Media Services

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This paper explores the implications of selected school reforms for library media services. Each reform is described and its individual implications for library media services identified. From these implications, general themes are noted and conclusions are drawn. Even though many of the reforms selected have stirred controversy, it is not within the scope of this paper to evaluate any of them. Some reference to quality or viability is necessary and inevitable in the course of discussion, but the objective here is only to identify the implications of selected approaches for school library media services where and if they are implemented.

Clusters of Various Reforms

The reform ideas discussed in this document divide into three rough clusters. Educational reforms are difficult to categorize because many contain elements that span and blur the lines between divisions. Clusters are loose groupings, and the separation between clusters is not sharp. Because the boundaries are not always clear, some readers may question the categorizing that follows, especially near the edges of each group. At the core, though, the central attributes and

teaching and learning, and design the library media facility in relationship to the space needs of the total school program.

2. Waivers and exemptions given to school-based managed schools also imply possible changes in library media services. Most school district policies in the United States, most state standards, and most accrediting bodies in some way require that schools have a school library media center and the services of a school media specialist. The enforcement of such standards may be suspended if the site management staff can provide a convincing rationale and plan for delivering such services in another manner. Faculty perceptions of needs and priorities drive decisions on resource allocations in school-based management. Given the lack of understanding most teachers and administrators currently have of libraries, this suggests the need for library media specialists to aggressively clarify their roles and the kinds of contributions they are capable of making (AASL 1996; Barron 1992b; Hamilton 1993; Lynch 1995).

3. Library media specialists also need to clarify their roles and contributions because across-the-board percentage increases in library funding are less likely in school-based managed buildings. As site leadership teams address issues of program priority in the context of limited resources, the greater probability is that library media specialists will have to identify specific resource needs and tie them to particular school or program objectives (Barron 1991).

4. The political realities of school-based management also imply possible changes in library services and status. Teachers untrained in administration, conflict resolution, and the leadership of other adults can succumb to what Jo Michelle Beld Fraatz (1988) calls the "politics of efficiency" when confronted with new and difficult decisions. Many schools take the "easy way out" by giving equity the priority in resource allocations; that is, every teacher receives exactly the same funding for supplementary materials, the same increase or decrease in class sizes across all programs in the school, and equal division of support staff time. Identified priorities are not addressed and no fundamental intervention in instructional delivery is made (Diegmueller 1990b; Levine and Lezotte 1990). These approaches can seriously hurt library funding and resources, and library media specialists need to make the case early that while part of the librarian's role is teaching, the library is not just another classroom. If the classroom is the backbone of instruction, the library is the curriculum's connective tissue. To treat it as deserving but one share of the enterprise is to weaken the entire system and reduce the school's ability to live up to the promise of school-based management.

School Choice

School choice, a more radical change in school governance than site-based management, represents one of the most controversial proposals in educational reform. Instead of a school system governed by elected officials in which curriculum, instruction, and other elements of schooling are managed through a hierarchical structure, choice proposes determination of those elements by individual schools in response to consumer preferences. A decentralized system incorporating market values, and directly responsive to student and parent demands, challenges several standard practices in the American educational tradition—most prominently the idea that a school district can direct where a student is to go to school (Witte and Thorn 1996).

- School library media specialists should be in a better position to justify budget requests. Depending upon the extent of choice offered to students and parents under a given plan, the student body of a particular school might be made up of youngsters from all across the district, from several parts of the city, or even from

Many economically disadvantaged students enter school with fewer skills than their middle-class counterparts. The situation is made worse when curriculum is made less rigorous and the pace of instruction is made slower in the schools that serve them. The advocates of the Accelerated School argue that the lack of a solid elementary school foundation puts these students at additional risk in secondary school settings. The major focus of the Accelerated School is to prevent student failure rather than to remediate it at a later time. The goal is to have students proficient by the sixth grade, so the odds of success in secondary school are enhanced.

The curricula in most Accelerated Schools are rooted in what Robert Reich (1991) termed "symbolic-analytic" work. Active learning is stressed, students are asked to apply what they learn to real-life situations, and problem solving is emphasized. There is a focus on reading and thinking skills (King 1994; Chenoweth 1992). Hopfenberg and Levin believe there are literally hundreds of schools adopting the Accelerated School model across the country (Hopfenberg, Levin, and Associates 1993; Levin and Hopfenberg 1991).

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Another program designed for disadvantaged elementary students, James Comer's Developmental School approach, has now expanded to junior and senior high schools (Comer 1980; Comer 1987; Lofland 1995). Much like the Accelerated School, the Developmental School works from the belief that low-income children have underdeveloped skills and do not always know how to behave at school. Comer's concern was that in their ignorance of the social development patterns of children raised in poverty, teachers would misinterpret these behaviors and academic deficits as indications that the child was unmotivated, had very low ability, or both.

The Developmental School program consists of nine elements. The first three are mechanisms for developing school-based structures: (1) a governance structure shared by administrators, teachers, and parents; (2) a "mental health" team whose function is to see to the emotional, social, and other needs of the students who attend the school and to the "health" of the school's culture and climate; and (3) a training program for parents that helps them better understand their responsibilities to their children both at home and school.

The second three elements of the Developmental School are operational. The school governance team is responsible for (1) creating a plan with specific goals for student achievement and for the social climate of the school; (2) designing a professional development program to ensure that staff have the skills necessary for accomplishing the goals; and (3) conducting evaluations of student accomplishments and school climate. Climate is of extreme importance in Development Schools. Without an appropriate climate, students will not be motivated to learn (Chenoweth 1992).

The final three elements are guidelines for interaction. The first is that the principal and the governance team must work together; neither can dominate the other. Second, problems must be handled with a no-fault attitude; the goal is problem identification and resolution, not blame attachment. The third requires that all decisions in the school be consensus decisions.

Curriculula in Developmental Schools vary from school t

less time on electives, and aim at contextualization of material (King 1994). One school, for example, decided to pursue a theme

Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery is an early intervention program designed to help six-year-olds learn to read. The program recognizes the link between an inability to read and the probability of school failure.

Based on a reading theory that emphasizes meaning, the program has three main components. The first is a diagnostic survey administered to each child and used to shape the program individually. The second component is a year-long intensive teacher training program in theories and practices of reading instruction and in Reading Recovery's specific procedures. Third is a tutoring session schedule in which a specially trained teacher provides children one-

2. All the programs in this cluster are targeted toward reading proficiency. The role of the library and library media specialist in promoting literacy is both traditional and profound, but it should be enhanced further in this environment. The exact extent depends upon the program in question and the degree to which it is implemented. The Accelerated Schools and the Development Schools usually involve or require use of materials not traditionally available in schools, which can signal a need for broadening the library collection. Success for All and HOTS, on the other hand, usually have classrooms supplied with extensive specific materials. The required purchase of these materials might pose competition for library funds.

3. The purposes of these programs include not only helping students become proficient in reading, but also developing their motivation to remain lifelong learners through reading. Research shows that students gain as much or more from freely chosen and voluntarily read works as they do from readings in assigned subject areas (Krashen 1993; Krashen 1996), which suggests the need for a range of library materials not necessarily tied to any particular curriculum and hours of operation that allow students to come to the library whenever they can to seek materials of personal interest.

   The public library and the school library media center can share the responsibility and the opportunity for making personal enjoyment and study materials 4(A)2(c)-6(c)4(e)4(l)-2(e)-6(r)3(m)-2(e

the information they access.

The development of more sophisticated, demanding, and individualized programs at the secondary level (see the next section of this paper) increases the importance of the library and library media specialist at the elementary level. Basic learning behaviors are set at an early age. Students who have not developed the skills to access and use information in elementary settings will be behind when they reach the integrated and self-directed atmospheres of the middle school or the environments of high schools such as those described in Sizer's Essential Schools Project or the National Association of Secondary School Principals' (NASSP) Breaking Ranks High School Model (Sizer 1984; Sizer 1992; National Association of Secondary School Principals 1996).

6. Many at-risk students also are latchkey children. Such children have for years used public libraries as late afternoon bases until such time as an adult reaches home. Where these students pose special problems for the public library media specialist, they represent a variation on continuing challenges for the more appropriately trained school library media specialist (Barron 1992a). The implications of the school library media center's role in the lives of at-risk children suggest the value of having the school library media center open evenings, weekends, and summers.

A Shift to Reform Targeting Secondary Schools

Three consistent themes run through the leading secondary school reform proposals and restructuring efforts. First is the notion of curricular integration. Second is an emphasis on students taking increased responsibility for their own learning and social behavior. Third is a call for tighter linkages between schools and the communities in which they sit. The three reforms discussed here—the middle school concept, the Coalition of Essential Schools, and the school-to-work movement—collectively illustrate the themes and represent variations on them.

Proponents of the reforms argue that attempts at preparing students for life in the larger world outside of school, both before and after high school graduation, are too often rendered unrealistic and ineffective through the fragmentation of learning that marks traditional secondary schools. Academic discipline departmentalization, homogeneous grouping practices, the separation of scholarly required courses from humanizing elective classes, and the lack of connection—let alone continuity—between what a student learns in any of the six or seven classes he or she takes in a day impair the students' ability to understand, confront, and be successful in the real world—as both adolescents and adults.

While these reforms are discussed here as if they existed independent of other educational trends and reform proposals, they clearly do not exist in a vacuum, and that fact has implications for the future of school library media specialists. Despite the ways in which elementary, middle, and high schools differ, together they constitute the K–12 continuum and the fundamental framework of almost every student's educational experience. As such, the three are inextricably linked. A change in one most often produces a pressure—if not an irresistible force—for change in one or both of the other levels.

The development of more sophisticated, demanding, and individualized programs at the elementary level increases the importance of the library and library media specialist at the secondary level. Students who have developed research skills in elementary settings will expect continued access to print—rich collections and electronic connection to additional resources when they reach the integrated and self-directed atmospheres of the new model secondary schools. In districts where graduating elementary students move into traditional bureaucratically structured junior high schools, or graduates of progressive middle schools move into traditionally run senior high schools, there is likely to be increased demand for library resources as services. These students will bring to their new schools their connection to reading, the interdisciplinary perspectives and cooperative learning skills they have developed at the previous level, and their existing ability to access additional information electronically.

The Coalition of Essential Schools philosophy embraces four beliefs: (1) a school should represent its community and the convictions of its staff; (2) there is no one best form for a school-schools of different size, shape, and structure can commit to a common set of guiding principles and each still look very different in practice; (3) all citizens in a democracy must be able to thoughtfully function in society and in the work force; and (4) teachers should be intellectual coaches, as defined by Mortimer Adler (1982) in his *Paideia Proposal.*

Sizer's (1992, 207–209) nine operational guidelines are as follows:

1. The central purpose of schooling is intellectual.

2. The school should have simple interdisciplinary goals. Each student should master certain areas of knowledge and a set of essential skills. While some of these skills clearly will reflect traditional academic disciplines, student mastery is more important than teacher coverage.

3. The school's goals should apply to every student, but the ways in which these goals are approached and achieved should vary with the students in question.

4. Teaching and learning should be as personalized as possible. No teacher should have responsibility for more than eighty students at a time so learning opportunities can be built upon student backgrounds, knowledge, and interests.

5. The governing metaphor in schooling is the student as worker. Teachers should guide students in the construction of new knowledge and the building of cognitive skills.

6. High school is not remedial; students should be competent in language and mathematics at the time of entry. If they are not, they should be given intensive remedial work before taking on the responsibility of secondary school study. Graduation is contingent upon a demonstration of mastery in which the student exhibits his or her grasp of the requisite knowledge and skills. Because mastery is the criterion, age grouping is not the driving organizational force in the school, and credits do not have the meaning they have now.

7. The tone of the school is one of unanxious expectation, trust, and decency. Parents should be treated as collaborators with teachers and administrators in facilitating their students' progress, and appropriate incentives should be employed for both teachers and students.

8. Educators should first perceive themselves as generalists and then as specialists; they should expect their jobs to be multidimensional: teacher-counselor-manager.

9. Collaborative and collegial activities are vital to professional development and quality instruction. Salaries should be competitive for staff, but the overall cost of the Essential Schools approach should not top out higher than 10 % above current per-pupil costs.

School-to-Work Transition Tasks

Recent emphasis by the business sector on preparing the future work force for a globally competitive marketplace has resulted in a new focus on career education in school reform efforts. Sometimes referred to as a "school-to-work" initiative, emphasis is placed on the student as a

future worker. This has encouraged schools to consider both the skills and the personality attributes that eventually will be needed to establish students in a productive work environment. This includes team building, cooperative skills, and the higher order thinking skills that are associated with the work of our increasingly technological society (Uchida, Cetron, and McKenzie 1996).

Some of the impetus for this reform comes from business pressures resulting from economic globalization. Local corporate concerns and unemployed youth have encouraged urban educators to alter perspectives on education's relevance to the business world, and in 1991 the Department of Labor published the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) Report. The SCANS Report identified five areas of competency—technology, resource use, systems understanding, interpersonal skills, and information use—as fundamental for high school graduates.

School-to-work is not a new version of vocational education aimed at a specific segment of the school population. There is a growing perception that all students can benefit from a curriculum with a focus on future careers. The program has two distinct, but related, goals: improved educational achievement and advancement, and improved employment and career prospects (Goldberger and Kazis 1996). The school-to-work movement calls for the integration of career education with academics and the provision of activity-based instruction and lessons incorporating higher-order thinking. Successfully delivered, this curriculum and teaching practice reform benefits both college-bound students and those with vocational aspirations (Ramsey 1995).

Significant support for the concept is based in the federal School-to-Work Opportunities Act, signed by President Clinton in May 1994. Every school-to-work program contains three core elements: school-based learning (classroom instruction based on high academic and occupational skill standards), work-based learning (work experience, structured training, and mentoring), and connecting activities (courses that integrate classroom and on-the-job instruction, match students with employers, train mentors, and develop links between schooling and work environments).

Some of the forms school-to-work programs have taken include the following:

1. Tech prep programs, which develop a high school course of study utilizing real-life situations to teach career skills, emphasizing math, science, and communication studies in applied settings. Most tech prep programs connect the last two years of high school with two years of postsecondary education, but this is not necessarily a requirement. Academic experience often is coupled with opportunities for work experience, although students receive most of their training in the classroom.

2. Youth apprenticeship programs, which emphasize employer-provided training. During their work experience, participants are paid for their work and monitored by a skilled professional at the job site.

3. Career academies, which often use a school-within-a-school model and focus on a specific career field, such as health or finance. These appear particularly helpful to students who sometimes have trouble functioning in a traditionally structured high school (Banks 1994). "Academies offer curricula that integrate career topics with applied,

information. The library is related to each skill listed under that competency (evaluation, organization, interpretation, communication of information, use of computers to process information) (Hamilton 1993).

5. Developers of curriculum find varieties of approaches, ranging from very simple to extremely complex, heavy with project-

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This cluster of ideas for school reform is more mixed in nature than the previous two. In fact, it is almost kaleidoscopic—an eclectic selection of auT6sscn /TT3d 12es, most of which are well known and have been implemented to some degree in hundreds of schools, but that do not necessarily have a great deal in common.

Curricular Reforms in Specific Disciplines: Mathematics, Science, Language Arts, and Social Science

Reforms in most specific disciplines have not really been advanced as curricula. Each issuing body has promoted them as standards only and stated that adherence to them is voluntary. In practice, however, standards outline a framework, and the explanatory text that accompanies the statement of each standard—especially in those frameworks that offer "content standards" as well as performance standards—indicates something stronger than just a suggestion. These reform proposals both have been praised and criticized because they do not necessarily tell teachers exactly what to do and when. If implemented, however, they individually and collectively carry implications for library media services and the instructional role of the library media specialist.

Mathematics Reform The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics Commission on Standards for School Mathematics issued the Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics in 1989. The Council set five goals for students:

1. Value mathematics—have experiences that illuminate the historical, cultural, and scientific evolution of math; understand and appreciate the role and impact of mathematics in society and in the disciplines it serves;
2. Reason mathematically—skill in making conjectures, gathering evidence, and building arguments to support theory and engaging in sound reasoning is as important as finding correct answers;
3. Communicate mathematically—to express mathematical ideas in appropriate terms and symbols; solve problems that involve students in reading, writing, and talking the language of math;
4. Be confident of their mathematical abilities; and
5. Become mathematical problem solvers—apply the power and utility of mathematics to real-world challenges, something essential to productive citizenship.

In practice, these standards call for a hands-on approach to math instruction that involves using a context that is of interest to the student, presenting math concepts through concrete active assignments, representing mathematical relationships in multiple ways, and encouraging students to make and reflect upon the connections of mathematics to real life (Brutlag and Maples 1992). A feature in this approach to math is the increased linkage to reading and writing. Advocates promote reading far beyond the explanations given in typical math textbooks, arguing that students also should read issues in history and philosophy, accounts of strategies used in the solutions of mathematical problems in history, biographies, and anecdotes that provide insights into the sources of mathematical discoveries (Siegel and Borasia 1992). Another key in meeting these standards involves the use of technology. Realistic mathematical instruction today involves

focus on core concepts, developing thinking processes and questioning skills. In total, science is to be authentic; that is, students are presented with problem-solving activities tied to real-life questions and issues. The format is predominantly collaborative, there is significant engagement with informed sources, and students interpret with an eye to broader generalization of what they have learned.

The NSES include standards for teaching, for the development of science teachers, for assessment in science education, for science content, for science education programs, and for science education systems. The statements explaining the standards are complex and contain too many specifics to be summarized here. It is important, however, and sufficient for our discussion of library media implications, to note that the goals for school science underlying the standards include educating students who are able to

1. Experience the richness and excitement of understanding the natural world,
2. Use appropriate scientific processes and principles in making personal decisions,
3. Engage intelligently in public discourse about scientific and technological issues and concerns, and
4. Increase their economic productivity.

Although calling for the extensive use of technology in the accomplishment of these goals, the standards make a clear distinction between science and technology: the goal of science is to

of these have links to library resources and the librarian's expertise.

This is a delicate area for school library media specialists. Technology advances so quickly that training is very soon outdated, not only for the library media specialist, but also for faculty members, too. It is a real possibility that commitment to staying current in technology will cannibalize much of what library media specialists do now.

Yet there is also no visible escape from the problem. Two forces even suggest its further growth. First, as the quantity and quality of technology suitable for instruction increases, it is likely that teachers will make it a higher priority in their thinking and practice, creating a heavier demand for materials and training. Second, as current teachers retire, newly graduated teachers familiar with technology and its advantages in the classroom will take their place, bringing their demand for support with them. Without significantly increased staffing in school libraries or the creation in each school of a separate technology coordinator's position—both of which put libraries in competition with other parts of the school for scarce resources—the school library media specialist is likely to be overwhelmed with demands for assistance.

The development of technologically rich environments also raises issues of equity. Research suggests that computers are put to significantly different uses in different types of schools. Schools with lower socioeconomic populations use computers relatively more for drill and practice and other lower level skills, while higher SES schools use them more to foster creativity and support the development of problem-solving skills (Becker 1986; Levine and Levine 1996). Additionally, as students increase their work on computers at school, the tendency—maybe the need—to work on a home computer

4. Because successful implementation of mastery learning, outcome-based education, and elements of tui(ent)-14(a)-6(r)324 60.3T

Fortunately, one of the positive features of block scheduling is the increased time teachers have for instructional planning. Block scheduling offers the possibility of rich opportunities for media specialists to build stronger collegial relationships with teachers and to become more visible partners in instruction.

Non-Graded Schools

Most curriculum is delivered to age-graded groups of youngsters. A reform that has cycled in and out of education for nearly half a century in urban areas and has always been a feature of small rural schools is the idea of age-mixed classes. The fundamental premise is that when grade levels are eliminated, instruction is more individualized and students learn at their own pace. Non-graded schools most often are found in elementary settings, although the concept is applicable to older students as well.

In non-graded schools, there are no expectations of full-day, year-long groupings associated with specific age group cohorts. The goal of non-gradedness is to improve the match between student readiness and course of study, while increasing the level of individual instruction available. Typically, a team of teachers works with a team of students in shifting group configurations. The work is often project based, with multi-age, heterogeneous groups engaged in problem-solving activities grounded in interdisciplinary units. Issues of promotion and retention are eliminated, and students may progress at their own rates. Progress is usually reported in terms of completed tasks and levels of mastery (Pavan 1992). There are indications that student achievement is higher than in traditional graded settings, but research has been sparse since the early 1970s (Rich 1992).

Non-graded schools are demanding environments for teachers. The quality of the experience for the children turns on the quality of the curriculum and instruction utilized within the non-graded structural framework (Slavin 1992). It is an approach that requires the development and delivery of myriad experiences for each child.

Implications of Non-Graded Schools for School Library Media

Non-graded schooling holds many of the same implications for school library media specialists as the Accelerated Schools, Comer's Developmental Schools, mastery learning, and outcome-based education: increased need for varieties of materials and a wider range of teaching approaches.

"Authentic" Assessment Approaches

Assessment of student achievement has traditionally been through standardized quantitative measures, which generally are indirect and static. Assessment reformers argue that more realistic—or "authentic"—evaluation of student achievement and capability is to be found in displays, exhibitions, portfolios, and other qualitative approaches.

The basis of alternative assessment is the direct, comprehensive measure of achievement through student products such as essays, exhibits, and evidence of student-generated problems and solutions. As an organic part of the classroom experience, these assessments become part of the day-to-

just any other adult, but *the* adult who is primarily and ultimately responsible for the creation and implementation of the lesson.

Training in how to plan lessons for students is not the same as training in how to develop lessons in collaboration with teachers, and specific circumstances can make the task even more complicated. Whether the school in question is an elementary or a secondary school, specialists are called upon to work with teachers across all the grade levels and all the subject matter areas in that building. This is a major challenge in itself, but it is made more difficult at the secondary level, especially in high schools, by the specificity and increasing sophistication of subjects taught. The techniques of lesson planning for one subject are not universal to the teaching of other secondary level subjects. The situation can be even more difficult for those specialists who work in K–12 environments. Teacher training appropriately targets a given age group of students in a particular setting. An as/84-10(c)4(n m)4h 2(s) me set(s)1s a aestpp an make topr ain chpr aid gec 0(as)- e

empowering teachers; the third, at empowering students. This empowerment is not limited to their roles as school learners, but includes their roles in society as well. A dominant theme in these reforms involves students' taking responsibility for their own learning in and after school and in preparation for their life's work. There is a clear determination to change the role of students from

accessing many of the new electronic resources may become progressively less able to assist their students as the young people's interests and inquiries lead them into areas removed from the teacher's credentialed expertise. The librarians' knowledge of materials across the curriculum and their ability to provide access to those materials to students play important roles in raising the odds of student success.

Technology

Technology exists in three dimensions in schools, and all three have an impact on library media services: (1) using technology to teach—everything from researching content and lesson ideas on the Internet, to classroom presentations, to specific software applications for targeted purposes, to distance education; (2) using technology for learning—everything from information retrieval to the varieties of computer-assisted learning; and (3) recognizing technology as a subject matter discipline in its own right—from computer science on the one hand to social studies investigations of the impact of technology on our lives on the other. A good example of the blending of these three is found in magnet schools that concentrate on computer applications. Ideally, teachers in those schools employ technology in the presentation of their lessons; students use technology from the first stages of information searching to the final stages of project presentation; and the curriculum addresses not only the mechanics of technology, but also its scientific, economic, social, and political impact.

Of course, the quality of the results from these three approaches to technology depends upon at least two things: (1) the knowledge level and commitment of teachers, and (2) the availability of the technology. Both have implications for library media.

Teachers

Data gathered in the last few years show that nearly a quarter of secondary teachers—almost a third in mathematics—have not completed even a bachelor's degree minor in their main teaching field (McMillen, Bobbitt, and Lynch 1994). In the highest minority enrollment schools, math and science students have less than a 50% chance of being placed with teachers who hold degrees and credentials in the subjects they are teaching (Oakes, 1990). Without a firm grounding in the subjects they teach, it is unlikely these teachers are highly aware of the best technology in their areas, and it is questionable if they will employ it effectively if they receive it. Cuban's work (1993) indicates that most teachers new to technology use it not to do anything differently, but to do more efficiently what they already had been doing. Depending upon the culture of the schools in which these people work, the quantity and quality of resources at their disposal, and the level of acceptance the library media specialist receives as a partner in curriculum and instruction, the role of library services could be critical in helping these instructors overcome preparation deficiencies.

Availability

The availability of technology also implies challenges for school libraries. As the presence of computers grows in schools, more attention is being turned to the creation of technologically rich environments. A growing number of research studies (Software Publishers Association 1992) and programs, such as the Anchored Instruction approach developed by the Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt University (1990) and the Computer Supported Intentional

Learning Environment coming out of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (U.S. Department of Education 1996), are demonstrating that computer-assisted instruction can result in student achievement gains. One of the key results these research pieces and projects show, however, is that advances in achievement come when students have continual access to technology, not when there is only one computer in the room or through widely spaced episodic sessions in a computer lab or library.

Insufficient access to computers can cause bottlenecks in learning. Cooperative learning can

separate from library media services, or not to think of the library at all in evaluating the level of teaching and learning in their schools.

Because libraries and library media specialists are not thought of as integrated components of quality teaching and learning experiences, they are not visibly identified with the central core of school activities, nor are they thought of as integral to school success. Consequently, they receive less recognition, their influence is often less than it ought to be, and they are much more vulnerable to being ignored. The irony in this—and the tragedy—is that in rightly doing everything possible to protect the classroom in tight financial times, administrators may cut library services and, in doing so, cut away one of the essentials of classroom quality.

The Cultural Environment of Most Schools

A third reason many educators lack an understanding of the full potential of library media services and media specialists rests in the culture of most schools. The typical school culture works against meaningful interaction between media specialists and teachers and discourages media specialists from taking leadership positions.

Teachers are victims in the school setting, just as library media specialists are. The absence of outstanding teacher leadership is not a function of the people who make up the profession. Education is filled with bright, well-educated, committed, and persuasive professionals. The emergence of significant teacher leadership is blocked by two things: the nature of teacher training, and the organizational structure of schools.

In addition to the failure to address the potential of the library in instruction and the media specialist in curriculum development, most teacher preparation programs neglect leadership training. Focused on children and their needs, teacher training does not include many of the components of adult leadership. Rare is the program that addresses communication with adults, adult motivation theory, adult conflict resolution, or organizational management issues. Nor are these studies frequently undertaken as a part of inservice programs. It also should be noted that this is the fundamental pattern of preparation for most people who will become school library media specialists.

The real culprit, though, is the organizational structure of most schools, which isolates and limits teachers and media specialists alike. The primary organizational unit in schools is the classroom, an isolated place staffed with one adult and a given number of students. Although the conditions of isolation and departmental organization are being challenged in middle schools across the country, the bulk of junior high schools and certainly the overwhelming majority of high schools suffer from this organizational structure (Davis 1987; Lieberman 1985; Boyer 1983; Shulman 1989; Wittrock 1986). Teachers spend their day with students and have much less adult interaction than do people in most other lines of work. As a result, they usually have relatively little experience in collaborating with and leading other adults, simply because the time and opportunity for the requisite engagement with other adults is severely reduced, if not eliminated. Although their work day pattern is different, library media specialists are similarly isolated. There is usually only one librarian in a school, and the isolation is intensified by school schedules and the patterns of library operation. Teachers most often have lunch and other breaks in their days at the same times as the students. Since students and employees often use these times to go to the library for what they need, many media specialists are required to be at their

duty stations to serve them. Consequently, they are almost systematically kept from opportunities to build visibility, relationships, and influence with teachers and administrators.

Over the century and more in which the current organizational structure of schools has prevailed, a culture has evolved in which the only really consistent leadership has been vested administrators. There have been, and continue to be, efforts to increase opportunities for real teacher leadership. Some are very encouraging. In the main, however, they are stymied by tradition and structure. In most instances, teachers only infrequently think of themselves as leaders, and even less often think of each other as leaders in any formal sense.

Teaching has a culture of egalitarianism (Troen and Boles 1993). First, with very few exceptions, there are no formal ranks among teachers. Promotion is possible only by leaving teaching. In most schools, a 65-year-old teacher with forty years experience performs the same duties as a 25-year-old first-year teacher fresh from the university. Second, salary schedules are built on a blend of educational attainments and years of experience. They do not differentiate on the basis of grade or subject taught, students taught, or the quality of performance (Burden 1985; Jacobson 1988; Murnane 1987). Third, classroom isolation provides teachers with a great deal of autonomy in the completion of their work; they decide the nature and the flow of events in their classrooms (Jackson 1968). The thought of having to negotiate and share this control can threaten their autonomy, and many resist. Given this environment, teachers are not particularly open to suggestion, let alone direction, from their peers.

As a result, in most schools, the ideal colleague is the person willing to offer help but not to question or give direction. Unlike in medicine, law, architecture, or other professions in which it is routine to seek second opinions, employ specialists, or work in a team, to admit a need for help on a problem in teaching is to admit a personal weakness or deficiency (Stern 1986; Lortie 1975; McPherson 1972; Sarason 1982; Silver 1973). In response to this norm, a culture has developed that strongly discourages teachers from criticizing each other and from telling or showing each other how to do things better. As one researcher has pointed out, the only really acceptable way a teacher has to tell another teacher to do something differently is to pass along the nonthreatening information that alternative methods exist and are being used in other schools (Newberry 1977).

To actively promote colla

The Challenge

Taken together, these forces pose a formidable and urgent challenge to library media specialists in effectively and positively responding to school change. The task is formidable, first, because the sources of its problematic nature are rooted in domains not really under the control of school library media specialists—university training, school structure, and tradition. Cultural change is the most difficult kind of change (Evans 1996; Kotter 1997), requiring teachers and administrators to significantly alter their perceptions of media specialists and their roles in schooling. The irony of efforts to change educators' perceptions of school library media services is that the people who benefit from the specialist's knowledge and skills also are the resistors of it. As Philip Turner (1993) observes, they are simultaneously the challenge, the frustration, and the reward.

The task is formidable, secondly, because it will take time for these new perceptions to take root in the education community. Library media specialists, individually and collectively, need to seek leadership positions and to carve out positive and visible places for themselves in the reform effort. But, as Sarason (1991) has pointed out, if a new paradigm of teacher preparation were to be instituted today, it would be decades before its full impact could be felt. It would take that long for teachers trained in a framework of partnership with library media specialists to complete their studies, enter the work force, reach critical mass proportions, and accrue the seniority that would allow them to occupy positions of influence and authority as teachers and to earn their credentials and ri

Development Council, and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Multiply the effect of their lobbying by forging links with the organizations listed above and others like them. They and their state affiliates wield considerable power with

administrator thinking through writing for teacher and administrator publications and making presentations at teacher and administrator conferences. These efforts to use their influence have already begun—some by media specialists acting as independent professionals, others with either the stimulation or the support of library advancement programs such as the National Library Power Project funded by the DeWitt Wallace Foundation and administered through the American Library Association.

Viewed as a whole, the resources available to library media specialists encourage optimism. Put to effective use, the library media community has the potential to help shape and then to capitalize on most of the positive implications of school change and to blunt a good measure of the negative. But it must begin now to secure its position at the planning table. As Cleaver and Taylor (1989) contend, the notion of what it means to be an effective library media specialist is conceptually mature. Now the task is to fulfill the implications of that concept.

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