the primary teacher. To expect children to be the same or to make equal progress is unreasonable. Progress should be viewed in individual gains over time. Children should be motivated to perform at a level commensurate with their capabilities ... (Newfoundland, The Primary Curriculum Guide, Draft edition, p. 6).

> Concrete and sensory experiences are necessary and valuable in concept attainment; however, to give meaning and depth to concepts, instruction must offer vicarious experiences (books, films, maps, discussion, etc.) to take children far

beyond the objects and events they experience directly ...

(Newfoundland, The Design for Social Studies K-VI in New-foundland and Labrador, p. 23).

All concepts in mathematics should be embedded in the concrete mode for meaningful learning (Newfoundland, The Elementary Mathematics Curriculum Guidelines, Draft edition, p. 5).

The Province of Newfoundland and Labrador has commissioned a Department of Education committee to study the junior high school. The second interim report (September, 1985, p. 28) notes that although the cognitive level of the junior high school student will move from concrete to formal operations, "all programs must provide for concrete examples and studies." It further states curriculum must be based in the concrete with expeditions into the abstract" (p. 33). At the senior high school level, when students ordinarily have reached the stage of formal thought, The Master Guide for Social Studies, K-XII in Newfoundland and Labrador reminds teachers that "even at this stage of intellectual development, concrete and nearly concrete experiences are needed more often than we recognize, particularly when the subject matter being learned is substantially different from previous learnings" (p. 39).

Across the curriculum, at all levels, teachers are being asked to have students interview, photograph, make videos, collect artifacts. Resources of all kinds are needed if teachers are to implement the programs that have been authorized by the provincial Department of Education. With an increased emphasis on resources, there is a

recognition of the skills students need. In Language Arts these skills are referred to as process skills and include: skimming materials to find main ideas, using the Table of Contents and Indexes to locate information, distinguishing fact from opinion, orientation to the library, classifying and synthesizing information. The Nelson program Networks, used in grades four, five and six in Newfoundland, promotes the use of the COPE system, an anacroym that means Collect, Organize, Present, and Evaluate. In Social Studies, the same skills are referred to as thinking skills. In some schools in this country, students are still taught skills in total isolation from their classroom work. These library skills are often repetition of the skills in the other subject areas. To avoid repetition and to make the teaching of these skills meaningful, systematic, and effective, it is recommended that all learning skills be integrated into a learning skills continuum. Such a continuum identifies the process skills students need, and specifies at which grade levels the skills are to be introduced, mastered, and maintained. One of the better skills continuums in Canada has been produced by the Saskatoon Board of Education.

Needs of Teachers

If classroom teachers are to implement these types of programs, it is clear that they will need a strong support system. With less emphasis on a single text and more emphasis on an individualized approach, classroom teachers are expected to develop learning experiences based on each student's abilities, interests, and needs. As Branscombe and Newson state in Resource Services for Canadian Schools (1977):

Good teaching is recognized as the successful matching of

individual learners of varied abilities with experiences

most likely to effect in them desired changes in thinking

and behaviour.   Learning has replaced teaching as the

centre of instructional planning.   Planning and directing

learning experiences are now central to the teaching role

(p. 1).

To meet the demands of the curriculum and the learners, teachers

know that they are expected to select from a wide range of learning

resources and learning activities.   Most schools have access to a

wide assortment.   In some schools, teachers are being pressured to

use technological innovations by parents who want to ensure that

their children are not left behind.   An excellent example of this

type of pressure is the thrust to get microcomputers in the schools.

In Newfoundland, and probably across the country, zealous Parent

Teacher Associations raise money and put microcomputers in schools

where neither the principal nor the teachers know what to do with them.

It is the position of this paper that it is unreasonable to

expect classroom teachers to meet all of these demands on their own.

If teachers are to implement the curriculum that they have been given,

they must have a strong support system. Branscombe and Newson (1977)

expressed very clearly what is wrong and what is needed:

To expect a classroom teacher to implement an individualized

curriculum on his own is to expect the impossible.   Every

teacher requires the help of a teaching associate, namely a

learning resource teacher.   The latter, an experienced and

creative teacher with specialized knowledge of materials
and expertise in their use, collaborates with the classroom
teacher in the planning and implementation of learning
experiences for students (p. 11).

This means an expanded role for the teacher-librarian, and hence
has implications for the training of teacher-librarians.

The Role of the Teacher-Librarian

Standards for school library/media programs in Canada and the
United States, as well as provincial models produced in four Canadian
provinces, all agree that classroom teachers need support in implementing
the current curriculum, and that such support could best be provided
by a qualified teacher-librarian and a strong library/media program.
At the centre of these standards and models is the concept of cooperative
planning and implementation, with the classroom teacher and the
teacher-librarian working as partners in the instructional process.

Media Programs: District and School (1975), the most recent
American standards, perhaps state this view most coherently:

Those who would create better educational opportunities
must strive to develop comprehensive systems that meet the
needs of students of different abilities, backgrounds, and
interests, enabling them both to adjust to and influence
the changing society in which they live. Media programs
which reflect applications of educational technology,
communication theory, and library and information science
contribute at every level, offering essential processes,

functions, and resources to accomplish the purposes of the school (p. 1).

In describing the qualifications needed by the teacher-librarian (or media specialist in the American standards), they state:

The media specialist has broad professional preparation in education and media, has appropriate certification, and possesses the competencies to initiate and implement a media program. The media specialist holds a master's degree in media from a program that combines library and information science. educational communicatica and technology, and curriculum (p. 22).

In delineating the academic preparation required to develop these competencies, the first two areas mentioned are:

1) the role of education in society;

2) theories, principles, and methods of instructional technology (p. 22).

It is the second that the remainder of this paper will focus on, for the main point being made is that educational technology must be an essential part of the academic preparation of teacher-librarians if they are to provide the support so needed by classroom teachers.

It is worth noting that not only American standards are emphasizing the importance of competencies drawn from educational technology. The same emphasis is found in recent Canadian models and standards. Partners in Action (1982), identifies consultation as one of the most important roles of the teacher-librarian:

The teacher-librarian is involved in the identification of teaching and learning strategies, working with teachers and students in the selection, production, and evaluation of learning resources and serving as a consultant in planning effective learning activities (p. 12).

Focus on Learning (1985), the Alberta document, is in agreement with this perception of the role. The role of the teacher-librarian is described as follows:

The trained teacher-librarian brings to the educational field a unique understanding of the relationship of the information function of librarianship to teaching and the learning requirements of students. This is manifest in a full partnership with classroom teachers in planning, conducting and evaluating instruction. (The role of the teacher-librarian includes)... diagnosing, prescribing, implementing and evaluating instructional strategies, in cooperation with classroom teachers (p. 55-56).

Fuel for Change (1986), the British Columbia model, uses a quote from Lucy Ainsley to summarize the perception of the role of the teacher-librarian:

School library media specialists are first and foremost educators. We chose a specialized field within education and are teachers ... Thus, we must know a good deal about learning styles, instructional design, and sound teaching strategies as well as management of people and resources (p. 4).

Standards and models, then, concur that a knowledge of educational technology is essential in the preparation of teacher-librarians. Yet preparatory programs, whether located in Faculties of Education or Schools of Library Science provide little knowledge of educational technology. What are the implications for training?

The Instructional Role of the Teacher-Librarian

David Loertscher (1982) developed a taxonomy of school librarianship for the 1980s. His taxonomy combines the best components of the more traditional library service and the newer concept of instructional development, offering various levels of service to suit the individual needs of the school. The taxonomy has eleven distinct levels, which can be grouped as follows:

Level 1:   No involvement. The library resource centre is bypassed entirely.

Levels 2-5: Self-help storehouse; individual reference assistance; spur-of-the-moment gathering of materials and resources; cursory, informal planning; the teacher-librarian has a "bag of tricks" to share.

Levels 6-8: Planned gathering of materials; a concerted effort to promote resource-based instruction; scheduled planning in a support role - the supplying of resources for a unit previously planned by the teacher; a servant-master role, with the teacher-librarian as the servant.

Levels 9-11:   Instructional role; instructional design from a basic
                unit level to a curriculum determination level; cooperative
                planning of units; team teaching.   (pp. 417-421)

In functioning at levels nine to eleven, the teacher-librarian plays an essential leadership role in the delivery of the curriculum to the student. To do so the teacher librarian must (a) understand the concept of instructional role; (b) be versed in educational technology and instructional development; and (c) be able to do instructional development at least at the functional level.

It was not until the 1980s that the role of the teacher-librarian was referred to in terms of instructional development. Johnson (1981) published an instructional development model for teacher-librarians. A 1982 issue of Wilson Library Bulletin explored the past and future of the school library; in that issue instructional development was defined as a systematic process of designing teaching units by a team of professionals that included a teacher and a librarian knowledge-able in educational technology.

Although the term instructional development, and the process described by that term were nearly two decades old by the time the 1982 issue of Wilson Library Bulletin was published, Loertscher's article did much to advance the notion of the instructional development function in the role of the teacher-librarian. The further delineation of the instructional role has continued through the 1980s.

Research studies in the area of teacher-librarianship indicate a significant time lag between the role as described in the literature

and that practiced by the teacher-librarian. Aaron (1975) states: "The school library media specialist is not perceived in this instructional development role by principals and teachers, nor indeed himself. The school library media specialist must view the instructional role as a necessary function and must feel competent to perform it" (p. 201). There is, then, a need to understand clearly the concept of instructional development and how it can be applied in the role of the teacher-librarian.

Educational Technology and Instructional Development

To understand instructional development it is necessary to examine the background against which it emerged - that of educational technology. Educational technology means many different things to the many and diverse groups in education, and too often the role of technology has been clouded by a tendency to concentrate on technological products - the projectors, the video, the computers. Educational technologists have been viewed as the purchasers, producers, users, and deliverers of these products. This level of thinking about technology is what Robert Heinich referred to nearly twenty years ago as the product view, or technology in education (1970).

Those who profess to be educational technologists know that the product view is severely restrictive. Gillett (1973) defines technology as "the organization of knowledge for the achievement of practical purposes" (p. 2). This definition, a paraphrase of that offered by John Kenneth Galbraith, when applied to education becomes technology

as process - an approach to problem-solving, or, as Heinich (1970) states, a technology of education.

The technology of education view, in its application, has provided the conceptual framework for instructional development. Davies (1978a) in his description of educational technology, delineates two archetypes which encompass the activity known as instructional development: the engineering archetype and the problem-solving archetype.

The engineering archetype is reflected in the numerous instructional development models, which are exemplified by a series of boxes and arrows and a feed-back loop, indicating a step-by-step approach to instructional development activity (Davies, 1978a, p. 22). It is this type of instructional development, taught in most introductory or basic courses, which I refer to as functional instructional development. Students emerge from such courses able to follow, in generally a rigid manner, the process indicated by the boxes and arrows to design something.

The problem-solving archetype, according to Davies (1978a) can be thought of in terms of a chess game.

> Players engage in an intellectual activity for which there
> is no one set of appropriate moves. Intense concentration,
> ability to foresee future consequences of current actions,
> flexibility, and the skills of observation, analysis,
> synthesis, and evaluation are prerequisites to success (p.
> 22).

In the problem-solving archetype there is no one best means, and neither is there necessarily one best solution. Rather, everything

is dependent on the situation, and the skills and expertise available. This is conceptual instructional development.

At the functional level, the educational technologist is emphasizing the operational level of the field; the focus is on what the instructional developer does. Those few who, as teacher-librarians, are involved in instructional development are doing functional instructional development. At the conceptual level, the educational technologist is focussed not on what the instructional developer does, but on the how and why; the theories of learning and theories of instruction and their application to teaching and learning problems. It is essential, if the teacher-librarian is to move from a service role to a management role, that conceptual instructional development be part of the role.

The thrust in training of teacher-librarians, in terms of educational technology, has been the preparation of service personnel who may help teachers select and use media and resources effectively. This service thrust imposes limitations on the potential, and essential nature, of the role of the teacher-librarian. It implies that the teacher and the teacher-librarian become partners only at the classroom implementation stage of curriculum development (Heinich, 1970). It is an unequal partnership.

To progress to an instructional management role (Heinich, 1970), the teacher-librarian must be an instructional developer, functionally and conceptually. Heinich sees a move toward the union of curriculum and instruction, with the teacher-librarian as instructional developer at the centre.

Instructional Development Competencies

What are the competencies of the instructional developer? The AECT Task Force on Instructional Development Competencies worked over a four year period from 1978 to 1982 to develop a comprehensive list of core competencies. Stated in performance terms, they are now familiar to many: conduct needs assessments; assess learners; conduct task analysis; develop specific objectives; analyze resources and constraints; sequence instruction; select strategies, media, and resources; evaluate instruction; plan and monitor instructional development projects; create management systems; determine projects appropriate for instructional development; communicate effectively; promote diffusion of the instructional development process (AECT Task Force on ID Competencies, 1982, p. 3-4). Subsumed within each of these core competencies are many specific skills and competencies which, if embodied in an individual, would permit instructional development activity at both functional and conceptual levels.

Differentiating between the functional and conceptual levels of instructional development is not easy. Rather than discrete levels, they seem to be along a continuum. It is not the size or scope of the instructional development activity that provides the key differentiating variable, but the role which the instructional developer plays.

In functional instructional development the role of the teacher-librarian is primarily one of a team member in a service function. The teacher-librarian assists the teacher in considering learners' individual needs, writing objectives, selecting appropriate resources,

sequencing the unit, delivering resource-related instruction, and evaluating the experience.

In conceptual instructional development the role of the teacher-librarian changes to team member in a management function. The teacher-librarian works as a true colleague of the teacher, each bringing unique knowledge and skills to the development process. And the knowledge and expertise of the teacher-librarian, the instructional development expertise, requires that (s)he take the lead.

The difference is subtle, in that many of the same tasks may be undertaken in conceptual instructional development as in functional instructional development; analyzing problems; developing objectives; designing learning activities, and so forth. But there is a difference. In addition to functional competencies, what are the desirable skills and competencies for the conceptual approach?

Hodges (1981) notes that teacher-librarians who are likely to assume an active role in curriculum and instruction have core competencies in library science plus competencies in most of the following areas:

   (a) curriculum planning; implementation and evaluation;

   (b) analysis of materials in terms of their ability to achieve specific instructional objectives;

   (c) conceptualization and design of media to achieve specific instructional objectives;

   (d) human relations and group dynamics, including capability to initiate communication with colleagues;

   (e) ability to assume teacher's frame of reference.

The Teacher-Librarian as Collaborative Consultant

The thrust in conceptual instructional development is consultancy. Bringing about change in a school culture is difficult. The cooperative development of instruction to implement the mandated curriculum is in fact to bring abou change, hence it is reasonable to assume that the teacher librarian has, as part of the instructional role, the responsibility to facilitate change. The change process, according to Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) is actually a communication process. Thus, the teacher-librarian must bring to the consultancy a broad range of communication skills.

Consultancy involves the provision of expertise in examining teacher concerns and facilitating change. If the changes sought are individualistic and conceptual, the methods of the teacher-librarian must be flexible enough to meet the variety of needs brought forward by teachers. There are various views of consultancy: the counsellor view; the expert view; the problem-solving view (Kurpius & Robinson, 1978). The view espoused in the practice of conceptual instructional development for the teacher-librarian is that of collaborator.

The teacher-librarian as collaborator implies many things. It implies that the collaboration will focus on the knowledge and experience of the teacher, who has accumulated much of both which can be used to enhance the instructional development activity. It implies that an efficient and effective process will result - one which can be used in the future by the teacher to analyze and examine instructional experiences. It implies an exploration, with the teacher, of classroom

instructional practices, with a view toward the expansion and selection of effective instructional st   .gies.

Kurpius & Robinson (1978) note that the consultant as collaborator implies a collegial or co-equal relationship. The teacher-librarian and the teacher are interdependent: the teacher for support, direction, and stimulus to change, and the teacher-librarian for subject-matter and content knowledge. Such a relationship is built on trust, with each person making use of the other's expertise freely.

The consultant as collaborator facilitates change. The teacher-librarian in this role leads the teacher through the instructional development process, playing a variety of parts and using a variety of methods. At any given time the teacher-librarian might be an interviewer, a listener, a collector and analyser of information, a student, a teacher, an information source, an interpreter, an evaluator, or a source of reinforcement.

Davies (1978b) suggests that instructional development and evaluation activities may be viewed as the giving and taking of advice. Gardner (1965) indicated that it is not that organizations cannot solve their own problems, but that they cannot usually see them for themselves. The same is true of schools and teachers. The teacher-librarian, in the collaborative consultant role, is able to approach the instructional problem without context blinkers and see it from a different perspective, hence offering a means "of combating the processes by which teachers become prisoners of their own instruction" (Davies, 1978b, p. 104).

21

The teacher-librarian obviously needs to develop a special relationship with teachers. To Davies the relationship is as important as the actual functional instructional development process and the accomplishment of the instructional development activity itself.

The first consideration for the teacher-librarian as collaborative consultant is that advice, not decisions, should be offered. The teacher, while seeking help from someone whose judgement is trusted, is also knowledgeable and capable. Each enters into a relationship that is dynamic rather than static, with both parties playing different roles at different times. During the instructional development process there are times when the teacher-librarian might be in the lead and the teacher passively accepting advice, and times when the opposite will occur (Davies, 1978b).

Davies (1978b) notes:

... in doing instructional development we are involved in a cycle of task-oriented activities or steps which are descriptions of the duties and responsibilities performed. But parallel with this task-oriented cycle is another cycle involving the successive phases of the relationship between instructional developer and client - these range from establishing initial rapport, to defining roles, to maintaining the feeling of involvement throughout the process. It is this relationship which helps to prevent instructional development being directed only at solving immediate problems (p. 112).

Helping to solve someone else's problem is always a heady activity, so care should be taken to ensure that this does not become an end in itself. The teacher-librarian's goal should be to improve the teacher's ability to anticipate future problems, and move toward a stage of total des'gn for instructional improvement.

If the teacher-librarian, in implementing the instructional role, approaches implementation from the collaborative consultant stance, what are the skills and competencies necessary for success? In the development and maintenance of any interpersonal relationship the ability to communicate is of prime importance. Interpersonal communication skills include much more than facility with language. Skills important to consultancy, described by Guba (1981), are applied to the instructional role of the teacher-librarian as follows:

1. Listening. This implies much more than hearing. It is hearing without the usual backdrop of values, attitudes, preconceptions, and prejudices.

2. Responsiveness. The teacher-librarian is working in an environment with a particular group of people, and should be both environmentally and interpersonally interactive. Responsiveness is a consciousness that we are responding to others, while at the same time others are responding to us.

3. Empathy. This implies how much we are aware of and understand our own feelings and those of others. Being empathetic to others requires that we have experienced and understood similar feelings in similar situations.

4. <u>Acceptance</u>. This refers to the degree to which we allow ourselves and others to be themselves; to have their own ideas, feelings, and opinions.

5. <u>Processual Immediacy</u>. In the process of communicating there is an ebb and flow of ideas which must be maintained. At the same time the teacher-librarian is required to have the ability to process what is being heard immediately, and if necessary reorder or change the direction of the communication. This requires concentrated listening and divergent thinking.

6. <u>Value Neutrality</u>. The teacher-librarian must exhibit value-neutral or non-judgmental responses if a spirit of openness is to be maintained. Personal values should not be exhibited, verbally or non-verbally.

7. <u>Flexibility</u>. Through perceptivity, observation, and instinct the teacher-librarian knows tacitly how to proceed, rather than being forced to rely on a rigid, lock-step process which might not suit the context.

8. <u>Holistic Vision</u>. The teacher-librarian, a step removed from the classroom and direct instruction, can see not only the segmented entity but the curriculum/instructional process as a whole. The school, seen holistically, is a continuous context within which teachers, administrators, and support staff work and develop over time. (pp. 128-150)

Guba (1981) outlines many of these competencies in describing the ideal naturalistic evaluator. And Davies (1978b) notes that his

theory of advice applies to those in instructional development and evaluation roles. There is no doubt that these skills and competencies are essential to the instructional developer who hopes to move from the functional to the conceptual level.

Of course creating a role of teacher-librarian as instructional developer makes certain assumptions. Didier (1984) observes that it assumes teacher-librarians want to move out of their libraries and become involved in the instructional programs. It also assumes that teacher-librarians are adequately trained in instructional methods, learning and instructional theories, and consulting techniques to successfully implement change. These are great assumptions to make, considering the training of teacher-librarians. Dale (1963) describes the role of a preparatory program as encouraging the acquisition of principles rather than details. We have not yet arrived.

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