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The Changing Nature of the School Library

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Introduction

MAE GRAHAM

There was a time when it was fashionable to present to a young woman on her eighteenth birthday a china or copper plate on which was hand painted or etched the following couplet:

Standing with reluctant feet
Where the brook and river meet.

It is the opinion of the editor of this issue of Library Trends that school libraries have now reached this enviable transition stage. There are healthy signs. A marriage has been arranged, represented by the 1969 Standards for School Media Programs prepared jointly by the American Association of School Librarians (ALA) and the Department of Audio-visual Instruction (NEA). Traditionally, marriages of convenience are arranged for purposes of consolidating and thereby increasing wealth, influence, and prestige and to produce a stronger dynasty. The unified approach to instructional materials and services which is the basic philosophy of the 1969 Standards should accomplish all of these aims. While it may be called a marriage of convenience, it was in no sense a shotgun wedding. Each party is proud of its heritage and the contributions it has already made to American education. In addition, there is a long history of each party's recognition of the merits and contributions of the other.

The 1945 national standards, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, said, "In addition to books, challenging new materials are becoming an important part of library resources. . . . Librarians should take the initiative in making these aids known and often in securing and promoting their use. Where the services of a director of audio-visual education . . . [are] available the librarian will work closely with [him] in order that the whole materials program may be maintained." ¹

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¹ Mae Graham is Assistant Director Division of Library Extension, Maryland State Department of Education.
In tracing the emerging concept of the instructional materials center, Brown and Norberg go even further back and report that “early moves toward integrated instructional-materials services came in widely separated school systems: Portland, Oregon, 1941; the state of Virginia, 1941; Rochester, New York, 1941; the state of Washington, 1947.” Newark, New Jersey, is another example. They quote both the AASL official position on School Libraries as Instructional Materials Centers (1956) and the DAVI statement, The Function of Media in the Public Schools (1963) and conclude: “numerous signs now point to a speed-up in the development of a single-school instructional-materials center. This new service is characterized by providing in one organization the services that students and teachers formerly associated with separate library, audio-visual, textbook depository, duplicating, photo lab, language lab, listening lab, programmed learning lab, and similar facilities.” This succinctly sums up the philosophy of the 1969 Standards and the changing nature of the school library. Those who are too timid or inflexible to accept the reality of this “one organization” that provides instructional materials and services or who cannot contemplate with equanimity a different generic name, should be reminded that media programs call for the talents, understanding, knowledge and skills of a multiplicity of persons including school librarians, audio-visual specialists, resource teachers, professional technologists, subject specialists, graphic artists and a variety of technicians. It should also be called to their attention that many national professional associations have indicated their approval of the “one organization” concept.

The authors of the following articles are persons who believe in the philosophy of the new standards and have shown no reluctance in leaving the quiet of the brook for the turbulence of the river. They accept the fact that the school library is in transition; they see it at a stage of development which provides both the audio-visual and school library professions the opportunities to realize their full potentials. It will be noted, too, that they often use terms interchangeably, with no sense of alarm. Two of the authors and the editor were members of the joint standards committee: Dr. Kelley, Miss Rice, and Miss Graham. Miss Crawford’s school is the recipient of a Knapp school library award and of ESEA planning and operational grants for the development of a library-located instructional resource center. Mrs. Grazier, an experienced school librarian, is now a member of a graduate library school faculty which not only is deeply interested in realistic programs
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for the education of school librarians, but is not afraid to experiment. Mr. Johnson is an authority on school architecture and was an early proponent of school library quarters designed to meet the needs of what is now the school media center. Mr. Cory is well-known for his efforts to extend library services in all areas and to all people and for his imaginative approaches to administration and services. His concluding essay in this issue reflects a keen recognition of the changes and trends discussed by the other authors. He has designed a structure which is provocative and positive and charted a course worthy of careful exploration.

Dr. Bowie and Mr. Naeny, each well-known in his respective field, were asked to write their articles because of the editor's belief that continued emphasis must be placed on the context in which the school library or media center exists and also on her assumption that the changing nature of the school library is being brought about by the changing nature of the school. Dr. Bowie's perceptive article points out the needs of society for the kind of person who values himself and others, who has an appreciation for diversity in thoughts and actions and who knows how to use conflict constructively. She discusses the fallacies in thinking of intelligence as a fixed phenomena and of the reliance on group IQ testing. She stresses the need for drastic changes in educational programs, for increased and enriched intellectual experiences for quite young children, for the identification of creative individuals with recognition of their potential contributions to society, and for acceptance of the fact that motivation as intrinsic to the learner implies greater emphasis upon self-discovery, inquiry, and self-direction in the educative process. Mr. Naeny's emphasis also is on the importance of programs which focus on personal fulfillment and self-realization. Administrative patterns must provide for frequent realignment of groups of students and for a nongraded structure which permits continuous progress in the several subjects, based upon the individual's level of achievement and current learning rate in each field at a given time.

References

3. Ibid., pp. 263-64.
4. Ibid., pp. 265-66.
5. Ibid., p. 261.
Changing Perspectives in Educational Goals
And Knowledge of the Learner

B. LUCILE BOWIE

Change is the essence of life. Without this dynamic quality, individuals perish and institutions of society crumble and decay. On the one hand, some members of our society recognize and accept the necessity for change; on the other hand, some individuals desire to maintain the status quo and avoid the inevitable reorganization of social institutions with accompanying changes in behavior of individuals and various groups of individuals. Both of these points of view are essential and complementary, for the former produces growth and the latter provides a core of stability.

In previous periods of our history, change has occurred at a relatively comfortable rate permitting individuals time to incorporate these changes into the codes, customs, and mores of the society. In other words, the rate of change allowed time for examining the consequences of certain patterns of behavior and, to some extent, reduced the force of its impact. Today, the rate of change taking place in American society makes it mandatory for leaders in all fields to examine in advance possible directions and consequences of impending change. This concept of preparing in advance for change has prompted the American Academy of Arts and Science to appoint a Commission on the Year 2000 to engage in long-range planning.¹

The predictions of occurrences in our society as a result of technological changes cause thought and wonderment. Several years ago there were predictions that by the year 1970 half the pupils then enrolled in high school would be engaged in occupations unknown at that time; by 1980 a young person entering a career will be retrained three times during his lifetime; and by the year 2000 the work day will be three hours and the work week three days. More recently, Irwin

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Berg has suggested: “The best guess one can make is that in 15 or 20 years, half the population will be supporting the other half in enforced leisure or make-work jobs unless a world war intervenes. . . . In this connection it may be noted that we seem to be heading toward a two-class society: the essential and the surplus citizens.”

There is concern in our country, and in the world, of an over-populated condition: a situation where the available food resources and space requirements are not adequate to sustain the population. For years the question of family planning has centered upon moral and religious beliefs, with persons of opposite persuasions striving to grasp the power to control the decision-making process. Whenever the proposed change does not violate the values of the general culture or influential subcultures, it occurs rapidly. The Taichung study, which was successful in implementing family planning in Taiwan, concluded: “Perhaps the most significant finding was that the people needed not so much to be motivated toward family planning as to be informed on how to go about it. Hence the program could be defined and organized as implementation, not persuasion.”

In addition to population control and the development of new concepts concerning the relationship of work and leisure, our society is becoming more aware of its need to reemphasize the dignity and worth of all individuals because they are human beings. At the same time, equal attention must be given to rights and responsibilities of individuals who are members of our democratic society. All human and material resources should be used to improve race relations, to pursue the war on poverty, to plan for community development, to discover causalities of crime and violence, to enhance physical and mental health, and to effect strategies which will enable education to fulfill its important role of change agent and transmitter of culture.

Many professional journals and books reflect the dawning of a new purpose or major goal of education as self-realization or maximum development of the potentiality of human beings at each maturity level from birth throughout the life cycle. But in some ways, it is even more compelling that big business, as represented by the Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation, should consider the changing goal of education as follows:

In America, the first aim of education was to prepare children to read the Scripture and its intent was religious. Later on the purpose was to enable people to read and write, and thus participate in a democratic process which required an understanding of the
issues and candidates involved. Still later, the purpose increasingly became to prepare young people for jobs in an industrialized society. At no time was the aim of education to prepare students to become individuals or complete human beings. This aspect of education was left to the home, church, mass media, and the city streets. To a certain large extent, it still remains there. Yet in a society that can easily be foreseen, one in which cybernation and mechanization will minimize the human factor in industrial production, the purpose of education must once again change. It must begin to educate people to live full and meaningful lives in which "jobs" are at best only incidental; or at least for jobs that are oriented toward service rather than physical productivity.

Bernard defines self-realization as the individual's striving to become all that he can become. This urge to grow or tendency to elaborate one's abilities and talents or to seek a higher level of complexity appears to be innate. The quality of one's purposive striving and his persistence toward self-realization are influenced by the condition of the human organism itself; by the characteristics of interaction with other significant persons—parents, peers, educators, and citizens of the community and larger world setting—and by the individual's intellectual functioning and emotional overtones accompanying all experiences. These factors are intertwined in the life of every person. They can facilitate or they can hinder his progress toward self-realization.

Maslow presents the psychologically healthy person as the model of the individual our society should produce. He uses as his base the individual's needs which are generally arranged in a hierarchy. On the first level are the physical needs or the most essential body needs, such as food, water, air, shelter, warmth, and sexual gratification. The second level relates to the need for safety, protection from danger or anything that might harm the individual. The third level expresses the need for love and belongingness, to give and receive love, affection, and emotional support. The fourth level Maslow has designated as the need for self-respect or needs pertaining to maintenance of satisfactory relationships with others; being valued, accepted, and appreciated as a person; being respected; having status; and avoiding rejection or disapproval. The fifth level represents the most psychologically mature need related to achievement and self-expression and involves being creative and productive; performing acts that are useful and valuable to others; realizing one's potentialities and thus becoming a self-actualizing person. Maslow's term
"self-actualizing" is similar to the term "self-realization" as used in this paper.

Carl Rogers identifies the characteristics of the person who is becoming or realizing his potentialities as: (1) openness to experience, i.e., the person perceives his environment at a high level of sensory perception, seeks intellectual stimulation and develops his mental processes to the maximum; (2) the locus of evaluation is within the person and he can trust the wisdom of his organism because he has internalized the standards of right and wrong of his society; and (3) a willingness to be a process by maintaining the desire to continue growing while having the ability to tolerate a degree of ambiguity. Rogers' thesis does not seem to deny the "core of consistency" or stability which every person must have in order to function effectively.

The demands of a rapidly changing technological society and the shift in educational goals call for greater emphasis upon the individual's physical, social, intellectual and emotional development. All of these aspects of growth are interrelated and exert a profound impact upon the educative process; therefore, it seems important to consider some of the changing concepts pertaining to learning and the dynamics of the learner.

One of the ideas is the recognition that intelligence is not a fixed phenomenon. An individual inherits a potential for the development of intelligence which can be facilitated or retarded by a number of factors. It is obvious to everyone that impaired vision and hearing or glandular imbalances can retard intellectual growth. The tremendous effort to increase and enrich intellectual stimulation of culturally different children at an early age brought forth Head Start and various other types of compensatory educational programs. These programs are based upon the recommendations of J. McVicker Hunt and others who sought to use the knowledge about early intellectual development to counteract the effects of cultural deprivation upon children. Hunt hypothesizes that infants in lower class homes have a higher degree of intellectual stimulation than do middle class infants; however, he believes that middle class children experience greater intellectual stimulation during the early childhood years. According to Baldwin, Kalhorn and Breese, the kind of social-emotional climate created by parents seems to affect the IQ scores of children ages four to seven. These researchers found that parental discipline which centered upon being responsive to the children's needs and offering ex-
plianations resulted in increased IQ's through time, while parental discipline which consisted of unresponsiveness or control without explanations resulted in decreases in IQ scores.

Associated with the concept of the changing intelligence thesis is the growing realization that intelligence quotients as measured by group IQ tests are obsolete. The limitations of these tests as measures, and the injustices done to children and youth by using the test results to make educational decisions about their future, deserve serious thought. Guilford and his colleagues have attempted to identify and measure the myriad facets of mental functioning by constructing a model of the intellect which consists of 120 factors. Cognition, memory, divergent thinking, convergent thinking and evaluation represent the operations or processes dimension of the model. The other major dimensions are content, the medium of thought, and products or results of the content-operations-interaction.

From the Guilford model the operation of divergent thinking has been a prime factor in initiating research related to the measurement of the expression of creativity. It was a surprise to many educators when Getzels and Jackson's study indicated that adolescents who scored very high on intelligence tests were not the high scorers on tests of creativity and vice versa. While the two groups scored equally high on tests of academic achievement, the high creative group members displayed more imagination and fantasy in their themes. Perhaps one of the most interesting findings of the study was the fact that teachers preferred the conforming, high intelligence group. The high creative group members offered more possible solutions to a given problem, thereby upsetting the teachers' correct answer theory. But today's world needs creative individuals who will seek new solutions to old problems and will realize that often there is no right answer.

Piaget has made one of the most significant contributions to the study of perceptual and conceptual processes. Through careful direct observation and objective recordings of children's and adolescents' intellectual development, Piaget identified three broad periods: (1) sensory-motor intelligence; (2) preparation for and organization of concrete operations; and (3) formal operations. The formal operations period, characterized by the individual's ability to adopt the "as if" attitude or go beyond the data and maintain alternate views of self and his world, appears to be a crucial phase of intellectual functioning. There is also some support for the concept of relative stability in personality or cognitive styles through time. Neilon's
follow-up study of Shirley's babies demonstrated that written descriptions of the persistent behavior patterns of infants were recognizable and identifiable fifteen years later. Kagan and Moss have found differences in children's cognitive styles with respect to impulsivity and reflectiveness. All of these researchers have contributed to our increased understanding of the uniqueness of the learner's cognitive functioning.

Combs and Snygg have postulated that the basic need of every individual is the maintenance and enhancement of his self-concept. His thoughts, feelings, and actions are directed toward keeping himself functioning and moving toward improving the picture he has of himself. Who am I? What is my destiny? These are the questions that the individual strives to answer to his own satisfaction at each developmental stage.

There is a mounting body of research which attests to the importance of the learner's self-concept or perceptions of self in the teaching-learning process and other areas of behavior. If the child or youth sees himself as an adequate or able learner, his approach to learning and his academic achievement will be enhanced. If the learner sees himself as unable to achieve at an acceptable level in terms of others' expectations, he approaches the learning tasks with feelings of uncertainty and may develop delaying or avoidance techniques which postpone his entering into the learning activity. Teachers' expectations seem to influence the learner's concept of self and academic achievement in school. Rosenthal and Jacobson discovered that when teachers were told that randomly selected children had been tested and designated as having the potential for growth, these children did, in fact, demonstrate greater intellectual gains than their classmates. Later, when the researchers attempted to account for the growth spurt of these randomly selected children, they noted that the teachers had not devoted additional time to these pupils, but, perhaps the teachers communicated their expectations through subtle means, such as tone of voice, facial expression, and physical contact. Almost any adult who reviews his life story will be able to identify situations in which he performed at a high level because a significant person held high expectations for him.

The question of extrinsic versus intrinsic motivation has been debated for a number of years. With regard to external stimulation as the source of motivation, the assumption is made that the learner possesses no innate ideas; everything a person knows comes from out-
side himself. Acceptance of this concept has led to defining the act of teaching as bringing to children thoughts, feelings and ideas which adults consider appropriate. Through controlling learning activities, the teacher helps the child to build the content of his mind by associating new ideas with old ones. These assumptions and the resulting translation of them into educational practices are not completely false or completely true.

Recent research findings point out that intrinsic motivation is a powerful force in the learning process. The learner is perceived as an open energy system which exhibits activity intrinsically. External stimulation may affect the direction, duration and intensity of the learning process but does not automatically initiate the learning activity. In more practical terms, a child or youth may be surrounded by a rich learning environment in relation to science; for example, a science corner or science laboratory, but his intrinsic motivation may be directed toward the goal of improving his skill as a baseball player. Again, he may be intrinsically motivated to explore a human hair under a microscope and thus will find the science equipment a necessary means of meeting the demands of his intrinsic motivation. The view of motivation as intrinsic to the learner implies greater emphasis upon self-discovery, inquiry and self-direction in the educative process; however, stimulation from a rich learning environment deserves equal consideration. Both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are essential and defensible, with each reinforcing the other. In many ways, educators know more about creating a stimulating learning environment than assisting learners to identify and utilize their natural motivations.

Changing perspectives in the goals of education and in the dynamics of the learner call forth the need for drastic changes in educational programs. These programs must foster self-realization of all children, youth and adults in a manner which will enable them to learn to live meaningful and productive lives in a rapidly changing society without succumbing to a sense of alienation and futility. Our society needs the kind of person who values himself and others, one who has an appreciation for diversity in thoughts and actions and knows how to use conflict constructively. Oppenheimer has suggested an outlook which could facilitate achievement of greater understanding of all mankind. He states: "We have a natural sympathy for extending to foreign affairs what we have come to learn so well in our political life at home: that an indispensable, perhaps in some ways the indispensable
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element in giving meaning to the dignity of man, and in making possible the making of decisions on the basis of honest conviction, is the openness of men's minds and the openness of whatever media there are for communion between men, free of restraints, free of repression and free even of that most pervasive of all restraints, that of status and hierarchy."

It may be that the continued existence of the human race is dependent upon man's ability to appreciate diversity in patterns of living and to discover the factors that facilitate maximum development of human potentiality. This is the educators' challenge of our times.

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Changing Patterns in School Curriculum and Organization

ALBERT H. NAENY

EVERYONE PLANS. In education we plan for tomorrow’s lesson, for next week’s event, for next year’s program. We prepare the budget, the book order and the supply requisition. We envisage that additional staff member and project our thinking to encompass the redirected thrust which the new equipment will make. Implicit in these processes is a concept of the future, be it immediate or long range, and in this era of change in people, institutions, social patterns and technology, the educational planner has need for perception, sensitivity and penetrating foresight.

Let me enter here a vigorous disclaimer of any presumption to expertise in the art of prophecy. As a soothsayer my credibility exceeds only slightly that of those who held great expectations for the Edsel. You will understand, then, the trepidation which I felt recently in coordinating the efforts of specialists in the several disciplines in providing an architect with educational specifications for a new secondary school building. If we project a fifty year period of utilization of a school facility, we are immediately propelled into speculation on matters of curriculum and organization for the twenty-first century. What will it be like? To whom do we go for counsel? Shall we draw upon the images of Orwell and Huxley for our concept of the future? Will the emerging patterns in education reflect the views of Rafferty, Conant, Trump or some other point along an assumed continuum of educational thought? After making appropriate allowance for the earlier demurrer, note that this barometer reads change. The knell has sounded for some of the traditional systems of organization, and while the reverberations may linger for some time, by the standards to which we are accustomed, the changes will be significant, and even dramatic.

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The restiveness which has been so apparent in schools and colleges, and indeed in society at large, has been attributed in large measure to issues involving the individual and his identity in a largely urban society. Much of the anxiety which young people express about their lives arises out of what they see as the anonymity, conformity and impersonalization of a culture geared to technology, cybernetics, automation, and the mass rather than the individual. They see, or think they see, these developments as rampant determinants rather than servants of humanity. Although educators have greater faith in mankind than this view would connote, we can understand their fear and respect their concern for the uniqueness of the individual.

For years articulators of educational theory and philosophy have made obeisance to the importance of the individual. The literature of the middle decades of our century is replete with such references. These were often prelude to a particular curricular disposition with a subject matter emphasis. Movements such as that in child study, however, blossomed in this period and were continuations and redirections of the atmosphere that had its origin in John Dewey's outlook. The work of contemporary theorists, researchers and teachers adds impetus to the new focus on personal fulfillment and self-realization as priority objectives for education. Manifestations of this trend are found in nongraded school organization plans in both elementary and secondary schools; in the stress which is being put upon independent study, discovery approaches, and individually programmed teaching machines; in school schedules incorporating time modules; and in team teaching systems, to cite just a few innovations. Let us take a look, albeit superficial, at some of those which are beginning to have a general effect upon American education.

Proponents of rapid and radical change in established educational patterns, often with facile fluency, hold immediate and great promise for restructured school organization incorporating the latest in media and technology. Those who hold that the advent of the computer and the TV screen heralds the dehumanizing mechanization of the learning process have little to fear, however. In the more than a decade that educational television (ETV) has been a viable prospect, and despite evidence that has been amassed to support the conclusion that television deserves a place among the educational media, Murphy and Gross conclude that "televised teaching is still in a rudimentary stage of development. . . . TV is still far from fulfilling its obvious promise."¹

This not especially startling observation may be subject to revision
in the foreseeable future. While not yet commonplace, it is no longer a rarity to meet the school district media specialist who has a staff among whom are authorities in ETV. States and larger subdivisions are committing themselves increasingly to the idea that television can bring to education resources and programs which are not available through other means. The tube is on its way to becoming as ubiquitous in the classroom as it is in the home, and objectors are finding the prospect less threatening to their jobs or to their values as it becomes apparent that television is a means of communication not unlike the motion picture film or, in a sense, the book.

Some of the more visionary practitioners of the profession project the marriage of the computer and the television set in a retrieval system. Technologically such an arrangement is quite possible, but the cultural lag for which education is so noted will preclude an early application of it. The immense costs involved in its widespread utilization are enough to numb the average fiscal officer, and even the Federal eagle may falter were computer assisted instruction and retrieval systems including tapes and films undertaken on a national scale.

Team teaching, that blanket label which encompasses a wide variety of systems of cooperative effort on the part of a school staff, has achieved a position of respectability among patterns of educational organization over the past decade. Disciples attribute advantages to it in the areas of in-service training of teachers, improved planning resulting from group activity, effectiveness of staff utilization, and flexibility of both grouping and program.

Most team teaching plans incorporate large group instruction, small group seminars, and independent study into the student's weekly schedule. Major presentations occur in class combinations numbering 75 to 150 or more students. The small groups react to presentations and discuss their implications. These sessions often set the stage for the independent study activities in which a student spends a significant portion of his time. The composition of groups is regularly restructured under most plans in order to meet the changing needs and circumstances which develop.

A common organization for team teaching establishes a hierarchal structure of professional and para-professional personnel. A team leader or master teacher frequently coordinates the efforts of the faculty membership on the team. Other members include regular teachers, teacher interns, aides and clerical assistants. Imperative to the success of any team is the opportunity to engage in joint planning.
on a regular basis. It is here that ideas are broached, analyzed, and decided upon. Team members are then allocated to the various functions in accordance with their special talents and interests.

There is an obvious benefit in the cooperative planning process for the new teacher. Inherent, too, is the prospect for the refinement of techniques by experienced teachers through exposure to the daily activities of their colleagues. Often the team leader provides the kind of regular supervision which is unavailable in more traditional systems of organization.

In summarizing an assessment of team teaching Bair and Woodward reach the conclusion that while such an organization is no panacea for many of the problems which confront schools, it does provide an opportunity for identifying, studying and determining approaches to them. Although acknowledging that all teachers are not likely to be comfortable in such an arrangement, their surveys suggest a highly positive response from pupils and parents as well as professionals.

Nongraded or crossgraded school organizations are frequently a concomitant of team teaching. While each can exist independent of the other, many have concluded that they are complementary, and we often find elements of both in innovative patterns. It is the potential, indeed the very need, for frequent realignment of groups of students which is the common feature of these plans.

Proponents of nongrading contend that it is the logical extension of the readily acknowledged principle that individuals progress toward the realization of their potentials at varying rates. The graded school, they are convinced, does violence to what we have learned about human growth and development. The student who enjoys reading and whose progress in that area is well beyond the norm for his age is not required to mark time under a nongraded arrangement. The same student, who may grasp mathematical abstractions more slowly, need not be confronted with the daily frustrations implicit in membership in a graded class whose functional level is more advanced than is his.

Goodlad and Anderson espouse the nongraded structure on the grounds that it permits continuous progress in the several subjects based upon each child’s level of achievement and current learning rate in each field at a given time. They believe that the teacher’s freedom of action is broadened by eliminating concern over possible encroachment on the work and materials of another grade. Of major importance is that fundamental to a nongraded pattern of organiza-
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tion is the elimination of failure and the traumatic experience of repeating a grade.

B. Frank Brown cites fellow iconoclasts as responsible for terming the prevalent graded structure of the secondary schools as "a cage for every age." He emphatically asserts that the nongraded high school is a viable approach for both the slow learner and for the academically able student; that the flexibility of grouping inherent in nongrading encourages program reforms, greater individualization of instruction, and improved attitudes toward school. Many educators believe that Dr. Brown's imaginative approaches to the organization of Melbourne High School have set the pace and direction for secondary education.

It is educationally indefensible, according to Stanford's Bush and Allen, to require that all students take a given subject, mathematics for example, for fifty minutes in a class of thirty every day over the period of their high school years. They offer a carefully conceived and detailed plan for breaking away from traditional organizational plans based upon the rigidities of the Carnegie unit. In their proposal, time, heretofore an unvariable, is arranged in modules, groups of which are allocated as the need exists. It may be decided by a faculty that a particular program warrants two twenty minute mods per day, and another subject three or four. The number of mods assigned may vary from day to day so that a group might meet for only a few minutes on Monday, but for an extended period on Tuesday. Again we see flexibility as the objective of the restructured operational plan.

Although it is an organizational change which falls in a somewhat different plane than do nongraded or team teaching plans, the movement to the middle school has gained impressive impetus in recent years. Many of the middle schools incorporate aspects of other novel and imaginative approaches in their internal structures.

The junior high school as originally conceived was intended to be a transitional school providing for that period of development between childhood and adolescence. Since the beginning of the second quarter of this century, the 6-3-3 plan, including a three year junior high school between elementary and high school, has been the most prevalent pattern of school system organization. Recent evidence regarding psycho-social and biological maturational rates suggests that the ninth grade might more appropriately be associated with the high school, and that preadolescents could benefit from a program offering...
greater variety and specialization than is available in the usual elementary school pattern.

Alexander and his associates make the judgment that the junior high school in its present form is focused primarily on the adolescent. They hold that an apparent need exists to develop a program which is especially adapted to the needs of pupils from late childhood through early adolescence, and that the middle school rather than a revitalized junior high school is the vehicle to accomplish this.

More than a thousand middle schools are now functioning and the movement in this direction continues unabated. While a variety of grade levels are often included in the middle school, grades five or six through eight are most common. In seeking to provide for the wide range of differences which exist in children between the ages of ten and thirteen years, advocates of the middle school are attempting to develop an institution having its own unique characteristics rather than a pale carbon of the high school.

We can take encouragement from the observation that unique and creative programs and pilot projects are being implemented or experimented with all over the land. It is heartening to note that offerings in computer programming are making inroads on solid geometry; that family life and sex education courses appear in the subject listings of the schools almost as often as does ancient history. The winds of change have even swayed the schools, no mean accomplishment, and a fresh vigor can be detected. It becomes increasingly rare to find a school which is not trying a new curricular or organizational approach. The thrust is toward tomorrow and the quest is for a better way for the future. Although fraught with the possibility for error, and not nearly as comfortable as doing things in the traditional manner, the challenge, excitement and prospect for improved learning impel us toward new patterns.

References

Changing Patterns in School Curriculum and Organization


Where does the library end and where does the rest of the school begin? It is hard to say, and it is getting more difficult as time goes by. That is not bad; on the contrary, that is the way it should be. The library should pervade the entire school; no part of the school should escape its influence. It cannot be confined to the limits of a room. In fact, a library is much more than a place: a good library is a service which may have a number of places as its base.

What is it? Shall we call it a library, or an instructional materials center, a learning center, a learning resources center, a learning media center, or any of the multitude of complex terms that have been devised, invented, and concocted in recent years to express this expanded function? It first became complicated by arranging, or forcing, a union between book-type libraries, some equipped with book-type librarians, and audiovisual services, some complete with gadget-oriented audiovisualists. Now we add radio, television, and computers. How can a librarian cope with all that?

In the remainder of this article the word “library” will generally be used. It is a good word, but we have to assume that it will mean more than a place where books are kept. Can we not assign a broader meaning for the word library? Ralph Ellsworth says this, “Fortunately, this question was resolved in the early 1960’s and school libraries began to be thought of as the place where all the carriers of information were collected, stored, and used. To express this concept, it was sometimes necessary to use various forms of jargon such as materials center, resources center, instructional media center, and so on, but soon these long and clumsy terms were replaced again by the simple, short, well-understood, and dignified word library.”¹ But if the word library gets in the way of accepting the broader concept, then some-

day the word may have to go, to be replaced by a more comprehensive term.

What is the nature and character of the facilities for such a comprehensive library? Let us look at what the professionals in the school library and audiovisual field are thinking. In 1960, the American Library Association published *Standards for School Library Programs.* This book was prepared by the American Association of School Librarians, a Division of the American Library Association, in cooperation with almost a score of other organizations and associations interested in the quality of school libraries. The preface of this book states that the previous standards had been published fifteen years earlier in 1945, in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow.* Now, in 1969, the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI) of the National Education Association are issuing a new publication on standards for school media programs. It is significant to note that the DAVI is an equal partner with the AASL in this new book; in 1960 the DAVI was one of the groups represented on the standards committee. Also, the proposed book deals with "school media programs," not "school library programs."

Comparing the 1960 standards with the 1969 publication reveals the changes in recommendations and suggestions for library facilities—buildings, equipment, and furnishings. These recommendations reflect and shape the type and extent of programs which can be contained therein and served thereby.

It is not surprising that the 1960 and 1969 versions are similar. After all, in education ideas and concepts are slow to change, and practices in library services have not really been revolutionized in nine years. And it is to the credit of those who prepared the 1960 standards that they anticipated trends and innovative possibilities.

With regard to the types of media, the 1969 publication adds specific reference to closed-circuit television, computer-assisted instruction, and dial access information services. The 1960 standards already referred to the potential of television and also to "technical, electronic, and machine devices." The new version refers to media specialists instead of librarians, and the chief in charge of a media center is called the "head of the media center," and is not necessarily assumed to be a librarian. In the section on personnel, the new book refers to aides, which include clerks, typists, etc., and then also to a variety of
technicians, such as a graphics technician, a photographic technician, an electronic technician, and a TV technician.

The list of materials and devices that will be housed, used, and serviced in the media center is much longer and more extensive in the 1969 version than in the earlier book; the new list includes by name such items as globes, maps, catalogs, microform, transparencies, kits, art objects, videotape records, and dial access materials.

It follows naturally that the materials to be housed and utilized and the staff to be accommodated for efficient and agreeable service will affect the kinds, quantities and sizes of spaces to be built. The new book calls for rooms and spaces not specifically recommended in the 1960 book; it adds such accommodations as a production laboratory for media, a photographic dark room, and space for maintenance and repair services. The 1969 book elaborates on the special needs for films, filmstrips, recordings, kits, and audiovisual devices; it suggests extensive electronics communications services, requiring production and control rooms for radio and television production and distribution; and, it proposes a computerized learning laboratory.

The Standards published nine years ago included recommendations which it called "policies and specifications for library quarters and equipment for schools having 200 or more students." These recommendations are detailed in an appendix, although general statements about quarters are made in the body of the book. The 1969 volume includes these specifics "on a basis of 1,000 students or fewer," and contains them as an integral part of the book. The newer volume also recognizes more strongly the likelihood of including several media centers in one school, and points out appropriately that such a divided library or media center will present special staffing and management problems.

The new Standards recommends larger libraries; it suggests accommodations for at least fifteen percent of the enrollment, whereas the 1960 book says at least ten percent. The 1969 book also encourages more room per student: forty square feet instead of thirty to thirty-five square feet in the 1960 standard. The number of books, the quantities of titles of periodicals and of other materials have all been boosted to higher levels in the new standards.

The new book is quite specific about room areas, giving number of square feet for most of the rooms which are considered necessary. This may offend some architects, and other school planners too, since they tend to believe, with much justification, that such specifics
should grow out of the educational program for each individual school project. If it is made clear to the readers that these "specifications" are guides and recommendations, and subject to individual differences, no crises are likely to arise. And does this concept of the large library space accommodate the views of J. Lloyd Trump as he expresses them in such statements as appeared in the January 1966 issue of the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals?

The new standards volume does not quibble about air conditioning; it says do it. Sound conditioning is mandatory, with carpeted floors getting high marks. Good lighting is declared essential, as indeed it is. The book shows good sense by not recommending minimum "foot-candle" lighting levels; this is a complexity that had better be left to competent specialists in illumination. "There must be a sufficient number of electrical outlets and also the needed electrical power for peak loads of use," the volume says. So true, and it is also necessary to allow for changing, adding, and relocating electrical outlets as the types and complexity of electrical devices change.

The 1960 standards already recommended district media centers to serve all the schools in a single school system. Since the size and character of school districts vary so widely in this country, general policies and procedures only are suggested for adaptation to the needs of an individual school system. The nine-year-old standards also encouraged the development of regional media centers serving a number of school systems; in large metropolitan school districts, a regional center might serve only a portion of the larger district. In addition to continuing to encourage the regional center, the new standards place special emphasis on a state media center, which becomes a part of the state education agency. Such a state center in each state would serve primarily the schools but would cooperate with other state agencies such as the state library system.

The new standards recognize the need for regional centers which would serve several states. This would especially be useful where states are small in area or where major metropolitan centers are situated near or on the boundaries of several states.

To see more clearly what these standards mean in terms of actual facilities, and to envision more practically the kind of facilities that are needed for a library of this type, let us imagine a school library in use for a day.

A library assistant arrives to open the school library at seven-thirty...
in the morning. The school is planned so that the library may be opened without giving access to all the remainder of the school. On Saturday, one of the librarians does this, but later in the morning; on Sunday the library opens only in the afternoon and evening. The library is open the year round; no abrupt closing down for the summer months.

Students arrive to read newspapers, peruse periodicals, do assignments, hear recordings, view films, read books. The furniture is comfortable. Most books are shelved near the catalogs not far from the charge area. Students can consult indexes and catalogs, proceed to the shelves, select materials, and continue to use areas away from distraction and traffic. Films and recordings are open on shelves, accessible as books.

Not all this is in one big room with rows of long tables, but in a number of rooms which are mainly equipped with small tables or individual carrels. In addition to more conventional resources, students have access to materials on audiotape, film, or computers by using a dial, pushbuttons, or a keyboard. The several rooms are separated from each other by means of partly-glazed partitions, or by units which become visual barriers, such as shelving. There may even be some solid walls, not load-bearing, so they can be removed if that is later desirable.

Rich are the resources in periodicals and journals as well as books, so the school reduces its reliance on textbooks and encyclopedias. Microform collections, with readily available devices to read and reproduce the material, reduce space needs for storing information in periodicals.

A class meets in a classroom in the library to continue learning more about the uses of the library's resources, because the school creates an awareness of the vastness of information, knowledge and wisdom, and encourages an understanding of the approach, attack, and technique for searching, discovering, assembling, synthesizing and utilizing knowledge.

During the morning, an outstanding teacher from the nearby university lectures in person to a large group of students in the teaching auditorium located near the library. Through the appropriate use of computer capabilities, the schedules of the students have easily been rearranged to allow attending the lecture. Because of careful design for devices, screens and light control, visual materials have been easily presented to accompany the speaker's words and acoustics permit
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response and questions from the students. The lecture is videotaped to accommodate those unable to attend and to conserve the material in the information files for future use.

At noon time, students come to the library from the nearby food service facilities to use the library during part of their lunch period. Appropriate precautions have been taken to avoid unhappy acoustical problems. In the afternoon, through the medium of telephone wire services, a scientist from a distant research center presents an illustrated lecture with the help of slides displayed through large rear-screen projection capabilities operated by one of the school's media specialists. Students can respond through the two-way telecommunications services.

A media specialist instructs teachers from this and other schools, and some students also, in preparing and using newer teaching materials. Room accommodations and equipment provide for preparing slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, overhead transparencies and photographs. Nearby is a facility to view and to hear visual and audio materials.

An art teacher with some students, without exploitation, assist an economics teacher in the development of striking and graphically clean maps and charts, using resources on file in the library center. Some students of art find the school's own resources limited; with direct lines to the local museums and university art department, arrangements are quickly made for temporary loans from the larger resources of these other institutions.

First echelon level repairs and maintenance of mechanical and electronic devices are handled in the work rooms of the library. For more extensive service, the central offices and shops for the school system provide technical services or attention through negotiated service contracts.

Learning and teaching stations throughout the school are liberally supplied with needed equipment and devices, but the library center furnishes additional hardware as needed.

Students from one class come to the library center to select a set of materials, print, audio, other visuals and check them out for a temporary loan for use on a project underway.

Some of the science facilities are at some distance from the main library center and have been supplied with a unit library with permanent collections appropriately served by competent library personnel managed by the head of the school's media services.
The principal or chief officer of the school meets with a local curriculum study committee in the library's professional center. This has extensive collections of professional materials. It is immediately accessible to all of the school's resources and also to the district's administrative center through audio and visual telecommunications services.

The television studios are near at hand; the media center's collection of visuals, charts, slides, photos, and transparencies are readily available for video presentations. Technicians in graphics are available to the video center as well as the remainder of the media programs.

Students and adults have opportunity under controlled conditions to extend their understanding of video technologies and may develop their skills and talents, perhaps for occupational purposes. Yet all students, young and old, elementary and secondary, use television capabilities for experiences with new media. These services of the television devices supplement their obvious function as a communications tool.

Radio has come back to extend the school's services. Besides offering any student, elementary or secondary, an opportunity to learn about radio broadcasting and the science and technology thereof, the radio extends the school day, providing information, music, entertainment, and instruction to all who will listen, especially useful to the homebound.

Computer services, besides assisting student scheduling and school management, provide for computer-assisted instruction and for instruction in computer technologies. Accounting, record keeping, cataloging of media materials are improved by using computers.

Most of the students leave the school sometime during the middle of the afternoon, but the library does not close. For a while the charging desk is busy—and it is not a quiet place; people talk, the annoying sound of whispering is not heard. But this active area of the library is appropriately acoustically separated from those portions where quiet and peace is needed. The library is so divided according to use: busy and noisy, quiet and peaceful, for conversation, for audio devices, for typewriters, for study, for technical activities. It is divided to allow variety in lighting: for reading, for visual devices, for working, and for technical processes.

Some students and teachers continue to use parts of the library, served now by additional library staff who arrive for the late afternoon and evening hours. In the evening others return, including adults.
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from the community. Lectures, classes, motion picture performances may be underway in the teaching auditorium or one of the smaller accommodations. A gallery of art is open near the auditorium, displaying with proper safeguards original works of art, some by student and faculty, and reproductions, some of which are prints from the school's collection, others obtained through temporary or permanent loan. The school also has other exhibits for science and mechanics, for programs in business education, in physical education, and other segments of the learning program of the school. Yet along with all these services based on technological devices, students and teachers will obviously continue to use the more conventional materials.

The services, equipment, materials and building accommodations described in the preceding paragraphs are all available and possible now and hopefully many schools are already utilizing them. And nothing has been said of regional and nationwide central library systems, through whose communications networks individual schools can have access to the resources of libraries located all over the world. Nothing has so far been suggested about possibilities for direct television communications in color eliminating the need for national networks and intermediate local television stations through an organized system of intra- and intercontinental communication satellites.

If the library services will in fact become so extensive and so complex as have been described, how do we get there from where we are? First we must ask where we are. Customarily a school library has developed in a way something like this: the school set aside a room, or built one especially for the purpose, and made it the library, stocked it with books and with other print materials and with some other audio-visual materials and devices, and equipped it with a competent librarian. The library was pretty much self-contained, that is, it served its school with resources which were contained within the library itself.

The next step may have been the sharing of resources which are located at the central administrative office of the school district. An audio-visual center was located there. This audio-visual center had a collection of films, slides, records and tapes which it checked out and distributed to all the schools in the district. The center delivered these materials and, at an appropriate time, picked them up again for redistribution to other schools. At this point, the individual school library was no longer dependent only on its own resources, it was a part of a larger combination of resources.
The conventional school may have had a communications system. This system was probably limited to a central call arrangement which allowed the principal or other authorized person in the administrative suite to communicate messages to selected rooms or areas in the schools, or even generally throughout the entire plant. This might be an “intercom,” by which someone in the teaching area or classroom could respond to the office. Added to this was a signal system, through which signals for time clocks, or music could be generally or selectively transmitted throughout the plant. The extent of refinement or sophistication of such a system varied with the needs, or the knowledge of the engineer, or the budget, or all three. And there was a conventional telephone to the world outside.

But that is only the beginning. Add to that the possibilities of the modern telephone, radio, television—broadcast or closed circuit, the computer, new techniques for recording picture and sound, information retrieval possibilities, and all the other benefits of current and coming technologies and techniques including communications satellites. Then the school can reach to its neighboring schools, to a center at the administrative unit level, or to a state or regional center, even to national and international resources, public and non-public. That is the way it can go.

This communication capability will be expanded and integrated with the total system of audio-visual and computer signals. This will require a communications center in the school equipped with appropriate equipment and devices, manned by competent technicians with professional engineering talent and maintenance personnel near at hand to operate it and to keep it functioning properly.

This concept of communications and information services for the modern school library calls for facilities which include much equipment, many devices and communications services and computer capabilities, in addition to the buildings and furnishings located at the school. Planning a library now becomes much more than designing a building or a part thereof, it is planning a set of coordinated resources. The buildings and furniture are only a component in this set. Other components are communications devices and services—telephone, telegraph, radio, television, and computer capabilities.

To plan these coordinated resources requires crossing the conventional and traditional geographic boundaries; school district lines will become blurred—television signals and radio signals know nothing about county or state lines and city limits and school district bound-
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aries. These signals keep on going until distance or other barriers weaken or stop them. These extended services of the library must then be planned in concert with the administrators of a number of school districts, and jointly with state education agencies and other state, local, and Federal public and governmental services and agencies, with regional educational centers, colleges and universities, even with private agencies and enterprises.

Transportation services are also a factor; in fact, transportation and communication need to be seen as a unity. Until about a hundred and thirty years ago, communication required transportation, with rare exceptions such as the smoke signal, the drum, the cannonade, the signal flag and the trumpet. The messenger, the postal service, even the carrier pigeon, all use transportation to communicate. But since the invention and use of almost instantaneous communication by wire or wireless, carrying messages by vehicles and conveying them by communications media must be viewed simultaneously.

C. Walter Stone says this about library functions: "To put it more specifically for one type of library, performance of the library function on a university campus should mean provision of the full range of recorded communication and information services (including necessary reproduction) required to sustain instruction and research." Similar statements can be made about a secondary school library, or an elementary school library, for that matter.

So the library, and the school where it is located, are no longer bound by the limits of one building, one site, one school, one district, one state, or even one nation, because the school has become interconnected by a network of communication-transportation capabilities. The library is no longer primarily a place, it is a service.

Stone goes on:

"What will libraries look like in the future?" The question is less perceptive than, "How may the library function be carried forward?" A single but important error about future library development has cropped up. The error is reflected in such a statement as: "The sort of library I envision doesn't exist anywhere today, at least not in one place, although various aspects of it can be seen by viewing libraries separately in places where they are now developing." The point is that in the future it will probably be less and less necessary to have all the pieces of a library program in one place so long as the program parts can be linked together in networks and the resources of each part deployed to support an over-all
system. The library of the future is not wisely conceived as a place at all, but rather as a far-flung network composed of units of various sizes and types, each of which may perform similar as well as different functions, but all of which will be linked together electromechanically.7

The question is repeated, "where does the library end and where does the rest of the school begin?" We can add the question, "where does the school end and where does the community begin?" It might be well if the library, the school and the community, possibly including the world, are all considered parts of the same fabric, a continuum, tied together with a coordinated system of communication and transportation services.

What will the costs be for so diverse and seemingly elaborate services and facilities? That is hard to say, but obviously not to be ignored. Here is another duty for the library and media people, for other educators and their consultants: to make the economic studies which these decisions will entail in order to determine the outcomes for human development and betterment which are at least two goals of education.

Assessment of educational progress, appraisal of results of learning processes is always difficult, but the large number of options and choices now available to educational agencies and schools makes inevitable the question: how much "educational value" do we get for the money spent for this great variety of resources? To answer that question is not the objective of this article.

The new publication Standards for School Media Programs should be useful immediately. It should, therefore, probably not set forth standards and minimum recommendations which are unreasonable and unattainable. The standards should not cause frustration by demanding unachievable goals. But for the alert educator—administrator, librarian, teacher—this book may be settling for too little. It may not be presenting a hard enough challenge to the best of schools, and even the best of the standards may not be good enough. The 1969 standards are likely to be too low for what ought to be taking place in education in the immediate tomorrow, if not today. It might be unfair, however, to expect the media centers to contribute dramatically to the change that should be taking place in the processes of education and in the structure and organization of what is called the school. If it is acknowledged that this new book will need to be updated and revised in just a few years, then this 1969 statement may
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yet provide a thrust to the greater improvement that education demands.

A final comment about architecture. As educators view the possibilities of the new media and devices, and take a hard look at the dollars, they must remember that all this is for people. Planning library and media services and buildings is still primarily preparing an environment in which people can profitably and beneficially interact with the media and with each other. Planning libraries will continue to require the organizing of space for delight as well as utility and the designing of devices and the arranging of resources for the efficient and effective use by people—the students and teachers, and also the management and service staff of the media center.

References

3. Ibid., p. 112.
4. Ibid., p. 119.
Technological Advances Affecting School Instructional Materials Centers

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The non-book technology presently available is grossly inadequate to support the kind of school media program envisioned by the new Standards For School Media Programs. Very little of the currently available instructional technology is designed to support individual use of the vastly expanded collection of educational media. Specialists in the field have been forced to adapt existing devices for use in the media center with the resultant technological over-kill. The dearth of well-designed, quiet, inexpensive student-media interface devices for use in carrels in individual or small-group inquiry is one of the chief factors affecting more comprehensive use of media designed for this purpose. An examination of the current issue of The Audio-Visual Equipment Directory supports the general thesis of “more of the same.”

Manufacturers of educational equipment have not kept pace with the current developments in curriculum and educational methodology. To be sure, the self-contained classroom with its typically undersize screen, a 16m.m. projector, record player, and possibly an overhead projector along with the ever present chalkboard is the overwhelming reality, but increasingly, schools are building and equipping facilities to support individual student use of media. The available equipment for this individual and small group use of media is what is lacking. Equipment designed for the thirty student classroom just does not fit well in a 2' × 3' carrel and is much too heavy for an elementary school youngster to carry home.

The school media center, if it is to serve as a vital force in education, must be greatly expanded beyond its traditional role as a repository for books to encompass that of an information center which

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houses books, films, tapes, slides, games and instructional programs that make use of integrated multimedia formats designed to implement specific learning objectives. The media specialist or educational technologist has the task and responsibility of freeing teachers to work with children as individuals, an often expressed goal that has been seldom realized. Instead of making education more mechanical, technology provides educators with their first opportunity to truly humanize teaching and learning.

The various quantitative statistics representing holdings of various media and equipment which are advocated in the recent revision of the 1960 Standards for School Libraries are realistic support levels for school programs attempting any type of innovative program. Team teaching, individually prescribed learning and non-graded programs all require high levels of material support from educational technology. The use of non-print materials must be made as simple for the student as the use of the book. This implies a new family of devices for use in the instructional materials center that may easily be moved in and out of carrels for use in the center, classroom, or home. Educators must begin to demand technological devices that are designed for specific educational tasks, rather than continue to adapt educational materials and methods to existing devices. Manufacturers cannot be blamed completely for the situation for few educational media specialists have taken the trouble to communicate with equipment suppliers concerning their needs.

Characteristics of Media Interface Units. What are the characteristics of the new interface units needed by educators and students in the new instructional materials centers?

1. Devices are needed for individual or small group use of conventional media. They should be designated for use by two or three students at most.

2. Since these units will be used in the center where a variety of learning activities will probably be going on simultaneously, they should operate as quietly as possible.

3. Lamp life should be measured in terms of years instead of hours. Low output levels needed for small screen presentation should make this feasible.

4. Devices should be visually pleasing with controls well marked, color coded or otherwise human engineered so that a pre-school child may use materials with a minimum of supervision or instruction.

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5. A design goal of continual operation demands a drastic shift of engineering emphasis from the level currently available. This equipment will be in use constantly rather than the occasional use now found in most school programs. Anyone who has attempted to use equipment in a self-instruction laboratory will be sympathetic to this requirement. The teaching machine must have an even greater resistance to breakdown than the teacher.

6. Provisions should be built into equipment to clean and lubricate film or tapes automatically as materials are used. This is especially important when encapsulated media such as 8 m.m. loop films or tape cartridges are used.

7. Claws, sprockets and other similar film handling components should be eliminated in order to minimize damage and prolong the life of teaching materials.

8. Encapsulation of all materials should be encouraged if they lend themselves to this type of packaging.

9. Standardization of formats should be demanded. New formats should be encouraged because of their technological superiority rather than because of economics.

10. Components subject to wear or deterioration should be easily replaceable, preferably without the use of tools. Integrated circuits, standard components, unitized construction and modular design all contribute to simple maintenance and minimal downtime.

Storage and Circulation of Non-Print Materials. Considerable thought needs to be given to the design and construction of storage units for non-book materials. It may be feasible to design a family of modular containers that makes use of standard library shelving; however, special storage cabinets for each type of media have not proven to be very suitable. Containers for sound filmstrips, films, tape recordings, film loops and filmstrips need to be designed so that these materials may be housed on standard shelving with appropriate space on the container for numbering and teachers’ guides or other descriptive information. The plastic containers now available for 16 m.m. films and 8 m.m. film loops provide at least a starting point for thinking along these lines. Perhaps plastic foam inserts could be placed in a standard size container so that a complete set of filmstrips or an individual title could be accommodated in the same type of modular container. Storage and circulation of non-print materials represent one of the biggest headaches to the media librarian. Hinges and latches
on containers need to be designed for long wear. Semi-rigid folders of plastic sheathing for the storage of long playing recordings having sufficient space on the spine for accession or catalog numbers would also be appreciated. Where media is to be circulated to students for use in carrels in the media center, or even for home study, new storage and circulation formats are necessary.

Machines are being used in many public libraries for circulation control. These devices are a tremendous help in speeding up the charging of materials. Student ID cards should be planned to mesh with the library system so that different cards are not required. We need to be concerned with the human use of human beings in all phases of the operation of the instructional materials center. We need to concentrate our attention on each repetitive task performed by the professional library staff with a view toward designing systems whereby technology may take over the bulk of these operations. Professional staff need to be able to spend their time with teachers and students. The age is past when we can afford to spend our time lovingly pasting pockets in books and carefully divining the appropriate Dewey number to the third decimal place for each new piece of material.

Instructional media specialists are being swamped with materials purchased under Titles I and II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Completely processed instructional media is a must. There is no reason why each individual librarian in each individual school across the land should be spending his time processing materials. Centralized processing and the commercial processing services are essentials; however, why not take the ultimate step and require the processing of all materials by the original publisher or manufacturer? The school market is now so large that it represents a major source of income for publishers. In some school systems months and even years pass before new materials can be processed for circulation. This is where technology can truly make a significant contribution.

The Computer. While computers offer the potential of unlimited information storage and retrieval, and a possible way to expand student access to information, very little of this potential is currently available to the typical school instructional material center. A discussion of needed systems design, information processing strategies and an overview of the problem of man-machine interfaces with the ever growing body of knowledge is contained in an excellent book by
Licklider. Some of the unsolved problems outlined in his book, *Libraries of the Future*, concern the limiting factor of computer memory in relation to the sum total of human knowledge and the lack of suitable audio-visual output devices. The knowledge of the ages at our fingertips represents a goal and vision, not a present reality that will affect the school media center in the near future. While computer storage and retrieval of information represents the only hope for the overwhelming task of information processing, the elementary and secondary schools have information support needs that are not at all of the same magnitude as those of a major university. Space needs for media storage and circulation for an elementary school of 500 or a secondary school of 2,500 can still be met with present technologies.

A number of elementary and secondary schools have experimented with shared-time computer access in such curriculum areas as math and language arts. The computer projects at the Brentwood Elementary School in Palo Alto, California, and Project Plato based at the American Institute for Research at Stanford University (which involves several schools around the country connected with leased long lines) are important, innovative and well-funded research programs directed toward establishing parameters for computer contributions in education. The costs of computer hardware, shared time charges, line fees, and terminal equipment, all represent sizable investments with the current state of the art. Costs of program development for computer-assisted instruction are also very high.

It is important to remember that the computer is not a thinking machine and cannot make decisions, give answers or provide instruction not previously programmed into memory tapes, discs or cores. Highly detailed instructional sequences must be built for computerized teaching with presentation sequencing and testing programmed for a specific computer language. This task will undoubtedly be accomplished over a period of years as more sophisticated and learner-oriented terminal devices are developed.

The instructional materials center of today should be planned so that space will be set aside for computer terminal equipment which probably will be adjacent to the center. This could be in the form of a glass-walled conference area which will still allow identification with the center and the necessary sound attenuation for the terminal equipment.

*Audio-Video Retrieval Systems.* Much has been made in recent years
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of dial controlled random access systems. This terminology conjures up an image for the unsophisticated and unwary of a student snugly seated in a study carrel equipped with a telephone dial, headset and television receiver, who is capable of commanding instant contact with the assembled knowledge of the ages. However, some of the realities of the situation are:

1. Audio and video programs must be preplanned and produced for the specific tape format designed into the system. These materials, adaptable to specific curriculum objectives, are generally not available commercially.

2. Audio tape programs are generally stacked so that four programs are contained on one tape deck. The first student dialing into any one of the four programs preempts the tape deck and accessibility to the other three programs.

3. Video retrieval play units are expensive and, candidly, not very reliable in automatic access modes. Video tape recorders are remarkable instruments and have been improved greatly in recent years, but they still are not as reliable as their audio counterparts, and require frequent “human preventative” maintenance.

A recently announced random access audio retrieval system would appear to offer a promising solution to some of these problems. In this system, master tape programs are transferred at high speed to student buffer recorders so that transfer of a fifteen minute real time program is accomplished in thirty seconds, thus freeing the master tape for additional student access. The system involves the use of a special purpose computer which controls the various functions of access, switching and student use of transferred tapes. Video retrieval is not available currently as a part of this system. New types of video tape transports are under development at Ampex Corporation as a final phase in this system development. The audio system is currently in operation at Oak Park and River Forest High School in Oak Park, Illinois.

Duplication of audio program materials as needed to cassette format for student use in the instructional materials center may be an acceptable alternative to the system just described. Programs would be shelved for student retrieval just as books, filmstrips or other materials are currently handled. Cassette recorders are small, light weight and inexpensive. Students could check out these devices and the appropriate tape to a carrel or for home use. Costs of a computer controlled
random retrieval system may easily approach $250,000. A fraction of
this will purchase cassettes tape units and tape stock along with a
duplicating device. Video access is available inexpensively by simply
providing coaxial distribution systems to each carrel or classroom.
Programs may be fed to standard small screen R.F. receivers in these
locations from a half inch format video recorder through appropriate
modulating equipment designed for free VHF channels in the area.
Head end equipment would involve approximately $2,000 per channel.
Carrel receivers are available for $100 to $150 each. This is a demand
system. The student would pick up a phone or intercom unit and
request that, for example, yesterday’s science tape be played to his
viewing location. The technician or instructional aide would inform
the student of the channel to be used and place the tape on the
appropriate tape deck. This is a simple, inexpensive system that works
well. Recordings of broadcast programs may be taped and retained
for subsequent play or replay for follow-up use by teachers and
students. Original materials may be created with the addition of a
studio facility to this basic video library equipment.

**Center Design Problems.** The integration of technology into the
traditional library facility involves a number of specific design con-
siderations. A few suggestions based on observation of both new and
remodeled instructional materials centers are discussed below.

Centers are typically designed with inadequate electrical power.
Outlets are too few in number and often located in back of stack units.
The use of microfilm readers and printers, filmstrip viewers, audio
tape units, record players, listening tables, and film projectors and
viewers requires much expanded electrical service. Generally a sep-
arately fused twenty amp circuit is required for each bank of four
carrels; carrels are often designed without power unless specifically
requested. Supplementary illumination and a furniture design that
lends itself to the addition of instructional technology should be kept
in mind. The design should include as a minimum a perforated un-
derpanel and tubular legs to accommodate electronic equipment and
distribution systems. Each carrel should be supplied with two duplex
outlets, one located above the work surface. Carrel lights should be
wired directly into the underpanel power supply in order to free both
carrel outlets for viewing and listening equipment.

Power and audio-video distribution within the center should be de-
signed so that all tables, chairs, and other furniture are adjacent to
electrical outlets. Separate conduits must be provided for audio and video distribution systems; these two systems require advanced planning for carrel location in respect to power sources or the use of some type of flexible ducting. Conduits for distribution of recorded audio and video programs should also be placed in conference rooms and any satellite facilities.

Areas should be planned so that lighting may be controlled and lower light levels are possible. Lighting zones should be created in order to provide varying levels for different viewing tasks. Special display lighting for working with three-dimensional materials is a necessity. Alternatives to the standard 100 foot candles of illumination in every area of the media center should be considered and more than one switch for all fixtures should be installed.

Another must in the instructional resources center is acoustical flooring. The acoustical treatment of the environment is as important as good lighting or air conditioning. This area is going to be a busy one and the sounds of conversation, machines, and people require careful planning for sound control. A "quiet" sign is not the answer. Typewriters and teletype consoles will probably need to be placed in a glass-enclosed conference area. The sound produced by this equipment is distracting because of its discontinuous nature. The sound of conversation or running projectors is continuous and much less distracting. Placing acoustic materials in carrel walls is generally not worth the effort. Completely enclosed carrel designs should be approached with caution. Carrels should be placed in the center of the room and not in rows as they are in the typical language laboratory.

Needed Technology. It is encouraging to see that manufacturers are becoming aware of the requirements for new devices designed specifically for use in the instructional materials center. The new 16 m.m. film viewer designed and manufactured by Viewlex should go far in encouraging individual and small group use of 16 m.m. films. In the past, projectors designed for classroom use have been too large and heavy to work in learning carrels. Perhaps we can count on more specially designed devices becoming available in the near future. The following are suggestions for some needed items:

1. An 8 m.m. cartridge film viewer with a built-in 5" × 7" rear screen. Designed to operate quietly with some stop frame capability and accessory foot switch for hands-free control, this unit is a natural for a variety of individual self-instructional situations. The device

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should be capable of fitting on a shelf ten inches deep. Cartridge loading should be from the front and all controls should be front mounted for easy use. The design parameter should allow continuous operation.

2. A cassette recorder than can either be built permanently into a carrel or used in a portable mode. The unit should be sturdy, made of metal with an integral cover of protective material; it should have a keyed interlock for play-only mode of operation and a slide-filmstrip synchronizing control. For the accessory headset a standard phone jack should be used rather than one of the mini-plugs. This unit should be designed for heavy duty operation as it will be loaned to students for home use.

3. A superior-quality high-speed cassette duplicator for resource center use is needed as an accessory for current models of reel to reel duplicators.

4. Better designed devices for filmstrip, slide and microfilm viewing are needed to service both individuals and small groups.

It is important to realize that technology can be made a valuable part of the school resource center without going to dial retrieval systems. With a few new pieces of equipment expressly designed for media center services, any school can individualize its use of media and technology.

References


The Changing Nature of School Library Collections

LURA E. CRAWFORD

Ten years ago a student searching through the card catalog in his school library could expect to find books, pamphlets and periodicals listed for his assigned and personal quests. Today in a rapidly growing number of school libraries he would find indexed on cards or printout a larger number of books and pamphlets, and in addition, films, slides, filmstrips, discs, tapes, periodicals on microfilm, programmed learning texts, and remote access retrieval listings. Choosing from the materials available, he could decide to look, listen or read, or perhaps do all three. His chances for learning would seem to have improved.

To give all students the tools they need for learning must be the shared responsibility of all workers in the changing curriculum: the administrator, the supervisor, the researcher, the classroom teacher, as well as the librarian and media specialist. Indeed, as the Committee for Economic Development points out, “The task of improving education is the business of everyone—everyone who is concerned about the future.”

To find the right materials for the right child at the right time is not a new goal for librarians, but the means of achieving it have changed and expanded and, for the first time, give more realistic promise of fulfillment.

In a changing world, the explosion of knowledge, bursting school populations, new insights into the learning process, and phenomenal technological advances have combined to demand new curriculum patterns in the school. The upgrading of instruction following the launching of Sputnick; new concepts in the teaching of languages, the sciences and the social sciences; and the spread of the humanities movement, have all required significant, new, and additional instruc-

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tional materials for their development. The growth of team-teaching, flexible scheduling, and the strong emphasis on independent and individualized study have made essential the modern school media center, so ably interpreted by the Joint Committee of the American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audio-visual Instruction of the National Education Association in the new Standards for School Media Programs.2

Federal funds made many of the media programs and materials development possible. The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in April 1965, was a landmark in education, and has accelerated the development of instructional materials centers faster than any other agency.

To undergird this urgent effort to build the right environment for learning, the modern school needs an instructional materials center for its base of operation whether it is called a library audio-visual complex, a library-media center, or a learning resources area.

The concept of the school library as a center for all types of materials, still in the debating stage when the American Association of School Librarians issued its confirming statement in 1956, is now generally accepted. Not only do the new Standards for School Media Programs give complete and compelling guidelines for the selection and acquisition of print and non-print materials, but the regional and state standards for school accreditation, traditionally behind the national standards, are now including the multi-media approach in their criteria. The opening paragraph of the criterion for library, audio-visual, and instructional materials in the North Central Association's 1968-69 policy statement shows the change in materials expected of the modern school library center:

A coordinated instructional media program shall be organized so as to make accessible in any location a wide range of media to teachers and students. In addition to receiving, storing, retrieving, and displaying information in all forms both in a center and at other locations, equipment and personnel shall be available for the production of a wide range of media for students and faculty. The program shall be developed in such a way as to support instruction through appropriate facilities and professionally and technically prepared staff.3

Under the closing heading of "Exemplary or Optimal Conditions," this statement showing recognition of the changing nature of the school library's materials is given:
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Careful study is made of advances in electronic learning devices and appropriate efforts are made to incorporate them for use in the library facility. A modern information retrieval system should be an important objective of the faculty and administration.4

In the years since their passage, several states have incorporated into their own state standards the American Library Association's 1960 Standards for School Library Programs6 which advocate the provision of printed and audio-visual resources necessary for effective teaching and learning.

Under the ESEA Title II program many states have revised their library standards to include a multi-media approach. Jones and Moses, program specialists in the school library section of the Office of Education, state: "It is evident that State standards show an increased emphasis on the school library as a center for many types of materials, both printed and audio-visual."6 They cite new standards developed in California, Oregon and Indiana which provide guidelines for the provision and use of a wide variety of instructional materials.

A report of the ESEA Title II program indicates that the states continued to give priority to school library resources over textbooks and other instructional materials. The amount expended for school library resources in 1967 was $83.8 million, or about 92 percent of the entire amount: $20.2 million, or 21 percent was spent for audio-visual materials, a gain of 2 percent over the amount spent in 1966.7,8 This seems to indicate significant state and local interest and effort in developing school media programs where a full range of materials is organized and made available for teachers and students.

The table of categories in the report gives the following breakdown of the number of materials acquired in the categories listed under school library resources:8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Materials</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL LIBRARY RESOURCES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>21,522,782</td>
<td>$83,813,850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodicals</td>
<td>17,917,392</td>
<td>61,536,291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Printed Materials</td>
<td>204,469</td>
<td>938,769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audiovisual Materials</td>
<td>489,933</td>
<td>1,098,078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motion Pictures</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filmstrips</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recordings</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slides and Transparencies</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programed Instruction Materials</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps, Charts, etc.</td>
<td>2,910,983</td>
<td>20,240,712</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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In 1967 and 1968, thirty states made special purpose grants to provide instructional programs for the use of children and teachers in special or exemplary instructional programs. As a result it is estimated that in 1967 more than two hundred special grants were funded with expenditures for materials totaling an estimated $6.6 million. The state catalogs describing the projects funded by these grants indicate many interesting and creative programs involving a variety of instructional resources. They should have an impact on schools for years to come. Even the projects that failed to be funded gained from self-evaluation. This was also found to be the experience of the applicants for participation in the Knapp School Libraries Demonstration Project.

Attractive cover designs on the publications describing the Special Purpose Projects developed by Ohio and New York carry the symbols of all the tools of learning. The Ohio brochure indicates a multi-media collection of materials for each plan, and the involvement of the librarian in the planning staff. A bibliography of materials used was made available to other school districts. Any participant in a demonstration program knows that the traditional library bibliography remains in great demand.

The change is the demand for bibliographies that include non-print as well as printed materials. In the Knapp School Libraries Project, lists of audio-visual materials were always eagerly received by visitors. The need for the inclusion of materials in all the media is slowly being reflected in the library publications. The 1968 publication of the National Association of Independent Schools' 4000 Books for Secondary School Libraries included for the first time 250 non-book items, including recordings, sources for art reproduction, filmstrips and slides. The University of Southern California and McGraw-Hill are planning a revised version of the Educational Media Index, which could give helpful subject listings for non-print media.

The past decade has seen an increasing use of microfilm in school libraries. Hundreds of schools have already bought microfilm equipment. Goodwin and Murphy, authors of a new curriculum service bulletin of The New York Times, state that within the next five or ten years "all school libraries deserving the name" will be using microfilm.

In the past and present probably the greatest service offered by microfilm for school libraries has been to store and preserve periodicals and newspapers. Erbes reports that Reavis High School Library, one of the pioneers to use extensive micro-filming of periodicals, after
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thirteen years accepts such use as "a way of life." Besides the advantages of saving space and the avoidance of loss and mutilation of magazines, students learn the operation of another library tool which will prove useful in college or later life.

Pearson and Marchak in their introduction to Focus on the News, a University Microfilms' social studies guide, point out that this student generation faces fields of learning more extensive than any generation before has ever faced. With the new emphasis on inquiry and independent study in all the curriculum areas, students need source materials more than ever. In addition to duplication of such material made possible by paperbacks, now libraries can secure out-of-print primary sources from the firms producing microfilms.

Along with the importance of the planned reference use of periodicals on microfilm, there is a wealth of knowledge and experience to be learned by the student who does some browsing on his own. Perhaps the student who wrote on a history quiz that Lincoln's body was flown back to Springfield would have had a different idea if he had viewed the funeral cortège on a reel of Harper's Weekly or The New York Times. A more perceptive student doing a research paper on the era of corruption observed that the Thomas Nast cartoons he secured from the reader-printer made the real impact for his project.

An interesting microfilm project was developed at Shaker High School in Latham, New York, where some eleventh grade social studies teachers and students viewed thirty-three reels of microfilm of Early American periodicals originally published between 1791 and 1850 to find selections pertinent for a high school curriculum. The school librarian observed that the emphasis on independent study has made microfilmed periodicals essential as primary source materials. A history teacher in the project said, "The day may be soon upon us when high school history will utilize only a guided outline in the classroom and microfilm or facsimile reprints of books and periodicals in the library. Then my students will be close to living history, not just reading about it."

Four of New York State's Title II "Lamp" Projects (Library and Multimedia Projects) had the development of microfilm collections of periodicals for their objective. The Irondequoit Central School District No. 3 plan purposes: "to develop a five year microfilm collection of periodicals to support individual research projects in American studies, world religions, contemporary literature, and comparative government on the senior high school level." Chittenango Central Schools gave as its objective: "To develop an
expanded microfilm collection of selected periodicals and original source materials for use by secondary students utilizing the conceptual approach to the social studies.” 16

Microfilm seems to be used extensively in schools with the individualized learning approach such as Wyomissing High School in Pennsylvania and Nova High School in Florida. The Palo Alto Senior High School Library discovered that the microfilmed materials “ appealed to the low range student who enjoyed studying something other than a textbook, and to the high range student who thrilled at using original source material.” 17 The writer has observed this same sense of satisfaction which students with varying abilities derive from the use of microfilm and other technological devices.

The description 18 of a regional career information center to be established in the San Diego County Department of Education has interesting possibilities for other libraries in building vocational information collections. Data on types of careers are reduced to microfilm cards, called viewscripts, for each job. These materials were developed for the youth who does not intend to go to college. Similar programs could be produced for the college-bound student.

The Apex Program (Area Program for Enrichment Exchange) in Los Angeles City School District included a most sophisticated collection of reference and source materials for students being trained in college-level procedures, a collection which is superior to many college collections.

The modern comprehensive school program presents both challenge and opportunity to the library-media specialists who need to explore all types of materials in order to implement a wide curriculum which attempts to meet all the needs of all the students regardless of background or abilities. The modern school librarian or media specialist cannot function in isolation. This writer held her first large scale library-in-the-school exhibit in 1936. The purpose of the exhibit was “an attempt to show, in graphic form, the essential place of the library in the modern secondary school.” 19 There were not any sophisticated electronic devices represented, but in the home economics exhibit it is noted there were stereoscope pictures and lantern slides of fiber production.

Today the librarian would be working with the teacher to produce a slide tape presentation, and hopefully looking forward to an electronic retrieval system of coordinated video and audio tapes. Today’s school librarian will not only be using new media, but will be con-
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fronted with new subjects and new instructional approaches. Russian language, calculus, philosophy, African studies, Asian studies, Afro-American history, and humanities are new names in the course books, all requiring new materials. More than ever the librarian-media selector will need to get suggestions from the faculty and be alert to all selection aids and reviews. Ideally, in sizable schools the library staff itself will have staff members trained in the various disciplines who can work with these subject teachers.

The trend toward advanced placement, flexible scheduling and independent study have all accelerated the demands on the library. DAVI's Highlights of Schools Using Educational Media lists fifty-two schools with individualized instructional programs. They range from Anchorage, Alaska, where children are encouraged to check out equipment and materials including film strips, film loops, records, and books for their individual study, to Oconomowoc, Wisconsin, where the Summit Elementary Schools run an innovative program in its multi-media center by "focusing attention upon individual differences and by using educational technology to meet individual needs." 21

In 1968, Ohio's Title II Special Purpose Grants listed eleven Independent Study Projects more than it listed any other instructional approach. The Findlay City High School developed a special collection of independent study materials in language arts-social studies, mathematics-science, and vocational education, located in four resource centers which are satellites to the main high school library and A-V center. In a separate school building housing grades five and six, the Hudson Local School built a multi-media collection for independent and small group study projects in the fields of social, earth, and life sciences. The collection was housed in the school library and twenty-two teachers, a librarian, and an elementary education director were involved.

All the educators writing on independent study concede that good instructional materials are necessary. In Independent Study: Bold New Venture, Beggs says:

Rich resources are a must for good independent study program. Students must have a variety of materials available. Materials vary in point-of-view, depth reading difficulty, and emphasis. 22

Beggs goes on to say that some will be amazed to see the new use the library and audiovisual collection gets by both teachers and students. Teachers will make suggestions, sometimes demands, for adding
to the school’s holdings. Beggs adds that some schools have established means whereby students in high school can make suggestions about additions which need to be made in the collection of the reading and visual materials. He also suggests that some independent study projects may find their way into the regular school collection, since a depth study of a topic by a student may be a valuable resource for others.

The last suggestions are fairly common practice in most school libraries. This librarian has received excellent suggestions for years from classes of one English teacher who contribute recommendations as part of their search for material. An independent study class in Asian studies had its best papers put on reserve in the library for other students to read. This same school maintains a special collection of authors who graduated from the school. One team-teaching class in American studies makes the small-group tapes they prepare available to the rest of the class.

In the University of Oregon Curriculum Bulletin, *Independent Study in Secondary Schools*, Garner states:

To effectively utilize their free independent study time, students must have access to individual guidance and well equipped study facilities. The assistance of teachers, counselors, and librarians is needed to organize study time and direct the learning of study skills. Adequate study materials available to students in the school’s learning resource centers are necessary for the depth study and research required of independent study projects.

Trump maintains that independent study is the heart of the school program, and that the success of any educational program depends ultimately on the degree to which students develop skills and responsibility for their own learning.\(^\text{23}\)

Garner reiterates the now accepted concept of the library as the focal point of the modern “learning resource center” concept. “In the library or under its organization, there should be study materials for reading, viewing and listening.”\(^\text{23}\)

Garner includes a discussion of resource centers with Cardinelli’s list of general recommendations for the selection of books and other materials for a social studies learning resource center:

Approximately 100-200 reference books
Encyclopedias
Comprehensive world atlas
6-10 magazines espousing different points of view
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Dictionaries
Pamphlet and clipping files
Facsimiles of famous documents
Pictures of historical nature
Portraits of national and world leaders
Supplementary texts
Biographical titles to supplement and enrich the subject
Fiction titles related to the study area to motivate students to independent reading
Library catalog of materials in resource center
Catalog of visual aids available from a central depository
Films, filmstrips, and slides relating to the study area
Recordings, tape and disc
Readers' Guide
Selection of materials to fit needs of children of various abilities

Such a resource center as described above will need to be stocked and staffed. Garner indicates that faculty and library staff must work together:

If resource centers such as the one described above are to be effectively utilized there must be provision for independent study time within students' schedules. Also, teachers must make assignments and help students to decide upon projects which will require them to use the available resources. The traditional type of assignment will not meet independent study needs. Teachers must be trained to give assignments which will motivate students to use the resources and which will develop research skills. Here again the need for teacher-librarian cooperation is pointed out.

One example of close cooperation between a teacher and librarian in developing together the materials and their use for an Asian Studies course is described in the Knapp Project publication, Realization. This independent study program offered college-bound seniors an opportunity to use a wide variety of sources. Together, the librarian and the teacher selected the essential materials including a basic, college-level collection of five hundred book titles, appropriate domestic and foreign periodicals, the Sandak slide collection on the arts
of Japan, and a complete run of the *Journal of Asian Studies* on microfilm. Tapes made from visiting lecturers who came in person or spoke by tele-lecture formed an interesting collection for present and future use. Students also developed many tapes of their own. Cooperative arrangements were made with colleges and universities in the area permitting the students to use their resources. The social studies teacher acknowledged, "My whole Project of Independent Study in Asian history could never have been the success that it was without the expert library assistance and materials."

The subject resource centers developed at the Oak Park and River Forest High School, described in the *Illinois Journal of Education*, have provided the opportunity for students, librarians, and teachers to work together, and have given the impetus to independent study programs. The materials in all the resource centers include a substantial book collection of 800 to 1000 volumes, periodicals (seventeen for math and science, twelve for art and twenty plus for foreign languages, plus backfiles of four science titles on microfilm), pamphlets, tapes, 8 m.m. short concept films, slides, and art prints.

In the carrels of the mathematics and science resource center students may look at 8 m.m. short concept films for reinforcement of a principle presented in class; use the calculators for mathematics and science data; punch paper tapes on a teletypewriter for transmitting programs to the Illinois Institute of Technology's computer, or read a science-fiction paperback.

For three years these resource centers have given students opportunities for independent study, but the real breakthrough for individualized learning has come with the development of a random access retrieval system which gives the student "what he wants when he wants it."

In his 1968 report on the Oak Park and River Forest Random Access Information Center, Ted Johnson, director of the Title III Project, emphasizes the greater individualization of instruction and independent study made possible by the technology providing random access: "The choices available to the student are increased in quantity and kind. . . . Audio and visual materials are made at least as accessible as print material." Johnson asserts that the work of librarians, teachers and students is made more interdependent than ever with a central automated distribution system.

Johnson states:

The library can become the focal point of the school's entire
program of instruction if a total information and communication system is established.

The rationale of the retrieval system insists the new technologies of information handling and communication are now essential tools for a full program of library services. The days of the library as a book and pamphlet center passed some time ago. Today the library must serve listening and viewing as well as reading. The sights and sounds of human interchange are today as basic as the printed words. If the sights and sounds are to be handled effectively and efficiently by libraries, appropriate listening and viewing facilities must be designed and established. Automated electronic and mechanical retrieval systems can provide an unmatched convenience and flexibility in access to audio and visual materials.27

This writer, working with the project described above, has seen students stimulated by audio tapes turn to reading. English teachers reported that freshmen showed more enthusiasm for their study of mythology after listening to the “World of Myths and Legends” on tapes. Seniors studying the craft of poetry find it interesting to listen to the poets themselves discuss their meter and rhythm. A student having trouble with radicals repeats the tape with the accompanying work sheet until he masters them, while the student in the carrel next to him listens to Molière’s Tartuffe in preparation for her advanced placement French exam. A physical science student nearby doing an in-depth study of crystal structure listens to a tape, “Crystals: The Tetrahedron,” with accompanying filmstrip made by a creative instructional materials designer on the project production staff.

Obviously technology in itself cannot produce quality instructional programs. The media staff and the faculty working together must be able to select and sometimes produce the materials that will make significant programs for the student, programs worth his retrieval. The curriculum workers in the library and the classroom must be trained and oriented to recognize significant materials for learning both in print and non-print forms. Development of these needed skills and training should be part of their pre-service and in-service education.

It is heartening to read the proposed new standards of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education which incorporate the need for provision of technology in the prospective teacher’s training:

4.2 The Materials and Instructional Media Center

Equipment and resource materials in support of teaching have been developed extensively and improved markedly. A program for
preparing teachers should make use of such equipment and materials in two important ways: prospective teachers should know how to make use of modern technologies in teaching, and modern technologies should be utilized in the teacher education program.28

A materials laboratory or center should be maintained either as a part of the library or as a separate unit. In any case, it should be open to students as a laboratory of materials of instruction and should be directed by a faculty member well informed in the various instructional media and materials at different grade levels. This laboratory should include a wide array of books commonly used in elementary and secondary schools; various types of audiovisual aids such as maps, charts, pictures, filmstrips, and recordings; various types of materials used in evaluating learning; and curricular patterns, courses of study, and teaching units that are available.29

Individual studies that have been made by Gaver, Witt, and Walker (see Additional References) all show that the majority of prospective teachers are not well prepared in the use of library and instructional materials.

Similar conclusions were reached in the three studies of McKinney, Schmitz, and Tucker (see Additional References) on the use of the library materials by secondary school science teachers. However, in these latter studies the school librarians themselves showed a lack of use of specialized selection aids.

Too many school librarians are not being instructed in the use of all types of materials. Library schools need to establish the same materials laboratories as proposed by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. It should be helpful if the Library Education Division of the American Library Association would develop similar standards.

The many media and library institutes financed by Federal funds the past few years attest to the interest and need for help by librarians and teachers faced with the overwhelming array of instructional materials. During the summer of 1968 and the academic year of 1968-69 thirty-two institutes under the Higher Education Act of 1965 were or will be held dealing with some phase of media resources in schools ranging from Alaska to Guam.30

In spite of all the ferment working for better education there is the sobering thought that the changes may not be coming fast enough. According to the Committee for Economic Development's report on Innovation in Education, "The future of the schools depends in large part on whether they can overcome in educational policy and practice
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what is frequently an extreme conservatism and a strong resistance to change." ³¹

A checklist (see Table 1) of specific "Changes in School Library Collections:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHANGE IN SCHOOL LIBRARY COLLECTIONS: A CHECKLIST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased strength in foreign language collections since NDEA and Advanced Placement programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadening of social studies collections following new courses and units; i.e., Asian studies; Africa; the American Negro—urban problems. Source materials and period accounts used more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater variety and depth of titles to fit needs of independent study courses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build-up books in the arts and literature to satisfy needs for humanities courses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition of materials for philosophy courses offered in some secondary schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasis on science materials with constant updating for new developments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing use of paperbacks in all areas of library collections.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater sophistication of young readers requires more advanced reading materials. Elementary school pupils are reading titles formerly read in high school. High school students read many books formerly included in college courses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of professional materials for teachers investigating the new development in education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greater duplication of materials needed in schools with large enrollments to stock the various subject resource centers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing need to find suitable materials for the economically and culturally deprived at all grade levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased collections of vocational materials to meet the needs of noncollege bound students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased magazine holdings—in regular format and on microfilm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Programmed learning texts supplied.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increased use of pamphlets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased holdings in all areas and types of material due to Federal funds.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Collections" was given to a random sampling of school librarians who checked statements applicable to their present programs. More than 75 percent of the responding librarians confirmed that they were implementing ten of the sixteen listed changes. Fifty to 92 percent checked fourteen of the sixteen changes listed. However, only 35 percent listed supplying programmed texts; 42 percent noted “increase of professional materials for teachers investigating the new development in education.” The two items showing the clearest consensus were the “more advanced reading materials” and “emphasis on science materials with constant updating.”

The audio-visual holdings reported reflected differences in the administrative pattern of the schools' instructional materials. Two reported: “No connection with the audio-visual department.” (One of these is a new high school with the library and audio-visual departments in separate buildings.) Others reported cooperative arrangements. The categories of non-print materials most often reported by the librarians who were involved with A-V materials were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Films</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filmstrips</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tapes</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recordings</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slides</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prints</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recordings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One librarian added “kits” to the list. Nine reported using school-produced materials—chiefly transparencies. Two reported using remote access retrieval systems. Another noted such a system in the planning.

Samples of some of the librarian's comments on their materials are as follows:

- Tapes only kept in the building for juniors and seniors. (This in contrast to some elementary schools successfully using them in the lower grades.)
- Material on American Negro and urban problems not needed—from a suburban school, and a rural one. (Not a valid assumption, particularly with our mobile population.)
- Teachers of independent study courses use own materials. (Too limited a source.)
- Use philosophy materials in science physics course using experimental reading approach starting with the Greek philosophers.
- We do not use paperbacks—lack of space for such a collection. Will have in new library to a limited degree.
The Changing Nature of School Library Collections

Plan to have teachers' professional library in new four-floor library building.
Purchase widely for basic groups.
Need more vocational materials for the students who formerly quit at eighth grade level.
Microfilm used in senior high building only.
Programmed learning texts used sparingly because few are good.
In this new school the young faculty is textbook oriented. Librarians have to go to the teachers with lists to try to involve teachers in ordering materials.
Use of new social studies collections demanded opening of subject branch library with full-time specialist.
Finding suitable materials for the economically and culturally deprived may be our greatest challenge.

In addition to the checklist of changes in school library collections, the same librarians were polled for their current practices in selecting materials and making them available. The questions and a summary of the consensus of the sample comments follow:

1. How is a valid selection policy determined? When priorities have to be arrived at, is first priority given to materials which specifically undergird curriculum areas?

2. How are staff and students involved in selection?

All agreed that first priority was given to materials which specifically undergird curriculum areas.

The AASL Guidelines for Selection of School Library Materials, revised 1967, is an excellent statement for librarians concerned with this aspect of selection.

3. Is desirable material—regardless of format—given equal consideration or does one form have priority over another? Again: What determines the priority?

The librarians were evenly divided on this priority. Half gave priority to books, with hardbacks first choice. The other half said, "desirability of material" regardless of format was given first consideration.

4. What are valid practices in relation to duplicates?

The librarians were divided equally on the practice of duplication. One-half felt usage dictated the number of copies. The other half felt no more than five or six copies should be ordered of any title.
LURA E. CRAWFORD

5. Have you found that students are needing more advanced and mature materials than in the past? What, if any, is their preference in format?

The majority of the librarians felt students were using more advanced and mature materials than in past. Paperback format was given as the most popular.

The second annual bibliography of University Press Books for Secondary School Libraries shows the trend of publishers to bring scholarly and well-written books to the attention of school librarians.

6. What positive suggestions do you have for the improvement of various national lists prepared for school use?

The need for all media coverage and up-to-date materials was most frequently mentioned.

7. What are policies regarding interlibrary loans? Is each school's collection supposed to be self-sufficient?

The consensus of opinion favored a basic collection with interlibrary loan for special needs.

Microfilm technology and facsimile transmission, although still in the expensive experimental stage with a few libraries, can eventually solve the frustrating problems of interlibrary cooperation. Librarians must be alert to the new possibilities of inter-communication, and prepare their materials for the time when they will be exchanging with other libraries—far and near. The copyright laws will have to be revised for the protection of education which is surely in the "public interest."

The sixties have brought us closer to the concept of the library as part of an instructional system responding to teacher and student needs and even creating needs within that system. The media programmers of tomorrow must stay in the vanguard of the workers in education who are still seeking and striving to build the environments that will quicken the minds and hearts of the youth of our nation.

References


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The Changing Nature of School Library Collections

4. Ibid., p. 63.
9. Ibid., p. 2.
15. Ibid., . . . 1967-68.
16. Ibid., p. 9.
21. Ibid., p. 245.
24. Ibid., p. 9.
29. Ibid., p. 39.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES
Changing Staff Patterns and Responsibilities

HELEN F. RICE

The users of the school media center, students and teachers, are the key determiners in the staffing and operation of the school library. Users of the center should have the right to expect specialized and auxiliary staff (1) to provide needed services in support of the educational program with materials and facilities available in sufficient numbers and of appropriate capabilities to implement constructive use of collections and equipment, (2) to provide orientation toward maintaining a climate for a receptive and understanding attitude toward individual students, and (3) to provide imagination in exercising a leadership role in making materials for learning relevant for the students and teachers which the library serves.

The student in today's and tomorrow's schools is an increasingly more independent learner—indepen dent in his approach to learning and in the rate which paces his progress. He is critical in his selection and appraisal of materials of learning. He expects to determine how long he will spend in making a concept functional for him. In scheduling patterns which allow the student to determine the way he will allocate his time, with a varying number of class periods per subject and no commitment on where he will spend the same period each day, independence in his decision making is fostered. He expects to have the opportunity for dialogue with a variety of specialized personnel and services. Students are aware of the accessibility of information through retrieval systems which have replaced the method of each student making the search—a very time consuming process. Frances Henne, reminds us: "In the viewpoint of many school librarians the mere process of locating and finding materials in the library holds little intellectual benefit for students, and time thus spent is generally wasted time. The many processes involved in what students do with

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materials—evaluation, synthesis, reflection, thinking, appreciation, or whatever—are the important factors, not the searching, locating, and assembling of materials." ¹

The teacher no longer wishes to isolate herself in the classroom but welcomes working as a member of a team made up of teachers, librarians, counselors, and other staff members. He or she is no longer content with a textbook, but uses a variety of sources and materials including the tool designed to her specifications for a particular learning task. The teacher is the manager of resources which can enable learners to enter into a self-regulating encounter with what is to be learned. The selecting and assembling of resources of many kinds, assessing needs, and setting up and supervising situations maximizing the time spent by students with the newly varied materials for study, challenges the total capabilities of the professional staff.

These users of school media centers will expect the personnel of the center to be varied in its capabilities. There should be subject area specialists, technical specialists, assistants and clerks who work as a coordinated whole to deal with the communications process. Libraries in the more traditional sense, have added the means for learning through listening and viewing. The organization and operation of instructional systems, i.e. closed circuit television, computer-assisted instruction, dial access information storage and retrieval, requires technical specialists who are also knowledgeable about learning theory and the curriculum.

The operation of the media center must be the responsibility of a person who has capabilities in administration, a knowledge of learning theory and educational psychology, of literature and other materials for children and young people. This requires a sensitivity to people—human relations—because the head of the center will work at the decision-making level with the administration of the district and the school. Assuming this role of true leadership in planning and implementing the program, the head of the center will make the changes for a forward-looking educational program. Chapter II of the Standards for School Media Programs, 1969, outlines the responsibilities of the head of the school media program. The verbs of the listing are descriptive of the role: "plans . . . schedules . . . reports . . . assists . . . creates . . . maintains . . . has status." ² This is a new role for many librarians who have been content with the detail of clerk's duties. Lester Asheim has said "Librarians are not the only persons who work in libraries . . . narrow the use of the term 'librarian' to designate
Changing Staff Patterns and Responsibilities

those who are qualified by background and training to go beyond the
level of application of established rules and techniques to the analysis
of library problems and the formulation of original and creative solu-
tions for them." 3

Lack of clearly defined responsibilities of each staff member has
limited the full employment of special talents and skills of the large
group termed "librarians" or media specialists. Mary Gaver has
stated the problem clearly:

in the system having the benefit of a supervisor, there ought cer-
tainly to be careful attention to the development of definitions and
job classifications of all positions in the school libraries of the
system.

The purpose of such classification should be at least two-fold—to
make full and effective use of the professionals in the system and to
tailor the positions to fit the manpower which is available. 4

Student users of school media centers will expect this personnel group
to offer services which require the making of judgments that will aid
the user to get to the right library materials. This group of personnel
workers will aid the student by (1) being able to use all types of
media in assisting a student in independent study, (2) being as know-
ledgeable about a subject area as any specialist on the faculty, (3)
having available challenging materials for student use, (4) instructing
the student in the use of materials of the center, (5) giving direction to
assistants in creation of materials required by students for learning
and (6) showing an enthusiasm for serving the needs of student users.
Teacher users expect this group to (1) act as members of teaching
teams for planning, (2) act as resources for design of learning systems,
and (3) provide a professional collection to bring current educational
practices to the attention of the faculty.

In addition to the head of the media center supported by specialists
in various subject fields and with special materials, the student and
teacher will expect personnel familiar with the library function and
who can assist the learning process through a broad general education
background applied to student needs through a continuing education
in librarianship. This group has many skills needed to work with stu-
dents and should not be kept out of libraries by requirements of cer-
tification. Emerging Library Systems states the case thus:

No one questions the continuing necessity for the most intensive
and effective training programs, the importance of professional and
library-oriented judgment in matters that are essentially "library"
in nature, or the need for the most attractive employment conditions. Questions are being raised, however, with increasing frequency, as to whether it is always necessary that librarians—persons with imagination and a real understanding of the library's mission in their special fields—attend a prescribed number of hours in library school classrooms after receiving the bachelor's degree, in order to be able to make a professional contribution in the field of librarianship.

When the library profession was very young and was necessarily struggling for status and recognition, there undoubtedly was a need for a more rigid adherence to an educational formula. It would seem that there is no longer this need to go on proving that librarianship is indeed a profession. The library profession should by now have reached a stage of maturity where it might dare to allow persons who have a significant contribution to make to take their place in a library, with full status and remuneration, even though they may not have travelled all the way along the orthodox training route.

This is not meant to imply that present professional library training is not useful and important. Much of it is immensely useful, especially for certain library situations. It can, however (with some changes), be made even more so and all of the evidence suggests that the time for absolute subservience to a rigid requirement system is long past.

All advanced positions in libraries need not necessarily be filled by library school graduates. There is not only room for but need for other specialists. There is also a place for persons intensively trained on the job and working under the general direction of professional supervisors. In-service training, subject specialization, training and experience in related fields, more "borrowing" of courses in formal education (government, public administration, communications, etc.) are examples of the kind of preparation which not only might help to relieve the librarian shortage, but would bring much to the profession. The concept of a library team, as in team teaching in schools, could also be employed for more effective penetration of the community.

In the long run libraries will be known for the service they render, and there is a good reason to think service would be improved by putting more emphasis on the aptitudes, attitudes, and skills needed to do what most needs to be done. It is the library profession itself which has erected the barriers that are responsible for keeping competent persons from doing many of the important things that now go undone; the public which uses and supports libraries asks only that its needs be met.6

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LIBRARY TRENDS
Changing Staff Patterns and Responsibilities

The supporting staff of the media center has specific skills and abilities required in the modern library, and applied under the direction of the head of the center or the various staff members termed media specialists. No accepted pattern of job classification has been established but such titles as technical specialist, technician and technical assistant are among those in current usage. In general, this group has skills that could be applied in other than libraries, and includes photographic technician, graphics technician, electronics technician, and television technician. The Interdivisional Ad Hoc Committee of the Library Education Division and the Library Administration Division describes this group: “A recognized middle group of employees between the professional and clerical levels would help to solve some of the library manpower problems. The gap between clerical and professional staff is often too wide, leading to reluctance to reassign segments of professional responsibilities. A middle level staff competently trained could further relieve professional staff from performing routines, techniques, and procedures not requiring full professional knowledge.” The 1969 Standards lists the responsibilities of such supportive personnel.

The Knapp School Libraries Project initiated in 1963 stated as the first objective “school library services and facilities will be brought up to the standards of excellence recommended in Standards for School Library Programs” which state the need for “one clerk for each 600 students or major fraction thereof if the head librarian has no administrative responsibility for audio-visual materials . . . in the case of full responsibility for audio-visual materials and the audio-visual program, [increase] by 50 per cent.” The clerk position referred to in this quantitative statement performed typist and filing duties.

The user needs have changed the job description and the number of “clerks” in the years since the 1960 Standards were published. The 1969 Standards recommend “at least one media aide . . . for each professional media specialist in schools of 2000 or fewer students. As many additional aides . . . as are needed to support special media programs in the school, such as television broadcasting, remote access, and language laboratories.” Most school media centers require that this group be divided into two different types of duties and responsibilities. The Ad Hoc Committee report treats all duties in the service desk-typist classification as a single group. The distinction between the two positions is dependent on the extent of contact with
the public. The service clerk works under the close supervision of a librarian, usually at the circulation desk. Performance of the routines of charging, discharging or renewing materials, reserving books, filing requests of students or referring the request to the specialist are typical tasks of the service clerk. The user often requires only minimal assistance which the service clerk is trained to give and which frees the media specialist for judgmental tasks in direction of the total operation. The 1969 Standards recommends a division of duties as media aides are added so the specialization of tasks may be defined.\textsuperscript{12} The user may be unaware of the clerk-typist who performs such tasks as the routines of acquisition, mechanical preparation, filing, and the maintenance of business records. The basic clerical skills must be adapted to library purposes.\textsuperscript{13} In-service training is the only method at present for the preparation for the duties required. The size of the library, size of staff, and services offered to users determine the job description for this position which as yet has little standardization.

The second characteristic of the specialized and auxiliary staff which student and teacher users of school media centers should expect is the orientation of this staff toward maintaining a climate for receptive and understanding attitude toward individual students. The shift from the single textbook, the whole class assignment, the one book report per month type of educational program, to one of seminar discussion groups, independent study, individualized programs for all types of pupils, brought the media center a staff. The attitude of this staff will determine the program and the extent to which its users realize its value for their learning. Each staff member’s concern for the uniqueness of each user request and an honest sensitivity to people will make the school’s media center an individualized learning laboratory. For too long, the media center has been designed and operated according to staff-determined rules and materials. The student must conform to those rules and use the materials provided or stay outside the door. Too little attention has been given to the sensitivity of the staff to the changing needs of its users and no real attempt has been made to involve those most concerned in decisions of acquisition and service.

The leadership qualities of the head of the media center and his staff in communicating to the users the place of the center in each user’s program requires a new concept of responsibility. This involves interpreting the program of the center to the principal and enlisting his support for the learning center idea. The openness of communica-
Changing Staff Patterns and Responsibilities

tion between media center staff and subject area departments can only be achieved when the principal and the head of the media center understand the relationship of the center to the philosophy of the school program and are willing to implement this relationship. Again, the focus on the needs of the users will make the environment for learning possible.

The question of manpower in the field of librarianship has plagued school, public, college, and special libraries. Much attention has been focused on this question of shortages, duties, responsibilities, and training. About ten years ago the National Council of Library Associations proposed a study of manpower but it was never funded. ALA funded a National Advisory Commission on Libraries and established a commission on a National Plan for Library Education in the fall of 1962. A statement of the program of the commission is printed in the April 1963 issue of the ALA Bulletin, with a report in the April 1967 ALA Bulletin. In 1966 the position of director for the Office for Library Education, ALA, was confirmed and Lester Asheim was appointed to the position. A conference, "Library Manpower Needs and Utilization," co-sponsored by the Office for Library Education and Library Administration Division of ALA was held in Washington, March 9-11, 1967. The conference theme of ALA's 86th conference in San Francisco in June 1967, "Crisis in Library Manpower—Myth and Reality," stimulated state and regional levels to schedule numerous other conferences on the manpower problem.

The Association of Research Libraries established a committee and made a proposal for a manpower study. The report of the Interdivisional Ad Hoc Committee of the Library Education Division and the Library Administration Division on the subprofessional or technical assistant was approved by executive boards of both divisions at the ALA meeting, January 1968. The University of Maryland has been awarded a grant of one-half million dollars for a manpower study under the direction of Paul Wasserman. The 1967 study on Ohio Library Manpower is concerned with school, college, and public libraries and makes recommendations for alleviation of the problem in that state. Emerging Library Systems: The 1963-66 Evaluation of the New York State Public Library Systems, published in 1967, gives considerable attention to the manpower problem. While the ALA standards for public libraries in 1956 set the present standards for library education, the policy statement, "Education and Manpower for
Librarianship; First Steps Toward a Statement of Policy," by Lester Asheim, in *ALA Bulletin*, October 1968,\(^1\) will set the standards for the next ten years.

The special problems of manpower in school libraries have received attention in the 1960 *Standards*, the June 1967 ALA conference, studies at U.S.O.E., and numerous papers resulting from graduate studies at schools of library science. The 1969 *Standards* devotes a chapter to "Personnel for the Media Program" and the recommendations stated will clarify many portions of the program.

An important outcome of the Knapp School Libraries Project was the evident "need for a study of the many kinds of manpower needed in contemporary school librarianship."\(^2\) In November 1967, the Knapp Foundation made a grant of $1,163,718 to the American Library Association for a second five-year project.\(^3\) This School Library Manpower Project, according to the American Library Association press release of December 1, 1967, "is designed to attack three aspects of the problem of developing fully and utilizing properly school library manpower—task and job analysis, education for school librarianship and recruitment from specific manpower pools."\(^4\)

The place of the media center in the program of the school evolves through increased service, requiring additional staff with varying competencies, which means further increase in services. Users are expecting and demanding such a center. Media specialists and their staffs can do no less than strive to stimulate and answer the user's call for service.

**References**


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Changing Staff Patterns and Responsibilities

17. University of the State of New York, op. cit.
21. Sullivan, ibid., p. 34.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES


Effects of Change on Education For School Librarians

MARGARET HAYES GRAZIER

School library educators have long been sensitive to the fact that change in professional programs is necessary if their students are to live up to the image projected for them in official platforms. Their perennial concern has been that of establishing systematic joint planning with their colleagues in education. From such collaboration they hoped to correct two marked weaknesses in the professional preparation of the teacher and the librarian—the librarian's ignorance of curriculum, learning theory, and instructional method and the teacher's ignorance of libraries and their resources for students. In more recent times, library educators have pressed also for elimination of the dichotomy between print and non-print and the corresponding dual training of school librarians and audiovisual specialists. The evidence of their efforts is readily documented in journal articles and conference proceedings which have appeared since 1960.

Leaders in the audiovisual movement have also reacted to the increasing momentum of technological change in education and its implications for professional preparation. The Department of Audiovisual Instruction, National Education Association, has shown its official interest through its sponsorship of seminars, its commission (known as the Professional Education of Media Specialists), and its publications. In addition, the U.S. Office of Education has supported a number of recent studies about the education of media specialists (See Additional References).

The problem of appropriate training for those who plan to work with the resources of teaching and learning in the schools is a large and complex one. In its ramifications it includes the use of the new

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media and materials created by technology and the earlier issues of educational content for librarians and resource information for teachers. The varied specialists in educational media do not agree about either the dimensions of the field or the functions and preparation of those who work in it, but they do concur about the need to keep working toward a consensus. The recommendation for a unified or coordinated program leading to a joint degree in the new Standards for School Media Programs prepared and approved by the American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction thus represents an important milestone in school library education and service. Of interest also to the library educator is the recent position paper, "The Role of the Media Professional in Education," prepared for the Board of Directors of DAVI which describes the emerging role of the media professional, the characteristic tasks he performs, and the requirements for his professional education.

The most useful assessment of the effects of the changes detailed in earlier chapters upon school library education must deal in futures. My assumption does not deny that some institutions educating school librarians have already modified their programs, but it does reflect the conviction that the new Standards, by virtue of their official character, demand a careful analysis by all media educators for future planning. The DAVI position paper, although not officially adopted, provides insight into the perspective of that sector of the media field most closely related to the school library. It is my intent, therefore, to analyze both the Standards and the DAVI paper in terms of their definition of the function of the media specialist, the preparation needed for his work, and their implications for establishing a sequence of study and the administration of a unified program.

Both the Standards and the DAVI statement use a pragmatic approach to the preparation of the media specialist. They describe characteristic tasks and the education essential for their performance. Both statements separate tasks according to level of responsibility, i.e., the individual school, the multischool level, and the state level. Although the work is described in broad terms, e.g., "assist with selection of materials and equipment," neither statement attempts to classify tasks under such familiar rubrics as selection, production, utilization, and administration. For comparative purposes, however, I have used these categories in an attempt to distinguish any differences there may be in the thinking of the audiovisual specialists when working alone and when working with librarians. If library educators
and audiovisual educators are to collaborate in preparing joint programs, as recommended in the Standards, I deem it important to identify any differences in interpretation of function which may exist.

At the level of the individual school, few major differences about the media specialist's work appear in the two documents. Both recognize tasks in selection, production, utilization, and administration. Only the Standards, however, note the responsibility of making available to faculty through a professional collection knowledge about recent trends in subject areas and education; only DAVI makes the point of assisting teachers and administrators in evaluating the results of use of instructional materials and technological resources for teaching. The greatest difference between them is in specifying work with students. DAVI mentions assistance of only two kinds—supervise students in operation and use of equipment and help students use "technology of communication." In contrast, the Standards specify working directly with students in selecting and evaluating materials, in research and individualized learning, and in giving instruction in the use of the media center and its resources. They note also the responsibility of the media program to supply resources and services for the personal inquiry of students and for their extra-curricular work.

At the multischool or district level, the functions noted in both statements are primarily administrative and advisory, e.g., coordinate selection and evaluation of instructional materials; manage the organization, distribution, and maintenance of instructional materials and equipment; work with teachers, curriculum specialists, and administrators in design and implementation of instructional programs; and conduct experimentation and evaluation of media programs and projects. The Standards note responsibility for centralized processing of materials while DAVI describes responsibility for "the linking of communication functions within the school system to external communication systems at state, regional, and international (satellite) levels." A major assumption in both statements is the creation at the multi-school level of a unit with sufficient staff to carry out these functions. The Standards make the assumption explicit: "In the past, professional staff members of the system media center have had to devote most of their time to purely administrative, technical, and business matters. With a sufficient number of supportive staff members, the system media specialists can assume in full degree their responsibilities as curriculum consultants, participants in planning and developing instructional and communications programs, and materials
Effects of Change on Education for School Librarians

specialists.” The Standards’ recommendations apply to the district level while the DAVI statement pertains to county and regional programs as well. The functions specified by the DAVI paper for state and Federal levels have no counterpart in the Standards. The Standards note only the need for directors of school library service and of audiovisual service and of a cohesive media program for the state.

Thus, both the Standards and the DAVI position paper agree about the levels of service for the professional and his major functions. The greatest difference between them lies in the concept of service, particularly at the building level, with the Standards specifying a wide range of service to individual students, both for curricular and personal concerns, and assistance to the teacher in keeping him in touch with new knowledge. This difference is not surprising in view of the separateness of the audiovisual and library fields and the traditional emphasis in service of the two groups. Librarians have focused upon individualization of learning through materials adapted to unique needs and interests; they have sought also to insure a variety of viewpoints in materials. The audiovisual specialist has emphasized service to teachers for groups of students. The difference may also stem from the concept each group has of the most efficient utilization of learning resources in the future. An introductory paragraph in the DAVI paper affords insight into their interpretation of service: “the role of the media professional in education is 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.” It is apparent that equipment will soon be readily available to permit intermixing of pictures, sound, and print. The audiovisual specialist apparently sees this as an opportunity to design packages for individual or group use to accomplish a specified learning objective. The librarian, speaking through the Standards, describes a service in which “media specialists have as their primary goal and responsibility the guidance of students in studying effectively, thinking objectively, and in acquiring interest in and enthusiasm for exploration and research.”

The two specialists will need to recognize their differences in viewpoint about the use of materials in promoting learning. Clearly, there is a need for both approaches. Many important kinds of learning are accomplished more efficiently by careful planning of ends and means (and media specialists have a role in the design of learning packages

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and the selection of materials for them). The nurture of individual interests—in reading or viewing or listening—and in independent discovery is an equally worthy goal which requires a different use of materials and a different kind of guidance from teacher and media specialist.

How much opportunity the media specialist of the future will have to implement either of these concepts of service obviously will be influenced by the work of groups outside the local school district. Curriculum packages can be produced either by teams of subject specialists (as in the physical science and biology projects) or by the education publishing industry. The amount of choice allowed faculty in individual schools in adapting and modifying instructional systems, created either by local or outside groups, will affect the use they make of local learning resources and services. Both statements assume a faculty with time and freedom to experiment with varied resources in planning learning and a media staff prepared to help them exploit resources and technology to this end. The advantages accruing to faculty, students, and librarians when there is opportunity to harness new equipment for learning are noted in recent testimony by the coordinator of the computer-directed remote access system at Oak Park and River Forest High School in Illinois: “The choices and possibilities available to the student as he conducts his self-study programs are multiplied. The opportunities for librarians to participate directly in designing and implementing instructional materials are expanded. In other words, a more effective integration of library, classroom, and department programs is produced.”

A final observation about the functions of the media specialist described in these two statements finds that neither specifies such traditional library services as storytelling or book talks.

The elements in the basic professional education of the media specialist and the broad areas of specialization beyond this core, defined briefly in both the Standards and the DAVI position paper are noted in Table 1.

Recommendations for those elements I have categorized as “Media Areas” differ in information services, noted only in the Standards, and in design and production of materials and application of technologies, noted only in the DAVI paper. In the areas of specialization, the chief variation is in the Standards’ identification of advanced study in subject areas and in content relevant to learning at a given developmental level (e.g., elementary school) and the DAVI listing of be-
TABLE 1
Preparation for the Media Specialist

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Areas</th>
<th>DAVI Position Paper</th>
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<tr>
<td>Standards (AASL and DAVI)</td>
<td>Utilization and evaluation of educational media and materials</td>
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havioral research and advanced elements of library science. In the "Background" category, the differences are deeper than appear on paper because the DAVI statement assumes a basic professional training in education; the elements in their list, therefore, are intended as advanced study. The Standards introduce their listing as "knowledge of certain fundamentals of professional education" implying beginning courses while advanced study is suggested only in relation to type of school specialization.

The determination for sequence of content is a knotty problem. The pragmatic approach asks, "What does the media specialist working at this level need to know?" and tries to adapt preparation to tasks. This is the traditional base from which program designers have worked in both library and media fields. Swanson warns of the risk in this approach:

Library education must be built upon sound intellectual foundations, but at the same time it cannot ignore the vocational skills needed in the practice of librarianship. These vocational needs of the profession are great, and the skills not difficult to recognize; but their intellectual content is often obscure and subject to divided opinion. We suggest here that this intellectual content is just that aspect that does stand the test of time. For education to respond solely to today's needs may result in failure to produce tomorrow's leaders, so the search for the proper foundations is of more than academic interest.7

Aware of the need to identify the structure of the field, the educator also must attempt to give some coherence and order to the preparation of the prospective media specialist now entering the vocation and/or profession.

The Standards and the DAVI paper offer only a general guide to the differences in function among the specialists in the field although the Standards recognize that the size of the media program and the level at which it operates will affect the competencies demanded of staff and director. Similarly, the statements offer no definite guidelines to recommended sequence of content. Nonetheless, they have major implications for the library educator and the audiovisual educator.

I suggest the first implication is for a careful review of the fifth year program in library science and audiovisual education. Teachers in these two fields should translate the broad categories of content described in these documents into major concepts and understandings and organize them in sequential pattern. Eventually they will have
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to decide about existing courses in library science and audiovisual education, but the likelihood of a coherent program, freed from unnecessary duplication, is greater if they start from scratch to plan rather than shifting established courses into a new pattern. Of particular import is the need to eliminate technical and clerical skills from the curriculum of the prospective professional media specialist. Recent definitions of the subprofessional class in the library recommended by Asheim and the Interdivisional Ad Hoc Committee of the Library Education and the Library Administration Division of the American Library Association, together with those of the Standards provide a working basis for this aspect of curriculum restructuring. The current DAVI study and the research planned in connection with the new Knapp project will provide additional valuable data for curriculum revision.

Such a review by the library educator and his audiovisual counterpart would offer a sound basis for organizing content—whether by format (print or non-print), subject (humanities, social science, science) or by grade level (elementary or secondary). From their collaboration will evolve decisions about the need for new courses and the usefulness of old ones. Sticky questions will appear. What about courses in production and information (or reference)—the major differences in content recommended in the Standards and the DAVI paper? How much technical skill in production does the student need to function as a supervisor of technicians who will handle the actual work? Do we exploit students when we train them to handle non-professional work because the school system fails in provision of adequate supportive staff? Should every media specialist be prepared to retrieve information from books and magazines to answer queries from faculty and students? How much theory about cataloging and classification is essential now that most such work is handled from a central office or purchased from a business firm? What about storytelling? What about internship? How much, if any, is desirable? At what point in the program? What provisions are necessary to relate theory to practice?

After decisions have been made about content and sequence of the basic media core in the fifth year program, there is the related decision about what courses, if any, might be offered to undergraduate students who need to start work at the end of four years of college. The undergraduate minor, common in library science, is rare in audiovisual education. The demand for manpower and the advantages for
recruitment are the customary justification of undergraduate study; such arguments still appear valid.

A second implication of these documents is the need for the school library educator to study with his colleagues in education the professional courses required for teacher certification of the media specialist and the additional competencies beyond this level in curriculum development, learning and perception theory, etc., which the specialist should have. Apropos of teacher certification are such questions as: does the student electing a minor in media at the undergraduate level need precisely the same courses as the prospective teacher? Should his student teaching be done in the classroom or the media center? Is there a place for the special training of the media specialist in the Master of Arts in Teaching program many universities have set up for the liberal arts graduate who starts his teaching preparation at the fifth year? Kovacs, in a recent master's thesis, analyzes the University of Chicago combined program.12 Apropos of the master's program is the question of the desirability of curriculum courses in a subject area rather than a general course. Media students with limited teaching experience may find the study of curriculum development in the social sciences, for example, of greater use than general theory. (Experience with students at Wayne State University supports this point.) Frank discussion with teachers of teachers should also stimulate exchanges about the media specialist's role in designing curriculum and in guiding students in independent study. Many librarians and audiovisualists believe their function has been severely curtailed by unflattering images—the "keeper of the books" and the "equipment pusher." Dialogue with educationists about the unique service of the building media specialist may help to develop the operating partnership needed in the school between him and the teacher by opening for discussion the crucial issue of preparation of the prospective teacher in instructional resources.

Only after decisions have been made about basic core media and education courses does the question of specialization for library science or audiovisual instruction at the master's level seem appropriate. How much specialization and of what kind should relate to the opportunities and requirements for advanced study in the media field.

The recommendation for a unified media program in the Standards creates prickly problems for planning advanced study. What should be the requirements for the administrator or coordinator in this expanding service? Is there a place for the school library administrator
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or only for the administrator with competencies in library science and audiovisual instruction and broadcasting? The problem of advanced study is compounded by the difficulties the library profession and the media profession currently face in their search for identity.

Some librarians seek the intellectual foundations of their profession in the light of the rapidly developing discipline of information science. The topics discussed at the 1964 University of Chicago Graduate Library School Conference on this issue suggests some of the directions explored: society and the use of libraries; systems planning and analysis; intellectual access to information; and development of book collections. Other librarians are restudying position classification and educational requirements for the major levels. Two recent documents—Asheim's exploratory position paper and the proposal of the Maryland Library Association—are evidence of the current division of opinion in the profession.

The DAVI leadership, on the other hand, debates whether there is a profession of media and/or the requirements needed to create one. The membership vote, scheduled for December 1965, on a change of name for the DAVI organization is additional evidence of the difficulty in establishing the boundaries of the field. The three proposed names—Association for Instructional Technology, Educational Media Association, or American Educational Communication Association—illustrate the range of opinion.

The Standards and the DAVI position paper afford little concrete assistance to those concerned with designing sixth-year specialist and doctoral programs. They identify areas of specialization and suggest the need for administrators to direct a unified program. The Standards recommend separate directors of school library and audiovisual services at the state level with cohesion in program to be achieved either under a unified or coordinated administrative organization.

On a pragmatic basis, I suggest there is a clear need—and one recognized by a number of library leaders and institutions at the present time—for sixth-year specialist programs. I believe two types of curriculum are essential at this level. The first type is that designed for the prospective administrator of a media program in the large school, in the district or region, or in the state. Such a curriculum will require sufficient flexibility to serve two groups of students—those with masters' degrees in either audiovisual instruction or library science and those who will eventually come as graduates of the new unified master's program. A second type of sixth-year curriculum is
needed, I submit, for the graduate student who seeks not administrative responsibility but rather greater knowledge in subject disciplines or in such specialties as computer-assisted instruction, information retrieval, or educational broadcasting.

Not all institutions will have the faculty required to offer both types of sixth-year programs. Those preparing administrators will need to draw upon faculty from library science as well as education, communication, and the various segments of the audiovisual field. For the second type of sixth-year specialist program, library science departments in universities without teaching faculty in the media field may design a curriculum for subject specialists in collaboration with faculty from the discipline and education, e.g., further specialization in the bibliography and literature of selected subject areas combined with advanced study in related curriculum fields. (Such a program is essential for the librarian in the secondary school subject-division library who attempts to help teachers keep up in their field and to guide the often rigorous independent study of students.) Similarly, advanced study in educational broadcasting and programmed instruction would not require faculty from library science.

The doctoral program is of major importance. Librarianship (school librarianship in particular) and the media field need basic and applied research to extend theory and intensify special knowledge. Graduates of such programs are especially needed for college and university teaching. Hayes charges, "library education has become stale and trite. Library schools have, until recently, been observers of the changes taking place in librarianship, not participants or, better yet, leaders of them." His rationale, with which I agree, is: "research productivity insures that as a teacher the individual will not become stale and trite, that he will continually be aware of the state of the art, not as an observer but as a participant." 17

One other important aspect of curriculum planning noted by the Standards is the provision of continuing education on a short term basis for librarians in the field to upgrade and expand their professional knowledge and competency. A wide variety of needs may be served by workshops, institutes, and conferences. For example, to become familiar with the array of newer media and materials and to develop skills in their selection and evaluation; to catch up with recent developments in curriculum and learning theory and their relevance to the newer media; and to use newer media in solving the learning problems of the disadvantaged.
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The problem of arranging the conditions in which the changes in the education of the school librarian may best take place is essentially an administrative one. Involved are two sets of problems—one the province of the university, the other, of the state agency.

At the university level, the new programs raise questions about the degree to be granted, the alignment of teaching departments, and the resources and facilities required. The recommendations of the Standards for a unified program or a coordinated program leading to a joint degree may deprive the "new" school media specialist of the security of the professional library degree as an insurance policy against the time he might wish to switch to public or college librarianship. Since I strongly believe that only the individual who is vitally interested in the education of children and youth is qualified for school library or media service, the possible loss of manpower and recruitment problems do not trouble me.

Interdisciplinary research and area studies are an accepted way-of-life in the contemporary university. A joint degree program requires no formal realignment of departments or schools at its inception although it may influence later change. The many single purpose library science departments in colleges of education are already in excellent positions to administer a coordinated media program. The library science department's contribution to the media specialist program is a vital one and the relationship between this department and the media program must be maintained in any reorganization that may eventually take place. Henne's comment in 1962 bears repeating here: "library education curriculums have content and methodology that contribute to the intellectual and professional growth of students, that do not waste their time, that sharpen their critical powers (constructive ones) and that develop their evaluative abilities." 18

The university must also support the unified media program by providing adequate resources: trade and textbooks for children and youth; audiovisual materials and equipment; curricular guides for teachers; installations equipped for dial-access, computer-assisted instruction, and programing; and laboratories for student production of learning materials. The media program will also require access to school media centers with good facilities and programs where the prospective media specialist can have internship experience under the joint supervision of his university teacher and the building specialist.

Changes in educational programs at the university can be stymied
by inflexible certification at the state level. The new Standards state the problem cogently:

Study and redefinitions of certification requirements need to be undertaken in the light of currently accepted objectives of media centers, of services performed by media specialists, of recommended standards for size of staff, and types of positions in centers having more than one media specialist. ... Certification requirements must neither hinder the development of excellent media programs in schools nor regiment the creativity and experimentation of the professional schools or departments.

As in the matter of professional education, the problem must be resolved concerning the dichotomy of certification—one for school librarians and one for audiovisual specialists. Some kind of certification allowing for all variant patterns that have been recognized seems essential. This not only would speed the development of unified media centers but would also help to correct the serious manpower problem and promote recruitment.19

According to ancient Chinese philosophy, the journey of a thousand miles begins with one step. The one step has been taken. The new Standards are here—conceived by school librarians and audiovisual specialists and approved by their parent organizations. The journey for which they point takes the library educator again to familiar problems of former years—the balance between education and library science, the dual training of librarian and audiovisual specialist, the ladder of preparation from undergraduate to doctorate, the instruction of teachers about materials and libraries. The terrain may be rocky, but the destination—quality education for all American youth—makes the effort worthwhile.

References

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13. Swanson, op. cit., pp. 2-5.


ADDITIONAL REFERENCES


Changing Patterns of Public Library and School Library Relationships

JOHN MACKENZIE CORY

Projection of future patterns of library service in any field is obviously hazardous, but for a library administrator with principle specialization in research libraries and adult services to undertake such a responsibility in the area of children's and young people's service is foolhardy in the extreme. In addition, no other area of library service is fraught with such disagreement, confusion, rivalry and bitterness. Perhaps this very sensitivity justifies attention by those outside the area of specialization provided they are honestly concerned with the problem, are at least indirectly aware of its complexities, and are convinced of the absolute necessity of clarifying future functional and organizational patterns before any forward-looking philosophical development or practical planning for libraries can be accomplished. The outsider may have no greater clarity of vision but his eyesight is at least not clouded by passion and his prejudices are fresh and apparent to the specialist. If his naiveté can be forgiven, his opinions may stimulate some fresh strains of thought, even among dedicated and convinced specialists.

By way of background on the author's point of view three additional opinions must be recorded: (1) all public librarians, regardless of their functional and age level specialties, have inevitably been confronted with external questions on the present and future relationships of school and public libraries in serving school-age children and young people, and have been forced to rationalize about and to make decisions affecting these relationships; (2) librarians not working with children or young people are just as much interested in the future responsibility of their libraries in this field as are children's and young adult specialists because of the need to plan specifically for the sup-

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Port and success of other specialized services where resources and priorities will be directly affected by decisions on the allocation of responsibility for children’s services; and (3) any reflective librarian must eventually recognize that the library user, present or future, actual or potential, should be his final concern in plotting library service patterns and that professional shibboleths, dogma, rivalries, and treasured techniques must take secondary places in deference to the maximum satisfaction of the users’ needs.

Consequently, the problem of projecting future patterns of library service to students will be addressed and reviewed within the philosophy and from the viewpoint already expressed. It seems logical to state the problem first, to examine the present status of the different kinds of libraries involved, to indicate the apparent rates and direction of change, to examine the statics and dynamics of the situation from the perspective of the intended beneficiaries, and to identify and evaluate the possible future patterns which may develop or which should develop.

In its crudest form, the problem can be stated in terms of determining the future respective responsibilities of public libraries and school libraries for partial or total satisfaction of the school-age young person’s informational, educational, cultural and recreational needs. Who is going to do what to whom with whose money?

The crudeness of this statement of the problem has the immediate advantage of stimulating objection from each of the varying interests and specialists confronted with it. Some will immediately say that the defined area is too broad and is by no means solely the responsibility of any one kind of library—public or school. This necessitates consideration of the role of any library vis-a-vis the family, society as a whole, other cultural agencies, and other functional departments of the municipalities and schools in which the libraries are placed organizationally.

Other readers will react to the statement of the problem by saying that it is too vague and that there is inadequate attention given to the focus of libraries on materials. Some will admit the proper inclusion of printed materials alone, others will insist on consideration of all media by which ideas can be recorded, and some may even demand library responsibility beyond what is recorded and include the process of preparing the record. These readers would even advocate the library’s educational responsibility for the use of ideas that are not recorded at all.

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Some will ignore the crudity of the statement of the problem and will immediately argue from preconceptions as to the “obviously” desirable solution and will fear that a clearer definition may diminish the force of such comfortable and standard but differing answers as: “catch the child where he is”; “one agency must be concerned with the whole child”; “each agency is concerned with a different facet of the child”; and “there is such a great need for more library service that there is room for all agencies without fear of wasteful competition.”

Finally, some will be astonished by the fact that the problem is stated in library terms at all since they are already convinced that the students’ informational, educational, cultural and recreational needs have nothing to do with libraries, as they know them, and could be much better met without either public libraries or school libraries getting into the act or competing for funds, materials, equipment, personnel, and space that would, in their opinion, be much better spent in different ways and on totally different non-library agencies and programs.

In partial answer to these reactions, and in the interest of clarifying the problem before we explore its future implications, it would now be appropriate to essay a more exact definition of libraries and to appraise the respective roles of different types of libraries in meeting the needs of their young users and potential users.

Useful contributions to this clarification are currently being made by a committee of librarians in the state of New York, representing all types of libraries, who serve in an advisory capacity to the state commissioner of education. Their unpublished working definition of libraries and their functions begins with recognition that the role of libraries is to meet some part of the spectrum of human aspirations which ranges from survival to the development of the whole man. Narrowing this broad range, it is next assumed that libraries are primarily concerned with that part of the spectrum which is concerned with communication, education, the development of personal skills and understanding, the satisfaction of curiosity, the enrichment of personal and social life and the advancement of knowledge.

Recognizing that many social agencies and personal forces are concerned even with this area of human aspirations and needs, this group of librarians has narrowed the field further by identifying the common concern of libraries for the collection, production, storage, organization, retrieval and transfer of recorded information and ideas.
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in all forms, and for providing services requiring the use of such records.

The place of libraries among other agencies and institutions can thus be defined as follows: libraries are social agencies, concerned with those aspects of human communication, education and recreation that involve recorded information and ideas or involve services requiring the use of such records. At this point, the normal inclination of librarians is to break down this still broad area of social responsibility among the familiar types of libraries—public; school; college and university; and special corporate, association and governmental libraries. This is the organizational classification of libraries historically and currently; this is the pattern in which librarians themselves organize, argue, develop goals and standards, speak and publish, and feel comfortable and secure.

The group of New York State librarians referred to above, feel that it is possible and desirable to depart from this professional classification and to consider the greater value of classifying users and of proposing library organizational patterns geared to user needs rather than to professional tradition. The radical concept has thus been introduced into professional library thinking that present types of libraries are less important in future stages of library development than user categories. The conclusions of this paper will reflect this shift in professional philosophy and will suggest some unfamiliar patterns for future public and professional consideration.

The problem has been stated and put into social perspective, and a departure from present professional approaches to the problem has been proposed. It is now necessary, as promised, to describe the present status of libraries serving young people to indicate apparent rates and direction of change in scope, goals and organizational patterns.

It would probably be generally agreed (a rare island of harmony in this area of professional discussion) that, during the first half of the twentieth century, public libraries made more progress than school libraries in developing specialized service to children and young adults of school age. It might even be accepted that, in many localities public libraries are still meeting a larger part of the students' library needs than school libraries are able or willing to do. From these facts stems much of the public library's claim to preeminence in the total range of library service to young people, and many of the rather acid
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claims of public library specialists that only the public library can hope to meet these needs in the future or, at least, that public libraries must continue to serve this age group in perpetuity because of inherent limitations and weaknesses in school library goals and service patterns.

In support of the traditional public library view a number of arguments are usually mustered: school libraries are not concerned with the noncurricular needs of the child; school libraries are understaffed, poorly housed, open on too limited schedules, and subject to domination by too formal a philosophy of classroom education. However true these charges may have been in the past, it is only necessary to state them to see that they are not inherent or immutable conditions. In fact they are ceasing to be true in many school systems and the developing patterns of change seem likely to undermine the basic claim of public librarians that only they can hope to meet the total needs of the child and young adult or, at least, that they must stay in the business to supplement the limited potential of school libraries in meeting the full range of these needs.

During the past two decades it is apparent that a revolution in school library service has been started and is continuing unchecked. It is apparent, that is, to those professionally connected with schools, including the burgeoning number of school librarians. It is not particularly apparent to the child who has known no other pattern; and it is not at all apparent to those not intimately involved with schools now or recently, including most public librarians.

Few of today's librarians attended a school with modern library services, facilities or goals and they have a hard time believing in the reality and durability of the revolution. Furthermore, almost all public librarians can remember, with discouragement, that not too many years ago, the location of the school library in many school buildings prevented library service after class hours; or that the funds available and the principal's or superintendent's philosophy did not permit adding to the school library the full range of desirable enrichment or recreational materials; or that the shortage of librarians made it undesirable to extend the school library schedule into the relatively unpopular evening, weekend and holiday hours. These conditions confirmed the opinion of most public librarians and nearly all children's librarians in public libraries that they alone truly cared for the child and that their dedicated services would always be needed by him.

It can reasonably be expected that such skepticism, often locally or
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temporarily justified, will disappear as public librarians graduate with modern school library service in their personal experience; as school teachers and principals come out of the same school experience; and as more and more schools add to their goals and achievements more and more school librarians and media specialists, larger and better located collections and quarters, longer hours, and home-connected extension services. Then librarians can shed their doubts and rivalries and turn more objectively to meeting the total needs of the student.

The present status of school libraries and public libraries in relation to the student and to each other varies from locality to locality and will probably always do so. At one extreme is mutual ignorance, apathy or antipathy. In an increasing number of places cooperation, joint planning or planned parallel development can be seen. In a few places a sharp and clear division of the responsibility has been laboriously achieved. But, almost without exception, the only places in which single, undivided responsibility exists are in those areas, largely but not exclusively rural, where school libraries are still so inadequate that the only library service available to the child is in the public library. No instances are known to this writer where the school library has been able, or has been permitted, to undertake the total responsibility and the public library has gone out of the business of serving students. Nevertheless an evident state of flux suggests this eventuality as a possibility and one which should be examined and evaluated.

Simultaneous with the rise of better school libraries and the potential of meeting all the library needs of the student previously met by the public library or shared with that agency, another element of change has developed and is spreading rapidly. This is the metamorphosis of the better school libraries into media centers, providing materials, equipment, staff and services not often attempted by public libraries. In effect, this development has added a dimension to school-based library service with which few public libraries can or wish to compete. Although this development is sometimes threatened within the schools by non-library or anti-library forces, it offers the best hope for the schools to claim pre-eminence in meeting all the educational, informational, cultural and recreational needs of the child. If properly coordinated and imaginatively developed, the school commitment to the newer media of our technologically revolutionary age is likely to give it an insurmountable edge as the single agency best suited to serving the whole school-age young person.

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A word of warning appears to be necessary before evaluating these developments from the point of view of the student and his needs. Despite the competition among school librarians and public librarians in the past and at present, they are more likely to come to agreement on joint professional aims than are the school officials and school and library board members. It is implicit, therefore, in the remarks that follow that all those concerned with education—librarians, teachers, audio-visual specialists, principals, superintendents, board members, taxpayers and voters—care about achieving the most effective, most economical patterns for satisfying the educational needs of children. Opposition or apathy by any of these groups will result in a continuation of uneven development rates, of wasteful competition, of inefficient and probably incomplete service patterns and, ultimately, of inadequately educated children.

Turning now to the student as the user or potential user of library service, it is necessary to raise some questions which have only partially been answered, or even studied. They are suggested for further study and reflection but, necessarily, some assumptions as to their findings will then be made to support the suggested directions of planning and development. These questions include: what are the materials-related needs and desires of the pre-school child and of elementary, middle, and high school students? Can these best be met through the school alone or through a variety of community agencies? Should their needs be met through a coordinated service or by parallel or competitive agencies? Is a geographical diversity of library services necessary to serve a dispersed school population not all attending neighborhood schools? Can information technology bring the student into adequate contact with a remote school library? Are formal educational techniques compatible with informal learning and recreational needs?

Can the schools, including school libraries and media centers, change to meet the needs of school dropouts and underachievers? Are local, community control pressures compatible with electro-political network patterns? Can appropriate levels of financial support be generally achieved for superior programs of library and related services? And, finally, can demonstrably superior patterns of educational organization be universally accepted in a diversified society with a variety of local and separate controls?

The basic assumption that is made about these troublesome unstudied or unanswered questions is that a society will be willing to
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meet the needs of its youth for the best education achievable at any time provided it understands the need, participates in the process, distributes the costs equitably, and is convinced that the effort is efficient—that is to say economical and effective.

It is further assumed that a simple and complete channel can best meet the young person's informational and educational needs. This is easier said than done because simplicity and completeness are too often incompatible and the loss of either will probably estrange, antagonize, and discourage the student working his way through the learning process. However this assumption about the organizational pattern that may best satisfy educational needs, taken together with the basic assumption that society is willing to meet those needs under specified conditions, offers the principal clue to the possible, perhaps probable, and certainly desirable future patterns of library service to children and young adults.

It should by now be evident that the most satisfying library service pattern will be user-centered. Thus, there turns out to be considerable truth in the philosophy of beginning with the child where he is. It is probably undeniable that the younger the child the oftener he is at home and that his next most frequent and important location is school. If his library needs can be met at home and at school—simply and completely and linked with each other—his learning is likely to be most satisfactory. This is not to deny the importance of diversity of experience but to insist on channeling that diversity and coordinating the process. Furthermore, it is not to deny that, eventually, after the formal education period, an unchanneled life-long learning process should be provided, but it is assumed that the home-school coordinated experience can introduce the student to this later adult pattern, attract him to it, and prepare him to use it effectively.

It then follows that, in the future, the public library is probably not the optimum social agency to serve the school-age child or young adult and that the public library should direct its efforts at strengthening the capacity of the home and school, preferably linked, to meet the total needs of young people and, when and where this capacity is achieved, should relinquish the field of children's and young adult services and develop its unique opportunity to better serve its adult users in their post-school continued learning process.

The implications of these conclusions or proposals should now be explored. If the suggested transfer of responsibility from public libraries to school libraries and media centers is to be accepted and
successful a number of presently apparent trends and developments must be accelerated and completed. Before public libraries will give up their present commitments to serve children and young adults they must be satisfied that the following characteristics of school library service can be achieved within the geographic area of their responsibility:

1) Public and private school and pre-school facilities must be as conveniently located as possible to serve all the youth in the jurisdiction.

2) Within the school buildings or campuses, adequate and accessible quarters must be provided.

3) Collections of school libraries and media centers must be adequate to meet the bulk of student needs and network arrangements must be provided to tap other information and cultural resources through the school learning centers.

4) Sufficient and appropriately qualified staff must be provided to permit all-day and year-long direct access to the collections and services of the school learning center. Electronic facilities must be available to link the school with the home and to channel to the home all needed information and stimuli to supplement the school’s learning resources after school hours.

5) A public commitment must be evident which is reasonably certain to provide adequate support, financial and otherwise, to the school as the continuing agency for providing total library services, broadly defined, to all students at all times.

If and when these conditions are not achieved, it will be reasonable for public libraries to continue their children’s and young adult services and to work for their improvement. Where the conditions can be achieved it will be inexcusable for public libraries to compete with or duplicate the actual or potential services of the schools. For a number of years the choice will not be clearcut everywhere and in such times and at such places, the best possible patterns of joint planning, cooperation, and careful division of the responsibility must be achieved and maintained.

It may be useful, in conclusion, to place these suggested future patterns of library service to students in perspective with other aspects of library development. It is suggested that libraries come into existence to serve a limited clientele who can best meet their informational, educational, cultural or recreational needs through cooperative support of a public, school, college, departmental or corporate library
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with limited or broad objectives established by the users or on their behalf by those willing to support such a service. The independent local public library or school building library are examples of this pattern of library organization and development and these agencies are still frequently found throughout the country.

As user needs increase and as political cooperation on a larger scale becomes possible it is common to find several libraries of the same type combining, formally or informally, into library systems such as public library systems or school library systems with a greatly increased potential for shared and divided services to the users of any single outlet of the system. In some states the library system patterns now substantially serve the entire population.

The third stage or pattern of library organizational development is beginning to emerge now and is probably a prerequisite for successful achievement of the proposed pattern of library service to students, particularly in secondary schools. In this stage libraries and library systems serving different types of users, communities and organizations combine into cooperative library networks aimed at channeling the resources of all the cooperating libraries to all the users of any one of the libraries. The reference and research library systems now organized in the state of New York are examples of this trend but they have not yet developed to the extent of linking school libraries to other libraries in the area which will be a desirable future step.

Finally, a pattern will develop that will link different types of libraries, library systems, and library networks with other non-library agencies of communications, education or recreation in order to provide cooperatively reasonable access to the community’s and even the world’s total resources.

Consequently, the patterns of uncoordinated, incomplete, duplicated, and ineffective library service to students which we see around us and fear that we see ahead of us, are bound to give way in the future. Social pressure based on a cumulation of individual needs will almost certainly push libraries from chaos and competition to cooperation and coordination. However long the transition period may be in any single place, we can confidently predict that the trend is toward concentrating library service to students in the schools with appropriate extension links to the home and supplementary links to other library and non-library agencies. This should make all resources and services simply and efficiently available to all students and, hopefully, through similar patterns, to all those who use or need libraries.

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October, 1969, University Library Buildings. Editor: David C. Weber, Associate Director of Libraries, Stanford University, Stanford, California.
