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CHAPTER FOUR

BRITISH AND AMERICAN SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

The twentieth century in Great Britain, the United States of America, and Australia, saw school libraries, like education itself, increasingly the subject of government and professional inquiry and of legislative action. The increasing dominance of centralised authorities - government departments on the one hand, professional library associations on the other - in defining goals for the development of school libraries and in encouraging aspirations towards them, is, in fact, one of the major features of the history of school libraries in this period. The work of professional associations has been directed particularly to the creation of standards for school library collections and services, which influenced, and were influenced by, the legislative actions of governments at the various levels. With the establishment of the American Library Association in 1876,¹ the Library Association (in Great Britain) in 1877,² and in 1894 the

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1. At a conference of librarians held at Philadelphia. There had been in 1853 a conference of librarians in New York with an attendance of eighty delegates, but there was no follow-up until the conference of 1876. The purpose of the Association was one of "promoting the library interests of the country, and of increasing reciprocity and good will among librarians and all interested in library economy and bibliographical studies". Anonymous, "American Library Association: A Note on its Origin and Growth", in Library Association of Australasia, Conference Proceedings, 1898, (Adelaide, 1969), p.7.
 2. The Library Association of the United Kingdom had similar aims to those of the A.L.A. Americans from the newly established American Library Association were present at the conference which established the Library Association. Barry Scott, "Library Associations in Australia, Past and Present", Australian Library Journal, 5,3(1956), p.102.

the Library Association of Australasia,¹ librarians in each country began to look as a group at their own position and training, and at the quality of the collections and services which their libraries offered. As a result of the work of men like Melville Dewey, who was instrumental in founding the American Library Association, the first School of Librarianship was established, the professional literature available increased, and problems of library organisation and management were investigated more critically. This is reflected in the development of, and the demands made upon, school libraries since 1900.

The size of school library collections, and of the space needed for housing them and utilising them effectively, increased greatly in the twentieth century, a trend which was common to all other types of libraries, and which was related to the greatly increased and increasing quantity of suitable books and other materials available for purchase. But while there was a general increase in the size of school library facilities and their collections, there was still a very wide gap, even in this area, between what was seen as ideal, and the reality. Few schools in the twentieth century were able to pro-

1. This Association, founded in November 1894, held Australia-wide conferences in 1896, 1898, 1900, and 1902, produced published proceedings, and promoted the profession generally in Australia until it became dormant in 1902. Subsequently other attempts were made to establish an Australia-wide professional association, including one in 1927. In 1937 the Australian Institute of Librarians was established, which, after many changes, became the Library Association of Australia in 1949. This complicated history is discussed in some detail in an article by Barry Scott, "Library Associations in Australia, Past and Present", in the Australian Library Journal, 5,3(1956), pp.102-108. It is also discussed in an article written in response to Scott's, by John Metcalfe, "A Comment on Our History", Australian Library Journal, 5,4(1956), pp.142-144.

vide libraries which met the accepted standards¹ set by professional librarians and government agencies; it is possible, in fact, that a higher proportion of seventeenth century school libraries met standards then considered appropriate, than would be true of British school libraries in the twentieth century. In the period to 1945 particularly, much of the attention of government agencies and professional associations in Britain was directed towards attempts to encourage the development in schools generally of libraries which would at least equal the best school libraries established during and immediately after the Reformation period. While there was an increase in the expectations held for school library facilities and collections, in terms of size, as indicated earlier, standards held up before school authorities in the twentieth century are in all but one other respect almost identical with what leading school libraries had aspired to, and even achieved, centuries before. That one area in which a new need was identified - trained manpower in the school library - was also that in which least progress was made towards achieving the ideal, possibly in part because there was a good deal of ambivalence on this in the standards themselves. Even today in Great Britain, the United States of America, and in Australia, despite some recent progress in the development of professional education for school librarians, there is still considerable disagreement about what education and training is seen as desirable for such

1. The development of standards for school library service will be discussed at length throughout this Chapter and the next. Standards, which may be quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of both, set out basic specifications to be used as objectives for a school library programme and for school library development generally. They may be developed by professional associations, government departments, school systems.

people, and considerable variation in the educational backgrounds of people employed in such positions.

The increasing importance of centralised authorities in the development of school libraries in this century is apparent in a series of Education Acts and Public Libraries Acts which influenced and controlled the development of school libraries in England in the twentieth century. The first of these was the 1902 Education Act, which established the Board of Education to take control over both elementary and secondary education. The latter, which had not been clearly defined previously, and had come under the auspices of three independent bodies, the Science and Art Department, the Education Department, and the Educational Charities, was defined as the form of education made available by

a school which offers to each of its scholars, a general education of wider scope and higher grade than that of an elementary school, given through a complete progressive course of instruction, continuing up to and beyond the age of sixteen.¹

A secondary school had to offer at least a four-year course, providing instruction in groups of subjects selected so as to ensure some breadth in the education given. These subject groups were specified as: firstly, English language, English literature, geography, history; secondly, a language other than English; thirdly, mathematics and science, theoretical and practical; and fourthly, drawing. For all pupils physical exercises were to be provided; for girls a course in practical housewifery, and for boys manual work.²

1. England. Board of Education, 1904 Report, p.46.

2. Heulwen M. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, 1860-1970, (M.Ed. thesis, University College of North Wales, 1973), p.21.

In the Higher Education report for 1902 the need for more school libraries was stressed, with the comment being made that "to teach history, language or literature without books, is as absurd as to teach science without apparatus. The latter course is now forbidden; the former is universal."¹ Despite this forward-looking approach to school libraries, the report looked backward in other areas,² so that many schools in which scientific study had been developed, were forced to stress the old classical subjects again - "where two languages other than English are taken, and Latin is not one of them, the Board is required to be satisfied that the omission of Latin is for the good of the school." The Board, continuing to emphasise the importance of reading as a means of acquiring knowledge, was reporting by 1910 that "school libraries are multiplying, though not as rapidly as could be wished"³ in the secondary schools. In the Board of Education Report for 1912-13 it was noted that while the number of libraries had increased, there were many deficiencies.

While money has been expended freely on the equipment of schools, in other directions, the library has too often been starved, and yet properly considered, a library is at least as necessary a part of the equipment of a well-organised school, as a laboratory workshop or a gymnasium.⁴

The writers of the report went on to indicate that since only one third of schools had a separate room for a library, it was usual for books to be scattered round the school, often being kept in the most inconvenient places. While it was accepted that school libraries could be supplemented by the public libraries, in the same report it was also stressed that there were advantages to having a library

1. England. Board of Education, 1902 Report, p.65.

2. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.21.

3. England. Board of Education, 1910-11 Report, p.24.

4. England. Board of Education, 1912-13 Report, pp.117-120.

within and owned by the school: books, such as dictionaries, which were needed for constant use, were more easily accessible; reference books which were needed in the school but often not found in the public library could be stocked; and reference books could be made immediately available to the user.¹ "Where there is a special room for the library", they said, "it should form...the centre of the intellectual life of the school, and pupils should be free to resort to it at certain hours for quiet reading and study".²

In the conclusion to their 1912-13 Report the writers, Inspectors of Schools, set out standards for school libraries: while primarily for reference, they should contain not only reference books strictly so called, but "literature in the widest sense, humanistic and scientific", as well as books for general or recreational reading, suitable for pupils of all ages. Even in the smallest libraries an effective classification scheme should be used; the library should be available for use at the proper times by all older pupils; every effort should be made to ensure that the library was "light and attractive"; it should be the responsibility of each member of the staff to enlist the co-operation of the pupils. These standards, bearing a remarkable similarity to suggestions made by Charles Hoole for organising seventeenth century grammar school libraries, illustrate the fact that schools generally had still, three centuries later, not achieved what had been seen as desirable library provision at the end of the Reformation period. With the outbreak of the 1914-1918 World War, which meant strict economy measures in education, no progress could be made towards the imple-

1. Ibid., p.120.

2. Ibid., p.120.

mentation in secondary schools of these 1912-13 standards.¹ At the same time as the war was placing severe limits on finances available for education, the number of pupils entering government-funded secondary schools greatly increased, placing a further strain on resources and limiting the possible growth of school libraries.²

While only one third of all secondary schools had separate library rooms early in the twentieth century, "almost invariably" the public³ (that is, independent) schools made such provision.⁴ Public schools which had separate and well-stocked libraries by the first decade of the twentieth century included Aldenham School at Elstree,⁵ Bedales School near Petersfield,⁶ Bedford School,⁷ Bristol

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1. Ellis, *The Evolution of the School Library*, pp.24-25.
 2. In 1894 only four or five pupils per thousand in the elementary schools went on to secondary schools, but by 1911 the proportion of the school-age population receiving full-time secondary education had doubled. This was due in part to the provisions of the 1902 Education Act, the 1903 Employment of Children Act (which empowered the Local Education Authorities to specify a minimum age at which children could be employed outside school hours), and the 1904 Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act (which further restricted their employment).
 3. It should be noted with regard to this discussion, that the term "public schools" means very different things in Great Britain, the United States of America, and Australia. Where possible, the accepted local terms will be used to describe schools, with appropriate explanatory terms added where necessary for clarity. Since terms like "independent", "non-government", "private", also have different connotations in the different countries, and since the schools to which such terms might be applied are so very different in the different countries, it would result in oversimplification to try to describe them by a common term.
 4. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Committee Appointed to Inquire Into the Provision of Libraries in Secondary Schools, Libraries in Secondary Schools, A Report..., (Edinburgh, 1936), p.8.
 5. Aldenham School Cuttings Scrapbook, 1881 on. In the school library.
 6. Bedales School. First Minute Book of the Committee of Librarians, begun 1908/9, MS, at the school library.
 7. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Libraries in Secondary Schools.

Grammar School,¹ Cheltenham Ladies' College,² Merchant Taylors' School, Crosby,³ Malvern College,⁴ Manchester Grammar School,⁵ and the Tonbridge School.⁶ These school libraries, generally established, or re-established, in the later nineteenth century, were housed in attractive rooms, and boasted book collections of considerable size, classified and arranged for easy use. The first photograph of the library at Cheltenham Ladies' College, for instance, shows that in 1913 this school had library premises spacious, light, and airy, attractively furnished for quiet private study, with a collection clearly catalogued and organised well. Supervised in its early years by Ethel Fegan, a pioneer of school librarianship who wrote a well-known manual of school library management⁷ and developed a system of classification for school libraries,⁸ this library would have been regarded as highly satisfactory for a school sixty years later. The photograph of the library in 1936 strongly suggests continuous, orderly, and planned growth in the intervening period. The fact that more public and grammar schools (including girls' schools like

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1. C.P. Hill, The History of Bristol Grammar School, (London, 1951), p.197.
 2. Cheltenham Ladies' College, Cheltenham Ladies' College Library, (London, [1914]), n.p.
 3. Joan M. Potter, Old School Libraries in Lancashire: A Continued History 1885-1978, (M.A. thesis, Loughborough University of Technology, 1979).
 4. Rev. S.R. James, Malvern College: Containing 21 Views of College and Grounds; with portraits of Headmaster and Housemasters; also an introductory description, (Malvern, n.d. [c.1900]), unpagged.
 5. Alfred A. Mumford, The Manchester Grammar School 1515-1915, (London, 1919), p.524.
 6. Tonbridge School, Catalogue of Tonbridge School Library, (Tonbridge, 1866).
 7. Ethel Sophia Fegan, School Libraries: Practical Hints on Management, (Cambridge, 1928).
 8. Ethel Sophia Fegan, The Cheltenham Classification: A Library Classification for Schools, (Cambridge, 1937).



Cheltenham Ladies College: The Library in 1913 and in 1936.
(Photographs from the School.)



Cheltenham), had substantial libraries, than schools operated by the education authorities, is accounted for by the long tradition of library provision in public and grammar schools, which encouraged the development of libraries in new schools of this type, and by the limitations mentioned earlier on finances available to the newer secondary schools run by the local education authorities, which restricted library development in them.

At the same time as publicly funded secondary and elementary schools were being required to expand rapidly to take increasing numbers of schoolchildren, elementary education particularly was coming under more critical public scrutiny, with demands being made, by employers and others, for more efficient and more appropriate basic education for all people. One of the needs pointed to was for "a more meaningful use of books"¹ in the schools, which had implications for school library provision. In the same period, and more importantly, educational theorists were propounding ideas which made new demands on school libraries - demands which, because of the limited finance available for education during the 1914-1918 World War, the further drastic reductions in expenditure on education as a result of the Geddes Committee reports of 1922,² and the difficulties of the Depression years, remained largely unmet in the publicly funded schools. Nevertheless these newer educational ideas, sponsored by the New Education Fellowship and the Progressive Schools Movement, did receive some publicity during the inter-war years, 1919 to 1939, gradually gaining some acceptance and some influence, even where

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1. Alec Ellis, A History of Children's Reading and Literature, (London, 1968), p.131.
 2. Great Britain. Committee on National Expenditure, Report, (London, 1922). This report recommended that public expenditure on education be reduced by 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ percent.

implementation of them was not possible.¹

Central to these ideas was an emphasis upon individual differences between children, and upon learning as a process involving the child's own initiative; this emphasis had as a corollary a more central and crucial role for the library than in earlier practice. Some of the new developments, particularly in instructional methods, were related to the work of Maria Montessori on children with learning difficulties;² to the theories of philosophers like John Dewey, who emphasised freedom, individual initiative, and co-operative experiment in education; and to the ideas of educational psychologists like William Janets and William McDougall, who pointed out that children should not be expected to attain a prescribed level of ability, as had been the case formerly, but that teaching should be geared to the needs, abilities, experience, and interests of each child at each stage of his growth. These ideas were basic to new methods in education, including the Project Method and the Dalton Plan,³ which emphasised independent and group assignment work in mathematics, history, science, English, geography, and languages, allowing freedom for children to choose and organise their own learning experience.⁴ This type of learning meant a greater reliance on the library which, in theory at least, became the central focus for all learning within the school. John Dewey himself, in The School and Society, suggested that "the centre of the school" should be "represented by the way all

1. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.26.

2. Her book, The Montessori Method, was translated into English in 1912.

3. Helen Parkhurst, Education on the Dalton Plan, (London, 1922), p.15.

4. Ibid., p.16.

come together in the library";¹ from it materials could be sent to the various "laboratories" set up for each aspect of school work, where children would become researchers involved in completing their self-chosen "contract jobs" within a specified period of time.

An early example of a school in which these new ideas were implemented was Dartington Hall School, Totnes. The school's 1926 Prospectus indicated that the Project Method of instruction had by then been adopted throughout the school. To support this method a library was provided which would "be freely available to the students at any time of the day"; in addition, special books were to "be procured for project work from the chief London lending libraries", to augment school library stocks.²

Though the fullest implementation of the new ideas came in a small number of privately run schools, their influence can be traced in the Board of Education reports as early as 1904, and they are of central significance in the Hadow Report of 1931. The Board of Education's Elementary Code of 1904 indicated that elementary school children's interest was to be aroused in "the ideals and achievements of mankind", and in the literary and historical traditions of their own country. This could, it was suggested, be partially achieved if a taste for good reading was developed, which, together with a critical approach to study, would enable children to increase their knowledge through independent study in later years.³ The 1904 Report

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1. John Dewey, The School and Society, reprinted in Martin S. Dworkin, Dewey on Education: Selections With an Introduction and Notes, (New York, 1959), p.80.
 2. Dartington Hall School, Totnes, Prospectus, (n.p., 1926).
 3. Ellis, A History of Children's Reading and Literature, p.131.

of the Board of Education encouraged the development of discovery learning, with the suggestion that pupils be trained "in habits of observation and clear reasoning, so that they might gain an acquaintance with some of the facts and laws of nature."¹ The Board of Education Reports and Instructions continued to reflect the new ideas; in 1927, for example, in the Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers the comment was made that "in recent years it has been more clearly recognised that children should be allowed to progress through the school at varying rates, suited to their individual capacity",² reflecting a reaction against what was seen by some to be the "blind, passive, literal and unintelligent obedience" encouraged in the elementary schools in the first decades of the twentieth century.³ The authors of the Hadow Report of 1931 on primary education saw the child as an individual, who should be encouraged to develop within his own environment, "to become as a result a social being who would be both sensitive and adaptable".⁴ This report saw the curriculum ideally as not "only lessons to be mastered, but as providing fields of new and interesting experience to be explored".⁵ "A good school", it was suggested, was "not only a place of compulsory instruction, but a community of old and young, engaged in learning by co-operative experiment."⁶ Books and libraries were seen to be

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1. England, Board of Education, 1904 Report, quoted by Ellis, A History of Children's Reading and Literature, p.130.
 2. England. Board of Education, Suggestions for Teachers, (London, 1927), p.33.
 3. Edmond Holmes made this criticism of the elementary schools on the basis of what he saw of them as an Inspector. Edmond Holmes, What Is, and What Might Be, (London, 1911), p.50.
 4. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.28.
 5. England. Board of Education. Consultative Committee on Primary Education, Report, (London, 1931), p.xviii.
 6. Ibid., p.xvii.

important in relation to these ideals, as a means of enabling children to develop their own experience. While the ideas propounded by educational theorists, and promoted through these reports and other publications of the Board of Education, could not be fully implemented, particularly given the financial conditions of the period, they provided a basis for the limited school library development which did take place in "public", privately run, and publicly funded secondary and elementary schools in England before 1945.

In the 1920s, partly influenced by these new ideas, the London County Council, in co-operation with teachers and librarians, promoted the development of library activity "as an important adjunct to educational progress in London".¹ The supply of books to elementary schools in the city, begun by the Board of Education for London in the late nineteenth century, and developed after 1904 by the London County Council, was extended after 1919, in response to "the rapid growth of individual work and individual reading in the schools".² It recognised "that as the growing child requires a variety of nourishing food for the body, so it also requires a variety of nourishing food for the mind, and this can only be supplied by placing at the child's disposal a supply of good books."³ Books were therefore made available to London elementary schools in four different ways: through direct requisitions by schools; through a circulation scheme; through the loan collection; and to teachers

1. London County Council, Schools and Libraries: An Account of the Development of Library Activities in the London Education Service, (Westminster, 1925), p.1.

2. Ibid., p.1.

3. Ibid., p.2.

through the education library. Once a year every department of each elementary school was able to requisition books chosen from a 120-page Requisition List, up to a fixed limit, depending on the number of children in the school. The Requisition List covered general works on all school subjects, textbooks, and fiction. A proportion of the books provided in this way to each school went into the library, as decided by the school. Under the circulation scheme books supplied in sets of forty copies of each book remained in the school for half a year before being collected and distributed to another school. The loan collection supplied reading material to schools where pupils were too poor to buy their own books. Through this collection 80,000 lantern slides were also available for loan to teachers. The Education Library, a lending library of professional literature for teachers, had a collection in 1925 of 25,000 volumes.¹

School library provision was organised differently in the publicly funded secondary schools of London. The Building Regulations of the Board of Education required by 1925 that a special room fitted up as a library be provided in each secondary school. This room could not be used as a classroom, though individual pupils, particularly those in Sixth Form, could work in it during school hours.² When the London County Council first established secondary schools of its own, a sum of twenty-five pounds per year was allowed to each school to maintain a library and to provide pictures for it. By 1925 there was no specific sum set aside for the school library, but the Governors of each school could allocate as much as they saw fit from the total

1. Ibid., p.4.

2. England. Board of Education, Memorandum on the Secondary School Building Regulations, (Circular 1364), 19th May 1925.

capitation allowances available.¹ There was no circulation scheme to supply books to secondary schools, however, as there was for the elementary schools, nor was a loan scheme available to them.

Public libraries in many parts of Britain, both in urban areas and in the counties, played an important role in supplying books to teachers and pupils in schools. This partly reflected the strong part public libraries had played since the nineteenth century in supplying school library collections and services, a role easily initiated in a country where the local education authorities and the local library authorities were both part of the same local government administration; in some places, public libraries and publicly funded schools were even administered by the same local authority committee. The resources of the public libraries, particularly in bookstock, personnel, and finance, were sometimes used to make up for the shortcomings of school libraries. Sometimes, however, public library participation in school library service reflected a genuine belief that school libraries and library services could be better provided by the professional librarians of the local public library than by teachers who had, at best, a very limited knowledge of library practice. Impetus was given to this work by the Public Libraries Act of 1919, which made it legal for County Councils to become library authorities and to raise money for library administration;² the provision of buildings, however, formed no part of the county libraries scheme. By 1925, of about 6400 county libraries, some five thousand housed in school buildings, where teachers acted as honorary

1. London County Council, Schools and Libraries, p.4.

2. England. Board of Education. Consultative Committee on Books in Public Elementary Schools, Report, (London, 1928), p.70.

librarians.¹

The county library scheme was primarily designed to serve areas with no libraries, or where libraries needed to be supplemented by loans from a larger central collection.² The distribution of books from headquarters to the local centres was usually through book boxes despatched several times a year by rail or truck; boxes generally contained from thirty to seventy volumes, some of which were usually books suitable for children of school age. In a few counties a travelling van holding about 2000 volumes visited the various centres from time to time.³ The county libraries also distributed sets of books for general class reading to elementary schools, provided complete permanent or circulating school libraries, and provided reference works on education for teachers. In Wiltshire, for instance, the County Library in 1928 circulated sets of books suitable for general class reading to the elementary schools; these contained between twelve and twenty-five books of the same type, "adequate for the needs of half or whole classes", and were exchanged each term. Under this arrangement, "each pupil could be given the use of eight books a year".⁴ In Lancashire the supply of complete school library collections was an important part of the County Library's work.⁵ In Kent the Education Committee made a grant from the Elementary Education Fund to the County Library Fund to help finance the school

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1. Mark A. Bloomfield, "Between the Acts: Library Services to Schools from 1919 to 1944", Library Review, 22(1970), p.360.
 2. England. Board of Education. Consultative Committee on Books in Public Elementary Schools, Report, p.72.
 3. Ibid., p.72
 4. Ibid., p.79.
 5. Ibid., p.78.

libraries established by the County Library Service.¹

The urban public libraries had in many cases supplied books to the public elementary schools in their towns since the late nineteenth century. These libraries included books bearing directly on the school curriculum, books suitable for general reading by pupils, and works of reference for teachers. Public libraries, like county libraries, supplied sets of books for use in school; supplied permanent or circulating school libraries to some or all the schools in the area; and maintained a special section of books on education for teachers.² Many urban libraries also provided within their own building a special collection and reading room for children. Other services provided for schools by many of the public libraries included storytelling sessions, lessons in library use, and the arrangement of special visits by classes to the public library. In 1925-1926, a total of 6686 Bradford children visited three branch libraries in that town to have the mysteries of cataloguing, classification, and shelf arrangement explained to them,³ and classes in library use were frequently conducted in other towns for schoolchildren, including Cardiff and Nottingham.

Two major surveys of secondary school library service in England were carried out between the two World Wars, one reported in the Board of Education's 1928 Memorandum on Libraries in State-Aided Secondary Schools In England,⁴ and the other the Carnegie United

1. Ibid., p.78.

2. Ibid., p.70.

3. Ibid., p.80.

4. (London, 1928).

Kingdom Trust's report on Libraries in Secondary Schools, produced in 1936.¹ The former was prepared by a group of His Majesty's Inspectors with assistance from various educational associations, and published by the Board of Education as a pamphlet for general distribution; the latter, a more substantial booklet, was prepared by a Committee of Inquiry, appointed with funding from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, and with the support of the Board of Education, the County Councils Association, and the Association of Education Committees, to inquire into secondary school libraries and to make recommendations which could be used by school authorities in planning library development. Both reports attempted to describe school library conditions as they actually existed, while at the same time providing guidance for those who were seeking to establish "a good school library".

In the 1928 Memorandum the desirability of providing a separate room for the library, so that it could become "the centre of the intellectual life of the school - a place of silence, devoted to study and uninterrupted reading", was emphasised.² Where it was "impracticable to arrange for a separate room", as a temporary expedient books could be stored "on a systematic plan in a class-room or class-rooms" and one of the larger classrooms could be furnished as a reading room.³ The authors of the Carnegie Report in 1936 noted that the provision made for libraries in secondary schools were still inadequate,⁴ stressing again that it was "essential that there should

1. (Edinburgh, 1936).

2. England. Board of Education, Memorandum on Libraries, p.7.

3. Ibid., p.7.

4. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Libraries in Secondary Schools, p.1.

be in every school a room or rooms reserved solely for library purposes, of adequate size and suitable in planning and layout".¹

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust noted that

in one famous London school the library is accommodated "in the staff room and on shelves in a spare room". In another school, of 400 girls, the only library provision is "bookcases in Hall".²

They described a library in "a large County School in Middlesex with 600 pupils" as "a portion of the dining hall screened off by wooden and glass partitions and used also as a sixth form room".³ In a Midland school of 450 pupils the library had become a classroom because of pressure on accommodation; in another of 550 pupils the library consisted of "bookcases in hall, classrooms and laboritories" [sic].⁴ It was suggested to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees that school library accommodation should include "not only the actual library room, but also a library office or workroom, and an additional reading or newspaper room",⁵ and that thirty-five to forty square feet of space per pupil, based on the maximum number of readers to be accommodated at any one time, should be allowed.⁶ For a school with 300 to 330 pupils, the library would need to be 1200 square feet in area.⁷

Though it indicated the type of bookstock which was desirable in a school library "as a minimum collection of books of reference and

1. Ibid., p.4.

2. Ibid., p.5.

3. Ibid., p.5.

4. Ibid., p.5.

5. Ibid., p.13.

6. Ibid., p.13.

7. Ibid., p.15.

other books bearing directly on the school work",¹ the Board of Education in its 1928 Memorandum did not lay down quantitative standards for bookstock. It praised schools like Colston Girls' School at Bristol, the Liverpool Institute High School for Boys, and the Royal Free Grammar School at Worcester, which had built up library collections by donations. It also commended those schools which had established libraries as War Memorials and so received aid from the School War Memorial Fund.² The Board went on to describe in detail a "large boarding school" library, housed in a separate room, which had a collection of 7000 books.³ A yearly grant was made by the Governing Body towards the maintenance of this library; it was fully author catalogued on cards, with a subject catalogue in preparation,⁴ and its administration was in the hands of a Library committee of staff and senior boys.⁵

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust in their report suggested that the content of most school libraries was "too closely related to the school curriculum" and that selection policies tended to be related to the "enthusiasm of teachers in the school".⁶ They found that the history, English, and classics sections of most libraries were "adequately stocked",⁷ but to bring the bookstock in other subjects up to standard and to add books for general reading, they suggested

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1. England. Board of Education, Memorandum on Libraries, p.17.
 2. Ibid., p.17.
 3. Ibid., p.19.
 4. Ibid., p.20.
 5. Ibid., p.19.
 6. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Libraries in Secondary Schools, p.33.
 7. Ibid., p.33.

a buying policy and selection criteria to be adopted.¹ Neither report, then, found the contents of the secondary school libraries adequate in quantity or quality; neither, however, set quantitative standards for bookstock as a way of attempting to deal with the problem, and only the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust report was concerned with finding ways to improve the quality of the bookstock.

The Carnegie Trust also looked at staffing of school libraries. There were, in 1936, "very few, if any, full-time librarians employed in Secondary Schools maintained or aided by Local Education Authorities." While there were some full-time librarians in the larger "public" schools, in general secondary schools "the work of librarianship" was "shared by members of the general teaching staff, including almost invariably the teacher of English". Out of the 320 schools which returned the questionnaire circulated by the authors of the Carnegie Report, in 254 the teacher-librarian was not given any special timetabled hours for library work. They suggested that while "the circumstances of particular schools may justify the employment of a full-time librarian", such schools would be few, simply because financial resources were too scanty. For the great majority of schools "the appointment of a member of the teaching staff as librarian on a part-time basis" would be "dictated by circumstances". This person should, however, be given a time allowance "in respect of his library work".²

In an article in the Times Educational Supplement in June 1938 on the Sixty-first Annual Conference of the Library Association³ it

1. Ibid., pp.33-44.

2. Ibid., pp.26-27.

3. Anonymous, "Libraries in Schools", The Times Educational Supplement, 11 June 1938.

was noted that "the practical interest in school libraries aroused two years ago by the Carnegie Report on libraries in secondary schools" had been stimulated since by "active bands of school librarians". The journal School Library Review, established as a result of this enthusiasm, helped to arouse further interest in school libraries,¹ as did issues of The School Librarian, the official journal of the School Library Association, which was in its fourth year of publication in 1938. However, "progress should not be taken for fulfilment", cautioned the Times Educational Supplement writer. Certain schools, notably the public schools", had fine libraries, and many others had good libraries. On the other hand, there were "secondary schools with few books and no library rooms" in many places throughout the country.² The development of school libraries was being hindered by "apathetic school councils", lack of funds, and the failure of teachers to recognise the necessity of a school library or to understand its function and place in the school.³

The Times Educational Supplement article appeared under the shadow of the Second World War, during which opportunities for further advance in library provision simply did not exist. During the later stages of the War, however, a group of Acts was passed with the object of producing far-reaching reform immediately the War was over. One of these measures was the 1944 Education Act, which appointed a Minister of Education "whose duty it shall be to promote the education of the people of England and Wales, and the progressive development of institutions devoted to that purpose".⁴ After the War many local

1. Ibid.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid.

4. 7 & 8 George VI, The Education Act, 1944, Section 7, (London, 1944).

education authorities set up by this Act continued a programme of educational reform which would lead to the increased use of "discovery" and "activity" methods of teaching.¹ Those education authorities which realised that the widening of the curriculum would require "better and more generous equipment for practical rooms and gymnasias...and a much better supply of books" were praised by the Ministry of Education.² The Ministry admitted that probably the most serious deficiency was the lack of books, particularly for the older children who would profit from the raising of the school leaving age to fifteen.³

Towards the end of the War, professional associations, influenced by the forward planning embodied in the Education Act, also began to plan initiatives which could be put into effect with the return of peacetime prosperity, to assist in building a "new and better society". In 1945 a joint panel of the School Libraries Section of the Library Association and the School Library Association prepared a report, School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction. This report outlined a vital role for the school library in providing material for the child's recreational reading, providing additional material on subjects taught in class, providing scope for the carrying out of individual and group research, encouraging the child to love and to care for books, giving opportunity for instruction in the use of books, preparing the way for the use of larger libraries, and giving scope for social training through the exercise of simple

1. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.55.

2. Great Britain. Ministry of Education, Report, 1948, (London, 1948), p.12.

3. Ibid., p.12.

responsibilities.¹

Two years later a leading education authority, the London County Council, published a Report on School Libraries, which specified detailed requirements for a satisfactory school library,² in an attempt to raise the standards of collections and services to cope with both the needs of the newer teaching methods being employed and of the greater number of pupils being enrolled in its post-War schools. It followed the recommendations of the Carnegie Report in insisting that the space allowed for the library be determined by the number of pupils who would use it.³ The library should be provided with a collection of reference works, essential books on all school subjects, and books for recreational reading.⁴ And in addition it was stressed that "every school of 400 pupils or more should have a full-time teacher-librarian" to enable the full possibilities of every school library to be realised.⁵ This teacher-librarian should ideally be one who had taken a short course of training in librarianship.⁶

The London County Council saw the purposes of the school library as:

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1. Library Association. School Libraries Section, and School Library Association, School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction: a draft report, (London, 1945).
 2. London County Council. Education Officer's Department. Committee on School Libraries, Report on School Libraries, (London, 1947).
 3. Ibid., pp.3-4.
 4. Ibid., p.5.
 5. Ibid., p.6.
 6. Ibid., p.6.

1. The provision of "a balanced collection of books offering material for background studies and more intensive private reading in connection with subjects of the curriculum or individual interest together with a good range of recreative literature."
2. The development of the ability in pupils "to use books effectively and to teach them to become discriminating book lovers."
3. The training of pupils in the use of "an organised collection of books and to seek out knowledge for themselves by this means."
4. The provision of "a valuable field of service and responsibility to a number of boys and girls whether as library prefects or as library helpers."
5. Providing encouragement for the pupils to use outside libraries, "particularly their local library".
6. The provision of opportunities for collective research as well as for individual reading.¹

The purposes outlined in both these reports, though they were seen as new, differed little from the purposes of a library as envisaged by educationists from the seventeenth century onwards. The only new purpose, in fact, which the British school library of the 1940s was seen as serving was that of "the provision of opportunities for collective research as well as individual reading",² this new purpose for school libraries having grown out of the ideas of the twentieth century educationists like Helen Parkhurst and John Dewey.

Since 1944 in Britain there has been considerable debate about the nature of the training necessary for the school librarian, as there had been in the 1920s and 1930s. But while there has been much discussion, and while several committees of government bodies and of professional associations have addressed themselves to this question

1. London County Council. Education Officer's Department. Committee on School Libraries, Report on School Libraries, pp.2-3.

2. Ibid., p.3.

in their reports, there is still, today, no common agreement on the functions of the school librarian or the training necessary to enable a person to fulfil those functions. What is particularly striking is the disjunction between the central role the educators have prescribed for the school library and the fairly precise standards for library buildings and bookstock on the one hand, and on the other the very small amount of training, and the small timetable allocation for library administration, that they have been prepared to recommend for school librarians. In the 1945 Report on The School Library in Post-War Reconstruction,¹ it had been recommended that two types of pre-service training for school library work should be provided in the teacher training colleges: the first, a general course, to be compulsory for all students, to cover instruction in the effective use of the library for personal study and to provide an introduction to library method; the second to be a course in school librarianship for those who selected it as a special subject. The main emphasis of the latter was to be on teaching pupils to use a library rather than on library organisation and administration. The London County Council's Report noted that this recommendation of the Joint Committee of the School Libraries Section of the Library Association and the School Library Association was "well worth considering".² The McNair Report of 1944 had also recommended that a student in school practice should aim to learn "something of the technique of school libraries and that college librarians and teachers

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1. Library Association. School Libraries Section, and School Library Association; School Libraries in Post-War Reconstruction.
 2. London County Council. Education Officer's Department, Committee on School Libraries, Report on School Libraries, p.6.

responsible for school libraries should be regarded as having a real contribution to make to a student's professional training",¹ since the teacher with some knowledge of library techniques would be an asset to a school.² The teacher-librarian who had some special training would be responsible for book selection, organisation, administration, and equipment in the library, though in the practical, day-to-day running of the library the teacher-librarian would be assisted by library prefects or pupil assistants; it was even suggested that senior pupils could become very competent cataloguers under the librarian's direction.³

Discussion continued after 1945 about the nature of the position of school librarian, and the education and training desirable for one who filled that position. Even when the school librarian became a "director of learning resources" in a resources centre in a school with an individually planned curriculum, should he or she be a trained teacher as well as a trained librarian? Cecil Stott, Librarian at Aldenham School, Elstree, and first President of the School Library Association, believed that the British system of a teacher acting as librarian should continue, since there were real educational advantages, particularly in "the intimate knowledge of the school" that such a person had.⁴ He argued that a teacher-librarian who was involved in some teaching would be more essentially

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1. England. Board of Education, Report of a Committee Appointed by the President of the Board of Education to Consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, (London, 1944).
 2. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.57.
 3. London County Council. Education Officer's Department. Committee on School Libraries, Report on School Libraries, p.8.
 4. C.A. Stott, in L.R. McColvin, Libraries for Children, (London, 1961), p.146.

part of the whole school than an isolated librarian concerned only with one area. If such a person became a "Director of Resources", in this newly conceived position only as a member of the teaching staff could he or she make real and valuable contact with teachers on equal terms. This person could, then, Heulwen M. Ellis suggests,¹ "arouse enthusiasm for the new media, in that he will be more than a labeller, a classifier or a cataloguer, as a salesman of the new media available for educational purposes."

The Schools Council in 1972 recommended that the Resources Director "should be an experienced teacher with interest in creating an orderly and efficient service for his colleagues in all departments. He should be able to advise on questions of curriculum and teaching methods and should have a small regular teaching commitment".² The skills which it saw as required in a teacher-librarian, then, fell into five main categories: firstly, the skills of the experienced and imaginative teacher; secondly, the skills of the resource producer; thirdly, the skills of the professionally qualified librarian; fourthly, the skills of the equipment technician; and fifthly, clerical and secretarial skills.³ For positions which still, in reality, carry very little status or chance of promotion in a school, there was, and still is, in Britain, the United States of America, and Australia, a problem of reconciling the sort of qualifications and skills desirable in a teacher-librarian with the financial rewards and promotional opportunities associated with the position in

1. Ellis, *The Evolution of the School Library*, p.109.

2. N.W. Beswick, *School Resource Centres*, (Working Paper 43), (London, 1972), p.79.

3. Ellis, *The Evolution of the School Library*, p.109.

a school. In 1973 in Britain attempts were being made to train prospective school librarians at the University Institute, Birmingham, at University College, London, and at the College of Librarianship, Aberystwyth, but, Heulwen M. Ellis complained,

generally there is no great sense of urgency, nor any realisation that there will be a need for more people trained in library and resource techniques in the near future. The school library service is still not often seen as "an educational service" in Britain and the library is often administered by one or more part-time teachers with limited time at their disposal.¹

A study of Welsh secondary schools in 1970 had shown that in 66.5% of all schools the teacher-librarian had no free periods, over and above the normal free periods of any teacher, for library administration. Only 2.8% of teacher-librarians had five or more free periods. This percentage included two large comprehensive schools which had full-time non-teaching library assistants.² The responsibility for running the school library was often given to a member of staff who had no interest in it but who had to be allocated a "duty". A Library Association questionnaire-type survey in 1970 showed that over one quarter of the people running school libraries were not qualified and over half were paid on the lowest professional grade or below.³ There was therefore a vast discrepancy between what the advocates of school libraries as school resource centres saw as the role of the school librarian, and the actual capabilities, status, and training of those who were occupying the positions in most schools. It is not surprising, then, that in its Report in 1970 the Library Association stated clearly the importance of having qualified (that is, Chartered) librarians in

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1. Ellis, *The Evolution of the School Library*, p.110.
 2. K. Evans, *The Provision, Organization, and Use of School Libraries in Secondary Schools*, (M.A. thesis, Swansea, 1970).
 3. The Times Educational Supplement, 5 March 1970.

schools, who would be able to communicate with people at all appropriate levels of education - with advisory, administrative and academic personnel, as well as with the pupils of the school.¹

In many schools in post-1945 Britain, the reality of library provision was very different from what was envisaged by the School Library Association and others like the London County Council. In 1947 the London County Council's Report on School Libraries described the general state of the libraries in schools under its charge:²

Provision for a library is made in the planning of all new secondary (grammar) schools in London. For many years most of the existing county and aided schools have possessed a library of some sort, though standards of size and equipment vary considerably. Sometimes the library is handsome in appearance, spacious and well-equipped; sometimes it is only a small room remote from the centre of activity and therefore not sufficiently used by the pupils, while most libraries, even if conveniently placed, are not large enough to provide for more than the upper forms of the school. A few schools have no library at all and several have to be content with library fittings in a room or hall used for other purposes.

Information collected by the London County Council's Committee on School Libraries from seventy-two of the seventy-eight maintained and aided grammar schools in London indicated that eight schools had no library; nine had library fittings in a room or hall also used for other purposes;³ six had had their library premises destroyed or heavily damaged during the war, or had had to convert their library to a classroom because of damage to the school fabric. Although the remainder, forty-nine, had special rooms equipped and used only

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1. Library Association; School Library Resource Centres, (London, 1970), p.8.
 2. London County Council. Education Officer's Department. Committee on School Libraries; Report on School Libraries, p.9.
 3. These "other purposes" included medical inspections, interviews, service of meals, or classroom use.

as libraries,¹ few of these reached even the minimum standard of accommodation recommended by the Ministry of Education in 1945;² not one of the larger schools had a library which conformed to the scale recommended by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust in the previous decade.³

Five years later a Department of Education and Science pamphlet indicated that such a variety of library provision as described in the London County Council Report existed throughout the country, with school library facilities ranging from non-existent or very poor to reasonably adequate:⁴

Schools differ widely in respect of the books they possess and the use they make of them. In some schools there is hardly a book to be seen except sets of textbooks; and in some there are rows of books on classroom shelves, in halls, in corridors, in the head master's room, on window-sills, in cupboards, in boxes; books in attractive covers, books in library buildings, torn and tattered books. In some schools there is a library corner, in some a library classroom, in some library rooms almost empty, in others rows of books overflowing from the library into adjacent rooms; some have a specially designed room with modern equipment and furniture, some have ingenious makeshifts, some have no room for a library at all; in some the library is completely free and open, in some it is used only under supervision, and in some it is hardly used at all.

The main difficulty associated with the development of school libraries after 1945 was with finance, and some Local Education Authorities "did not, or could not"⁵ rate the provision of libraries high among their priorities. After 1951 figures are available from

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1. London County Council. Education Officer's Department. Committee on School Libraries, Report on School Libraries, p.9.
 2. Great Britain. Ministry of Education, Regulations Prescribing Standards for School Premises, (London, 1945).
 3. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Libraries in Secondary Schools.
 4. Great Britain. Department of Education and Science, The School Library, (London, 1952), p.5.
 5. Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.60.

the Ministry of Education which indicate how much had been spent on books in schools:¹

TABLE XIII

ENGLAND: THE AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL FUNDS ALLOCATED
FOR BOOK PURCHASES BY ALL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

Year	Primary School	Secondary School
1951-2	.24	.60
1961-2	.78	1.66
1970-1	1.34	2.79

There is some indication, then, that there was a steady increase in the percentage of school funds being spent on books, but there is no indication of how much of this amount was spent on textbooks and how much was allocated for the purchase of school library books.

Emphasis was given to school libraries by publications of the Ministry of Education, later the Department of Education, including The New Secondary Education (1947),² School and Life (1947),³ The School Library (1952 and 1967),⁴ The Story of a Post-War School Building (1957),⁵ and The Use of Books (1964).⁶ The School Library

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1. Figures quoted by Ellis, The Evolution of the School Library, p.60.
 2. (London, 1947).
 3. (London, 1947).
 4. The School Library: An Approach to the Problem of Teaching the Use and Enjoyment of Books, With Notes on the Essentials of a Good School Library, (London, 1952).
 5. (London, 1945).
 6. (London, 1964).

Association produced Suggestions for School Librarians (1953),¹ The Library in the Primary School (1958),² and a variety of special pamphlets on the administration and function of school libraries, including School Libraries in Library Classrooms and Building a Secondary Modern School Library. There were other publications too over the years from 1945 which assisted the development of school libraries, including manuals like Cecil Stott's School Libraries,³ E. Grimshaw's The Teacher Librarian,⁴ Sheila Ray's Library Service to Schools,⁵ and critical studies like Teachers, Librarians and Children, written by the Australian educationist Professor Ernest Roe and published in England in 1965.⁶

The Newsom Committee's Report Half Our Future, produced in 1963 on education in the secondary modern schools,⁷ considered that the "library ought to be the power house of words and ideas", and that it was "as essential for work in the humanities (though not only in them) as the laboratory [sic] is in science". However the reality in schools, particularly in non-public schools, was still very far from the ideal expressed in these publications. In 1963, sixty percent of the modern schools surveyed on behalf of the Newsom Committee were deficient in library accommodation, and twenty-one percent did not

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1. (London, 1953).
 2. (London, 1958).
 3. Cecil A. Stott, School Libraries, A Short Manual, (Cambridge, 1948).
 4. Ernest Grimshaw, The Teacher Librarian, (London, 1952).
 5. Sheila G. Ray, Library Service to Schools, (London, 1968), published by the Library Association.
 6. Ernest Roe, Teachers, Librarians and Children: A Study of Libraries in Education, (London, 1965).
 7. England. Ministry of Education, Half Our Future, (London, 1963), (Newsom Report).

include a library room of any kind. Schools with libraries not also used for other purposes constituted only twenty-six per cent of the total, whilst in others the library was closed to readers for use as a classroom, or access was restricted because of shortage of space.¹

School libraries in Great Britain in the twentieth century, then, have been increasingly influenced by government inquiry and action at various levels, while conferences and publications of professional associations including the Library Association, the School Library Association, and the New Education Fellowship, have all influenced the thinking of librarians and educators on school library provision. School libraries have increased both in number and size, with the latter being the particularly striking increase. While collections of a few hundred books were considered satisfactory, particularly in primary schools, in the first decade of the twentieth century, by the 1970s many collections consisted of several thousand books, with sometimes a range of audiovisual materials as well. This increase in size reflects the increased variety of publications available, as well as the application of newer theories and philosophies to education - theories which emphasised the need for the child to learn from a range of resources, so that he could select from those available the ones which best fitted his needs. Nevertheless the development of school libraries over all of Great Britain has been patchy, with a great range of provision of accommodation and of bookstock being apparent. There were also great differences in the amount of training given to those who acted as school librarians and in the amount of school time allocated to them for library duties. These

1. Ellis, A History of Children's Reading and Literature, pp.207-208.

differences have been evident throughout the century, and are just as apparent today.¹ While there are some excellent school libraries, housed in beautiful rooms, with a bookstock of 30,000 or so volumes, school libraries have generally failed to meet the standards seen as desirable both by librarians and educators, and so have been unable to assume that role in the school envisaged for them in documents like the Newsom Report.

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In the United States of America, as in Great Britain, school libraries increased in number and in size in order to "keep pace with new developments in education", and to "meet the increasing demands for general as well as technical information and for new services that modern educational techniques require".² As in Britain, the increase in size of the school library collections was a result of the greater amount and variety of suitable print and non-print material available for purchase. And also in America, as in Britain, school libraries have been increasingly the subject of government and professional inquiry and of legislative action.

The work of educational philosophers and innovators like John Dewey and Helen Parkhurst influenced school library development in the United States in the twentieth century as it had in the United Kingdom. As the New Education Fellowship and the Progressive Schools Movement had given impetus to the development of new curricula and

1. Anonymous, "DES School Library Study", Library Association Record, 83(1981), p.323.

2. Marvin Howell, School Libraries in California: A Report to the Californian Legislature, (Sacramento, 1968), p.1.

ideas in British schools, so the National Education Association and other bodies influenced American education. Many statements of the function of the school library in the 1920s, for instance, reflect the seven "cardinal principals [or goals] of education" as set forth by the National Education Association:¹ the promotion of good health; command of the fundamental processes; worthy home membership; preparation for a vocation; good citizenship; worthy use of leisure; and ethical character.² The school library was seen as a source of enrichment for the curriculum, and a means of developing reading and study habits in the pupils. Some other of the goals were considered as school library responsibilities, but as late as 1932³ it was found that although mention was made of character training and assistance in the guidance programme as library functions, very few of the libraries surveyed were participating in these activities beyond the provision of printed materials.

In the 1930s there were some restatements of educational objectives, embodying what were seen as new ideas for the education of youth. The scope of education was greatly widened, beyond what had been envisaged in America previously, and beyond that of many British statements. At the same time, integrated curricula, pre-supposing non-traditional methods of teaching, were introduced.⁴

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1. American Library Association. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, and its Section, The American Association of School Librarians, Committees on Post-War Planning, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, p.6.
 2. Ibid., p.6.
 3. United States of America. Office of Education, The Secondary-School Librarian, (National Survey of Secondary Education, Office of Education Bulletin 17), (Washington, 1933).
 4. American Library Association. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, and its Section The American Association of School Librarians, Committees on Post-War Planning, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, p.6.

Notable among the restatements of educational objectives was that in 1938 of the Educational Policies Commission,¹ which considered the aims of education in a democracy. The goals of education were seen for the pupil as self-realisation, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.² These goals have elements in common with the seven cardinal principles issued twenty years before, but the newer statement "encompasses the whole life of the child and implies continuity of development towards democratic citizenship". The American Library Association stressed³ that what was required in response to these ideas was the fusion of all school activities into a pattern of social and learning experiences. The library, as an integral part of the school, would share these objectives and assume responsibility for their achievement on an equal basis with the rest of the school. It would perform the important task of curriculum enrichment and library service, and would have a significant role in fulfilling other objectives in the provision of information and recreational resources, and the provision of experience of a community service nature. Through these experiences pupils would "find self-realization", "gain insight into human relationships", receive "practical illustrations of economic efficiency", and would be able to "take action as responsible citizens".⁴ In 1963 Ruth Ersted remarked that "strong school libraries undergird the changing curriculum, experimentation with new teaching methods, and the efforts

1. United States of America. Educational Policies Commission, Purposes of Education in American Democracy, (Washington, 1938).

2. Ibid., p.47.

3. American Library Association. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, and its Section The American Association of School Librarians, Committees on Post-War Planning, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow, p.6.

4. Ibid., p.6.

to individualize learning".¹ She continued, "schools without well-stocked and functioning materials centres under the direction of librarians and audio-visual supervisors who have the ability, the vision, and the time to provide vigorous leadership, cannot meet these needs".² In the light of the realities of school library provision even in the mid-twentieth century, these goals and objectives of education can be seen as realisable only in the very long term. They did, however, influence the preparation of standards for school library services, which in turn had an influence on school library provision throughout the United States.

From 1919 onwards, standards for both elementary and secondary school libraries were developed by professional associations, government agencies, and by schools themselves. But while these standards were generally developed as desirable minimum requirements for satisfactory school library facilities, collections, and services, in the light of what were generally perceived to be current educational needs, the majority of schools in all states failed throughout the century to achieve them. This remained the case in the 1970s.

The first national standards for school libraries, popularly known as the Certain Standards, were formulated in 1920 as a result of the report of the Library Committee of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association under the chairman-

1. Ruth Ersted, "Minnesota School Libraries: A Current Survey", Minnesota Libraries, 20(1963), p.343.

2. Ibid., p.343.

ship of Charles C. Certain.¹ The American Library Association, regional accrediting associations, state departments of education, and professional associations of school librarians have continued to develop standards for the improvement and measurement of school library service.² Standards have been quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of both; although they have differed in content and in methods of application, they have shared the common purpose of strengthening school libraries. Quantitative standards pertain to aspects of the school library which lend themselves to objective measurement, such as the ratio of librarians to pupils, expenditure on materials, the number of volumes per pupil, and the minimum desirable size of basic library collections of books and other materials. Such standards usually establish minimum levels applicable to all schools or formulas for determining the required minimums based on school enrolment. Qualitative standards, on the other hand, set forth requirements in terms of function. Ideally they are used in conjunction with quantitative standards to encourage the development of effective programmes. The qualitative aspects provide for staff, materials, funds, library accommodation and equipment, to support the services identified in the standards.

Several research studies have traced the historical development of school library standards in the United States. As early as 1927,

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1. This report had an immediate and widespread effect. As early as 1920/1921, the Board of Education of Detroit, Michigan, published a forty-page set of library standards for intermediate and high schools, based on the 1918 "Certain Report on Standard Library Organization and Administration", which had led to the publication of the 1920 standards. Detroit, Michigan. Board of Education, "Standards for School Libraries", Public Libraries, 26(1921), pp. 572-573.
 2. Richard L. Darling, Survey of School Library Standards, (Washington, 1964), p.ix.

Frank Hermann Koos noted that high school library standards had been developed by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland which required that the "laboratory and library facilities shall be adequate to the needs of the instruction in the subjects taught". The standards of the Commission of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, and the standards of the Northwest and North Central Associations were expressed in similar ways. Fourteen state education departments had defined standards for at least some of the types of high schools they administered: Idaho (standard high schools); accredited, and first-, second-, and third-class high schools in Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, South Dakota, Utah, and Virginia; accredited schools in New Mexico and North Dakota; standard schools in Wyoming; four-year and all high schools in Oklahoma, New Hampshire, and South Carolina.¹ In addition, Koos found that fourteen states prescribed standards in some way, sometimes as a condition for receiving state school aid,² for primary schools.³

Frances Lander Spain found that by January 1942⁴ four regional associations and thirty-three states had standards for secondary school libraries. In that same year, ten states also had elementary school library standards, and sixteen others had some requirements

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1. Frank Hermann Koos, State Participation in Public School Library Service, (New York, 1927), p.83.
 2. As in Wisconsin and North Dakota.
 3. Koos, State Participation in Public School Library Service, p.95.
 4. Frances Lander Spain, "The Application of School Library Standards", in National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-Second Yearbook, Part II, The Library in General Education, (Chicago, 1943), pp.269-292.

for elementary school libraries which were aimed at improving school library service, though these requirements were not set out as formal standards.¹ Ten years later Mildred L. Nickel reviewed both standards for school libraries and certification requirements for school librarians.² In 1954 Nora E. Beust³ surveyed school library standards, presenting summaries for both elementary and secondary schools similar to those prepared by Spain in 1943 for secondary schools. Her report showed an increase to thirty in the number of states with elementary school library standards. A further study was made of standards in the Pacific Northwest by Richard L. Darling in 1960.⁴ However after this time regional and state school library standards changed rapidly, particularly following publication in 1960 of the American Library Association's Standards for School Library Programs,⁵ which Darling claimed were "the most significant school library standards yet published".⁶ These were used by state departments of education as a guide in developing state standards. Prepared by the American Association of School Librarians in cooperation with representatives of nineteen other national associations, "they stress the relationship of the quality of school library

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1. Darling, Survey of School Library Standards, p.ix.
 2. Mildred L. Nickel, "Standards and Certification", Library Trends, 1(January 1953), pp.345-356.
 3. Nora E. Beust, School Library Standards, 1954, (United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin 1954 No. 15), (Washington, 1954).
 4. Richard L. Darling, "School Library Standards in the Pacific Northwest", in Merton Kroll (ed.), Pacific Northwest Library Association Library Development Project Reports, Volume II: Elementary and Secondary School Libraries of the Pacific Northwest, (Seattle, 1960), pp.73-123.
 5. American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs, (Chicago, 1960).
 6. Darling, Survey of School Library Standards, p.x.

service to the improvement of education".¹ Based on research conducted in schools which were deemed to have "very good school library programs",² they specified "quantitative levels essential for the achievement of such programs". These standards were superceded in 1969 by the Standards for School Media Programs, published by the American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audio-Visual Education of the National Education Association.³ In these later standards emphasis was placed on the school library as a "central learning centre"⁴ where book and non-book materials would be integrated under one administration for better service. This concept of unified collections had been given qualified approval by the national school library standards of 1945⁵ and more fully endorsed by the standards of 1960.⁶ But both these standards, in describing conditions as they actually existed in schools, condoned the distribution of resources of various kinds around a school, while the 1969 standards defined the province of a school library as the selection, organisation, distribution, and servicing of all teaching materials regardless of format. There was an American historical precedent for the "multi-media" rather than the "books

1. Ibid., p.1.

2. Ibid., p.1.

3. American Association of School Librarians and National Education Association, Department of Audio-Visual Education, Standards for School Media Programs, (Chicago, 1969).

4. Budd L. Gambee, "Standards for School Media Programs 1920: A Lesson From History", American Libraries, 1,5(1970), p.483.

5. American Library Association, Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, and the Association of School Librarians, Committees on Post-War Planning, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow; Functions and Standards, (Chicago, 1945).

6. American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs.

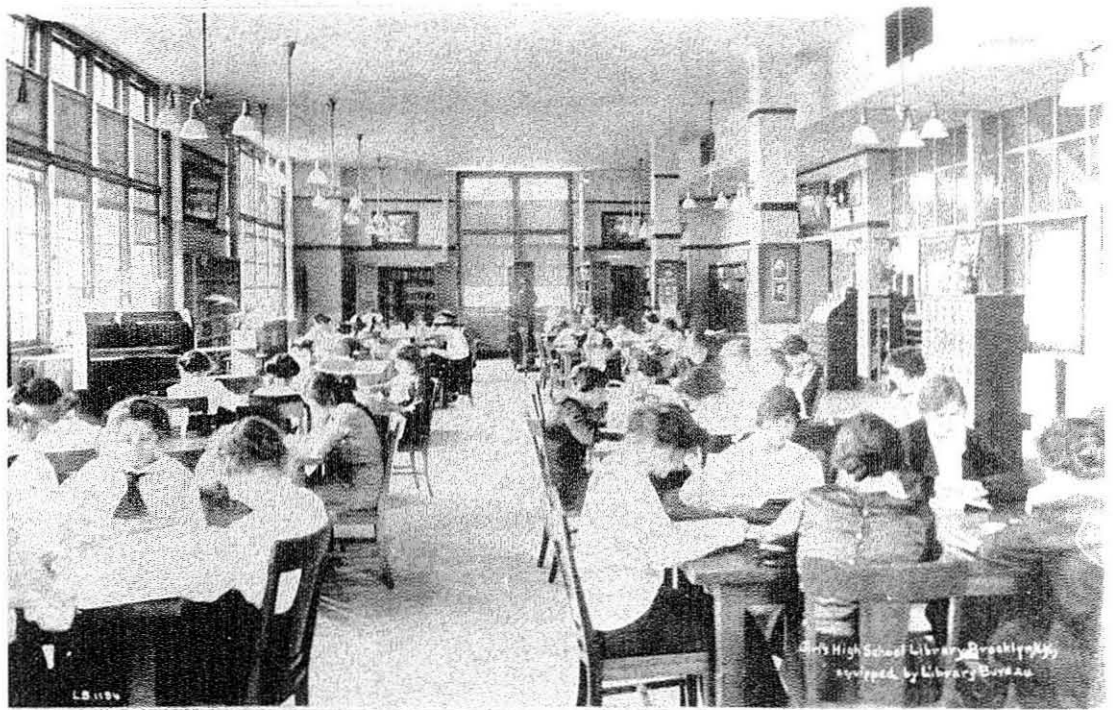
plus other materials" philosophy of school librarianship, in the Certain Standards of 1920, which specified the provision in the school library of storage space for, and facilities for, the use of a wide variety of non-book media, including "maps, pictures, lantern slides, and victrola records".¹ In New York State in 1909, many libraries had reported to the New York Library Association that they had collections of mounted photographs or pictures, lantern slides and stereoscopic views, and collections of clippings from newspapers.² Multi-media collections have, of course, been part of school library provision in England in some schools since at least the seventeenth century, when Shrewsbury and Bristol Grammar School, among others, had in their library collections mathematical and scientific instruments, maps and globes, models and pictures. While some American schools developed museum collections for the use of pupils,³ and some school libraries contained items of non-book media, it was not until 1920 that non-book materials were recognised as an important part of the school library collection in the United States. In the 1969 national standards this concept was taken a step further, with the recognition of the multi-media school library as the centre of the school's resource programme.

What were American school libraries like in the years immediately prior to the publication of the Certain Standards in

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1. National Education Association and North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Committee on Library Organization and Equipment, Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes, (New York, 1920), (Certain Report), pp.14-15.
 2. Mary E. Hall, "High School Libraries in New York State", New York Libraries, 2 (1909), p.58.
 3. For instance Hutchinson High School, Buffalo, New York. A photograph of this museum appeared in J.J. Donovan, School Architecture, (New York, 1921), p.304.

1920? In states like New York, where there had been acceptable school libraries in the nineteenth century, and these had been added to in the twentieth century, conditions in school libraries were generally better than in areas where there had been no previous development. A photograph of the library at the Girls' High School at Brooklyn, New York, labelled "one of the best-equipped and most up-to-date high school libraries to be found anywhere in the country", appeared in the September 1915 issue of Library Journal.¹ This showed a large,² well-lit room seating at least ninety pupils at formal tables in the centre, with wall shelving (and some bay shelving at one end of the room), a large catalogue cabinet, magazine racks, and display space. The walls of the main reading room were decorated with pictures, and a door on the right led to the office of the librarian.³ Another New York State secondary school library which was well developed at this time was that of the Hutchinson Central High School in Buffalo.⁴ A photograph of this library, taken about 1919, shows a similar large reading room, with wall shelving and formal seating for at least forty. This library also had a magazine rack and a special shelving unit for large reference books, but unlike the Brooklyn Girls' High School library, its wall bookshelves had glass doors, preserving the books, but making them less

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1. Anonymous, "Brooklyn Girls' High School", Library Journal, 40(1915), opposite p.624.
 2. Eighty feet by thirty feet. Mary E. Hall, "A Day in a Modern High School Library", Public Libraries, 23(1918), p.52.
 3. The library in 1917 included provision for a vertical file for pictures, and a case for 2000 lantern slides. An extra "library classroom" increased the seating to 160 and provided further storage space. Ibid., p.53.
 4. Donovan, School Architecture, p.303.



The Library of the Girls' High School, Brooklyn, New York, around 1915.
(From: Anonymous, "Brooklyn Girls' High School", Library Journal, 40(1915),
opposite p.624.)



The library at Hutchinson Central High School, Buffalo, New York State, around 1919. (From: J.J. Donovan, School Architecture, (New York, 1921), p.298).

directly accessible to pupils. In other areas of the United States, too, impressive secondary school libraries had been developed. The library of the Schenley High School in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, a photograph of which appeared in 1918,¹ had seating for at least ninety-six pupils in its reading room, again at formal tables. Wall shelving units used all available wall space, and there were two catalogue cabinets, a teacher's desk, a large charging desk, and special shelving units. As in the previous two libraries, some attention to decoration was evident in pictures, friezes, and busts on the walls. In each of the photographs, professional planning and care is evident in the library organisation.² The typical reading room arrangement, with wall shelving, and formal tables and chairs in the centre of the room, contrasts with the most generally accepted British school library reading room plan of the period. In British secondary schools, as can be seen in the photograph of the library at the Manchester High School for Girls, taken in 1911,³ and in the photograph of the interior of the library at Cheltenham Ladies College in 1913,⁴ the reading room was generally broken up by double-sided shelving into bays, each bay containing one or two tables. At Manchester High School for Girls, and at other schools, there were also tables in the centre of the room. The reading room at Manchester would have seated at least sixty pupils, as many as at the Girls' High School in Brooklyn, but while the Brooklyn library would

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1. Mary E. Hall, "A Day in a Modern High School Library", Public Libraries, 23(1918), pp.51-59.
 2. Photographs of a further six American high school libraries, all of which also show these features, are included in Appendix G.
 3. Sara A. Burstall, The Story of the Manchester High School for Girls, 1871-1911, (Manchester, 1911).
 4. Photograph on p.235 in this Chapter.



The library at Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, about 1918. (From: Mary E. Hall, "A Day in a Modern High School Library", *Public Libraries*, 23(1918).)



The library at Manchester High School for Girls in 1911. (From: Sara A. Burstall, The Story of the Manchester High School for Girls, 1871-1911, (Manchester, 1911).)

have been easily supervised by one seated teacher, at Manchester the arrangement made it difficult to see all pupils from one position in the room. However the Manchester arrangement was less formal, and in fact pupils working in small groups in bays tend to present fewer discipline problems than those in a large group in a large space. The American emphasis on the ease of group supervision and discipline evident in the room arrangement is in contrast to the hopes expressed by American educators for less formality in instruction and more independent work by pupils.

These secondary school libraries in the eastern states showed the best in American school library provision for the period; a survey conducted in 1917 of library conditions in San Francisco schools¹ showed that school library facilities there were generally "rather meagre".² The Jean Parker School had the best bookstock of twelve elementary schools investigated; it had supplementary readers in geography, history, and nature study, but its list of supplementary materials for geography showed 113 titles for the use of about 400 children.³ The school also had a general library of 211 volumes for the use of 775 children, and a small reference collection of dictionaries and encyclopaedias.⁴ The report noted that "a well-selected library of 1200 books would be of genuine value to both teachers and children in carrying on the studies of such a school".⁵

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1. P.P. Claxton, The Public School System of San Francisco, California, (Federal Bureau of Education Bulletin 46), (Washington, 1917).
 2. Anonymous, "Library Conditions in San Francisco Schools", Library Journal, 43(1918), p.718.
 3. Ibid., p.718.
 4. Ibid., p.718.
 5. Ibid., p.718.

The other eleven schools were not so well equipped as the Jean Parker School: the Hearst School, for example, with 671 children of all elementary grades, had only sixty volumes of supplementary books in geography, and a general library of 400 books; the Jefferson School, with eight classes of children in all grades, had no geography readers and a general library of only 150 books. The following Table shows the number of books in each of the twelve elementary school libraries.

TABLE XIV

SAN FRANCISCO ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES, 1918¹

School	Number of Classes	Volumes in the Library
Jean Parker	17	211
Hearst	16	400
Emerson	14 in five grades	463
Jefferson	8	150
Franklin	17	218
Henry Durant	17	200
Bryant	15	709
Glen Park	18	310
Mission Grammar	16	-
Washington	18	320
John Swett	19	125
Columbia Cosmopolitan Grammar	all grades	168

While the average size of these general school libraries was 297.6 books, they had to serve school populations of between 600 and 800. And the Table indicates that the school with the largest number of classes, John Swett, had the smallest general library collection.²

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1. Adapted from Anonymous, "Library Conditions in San Francisco Schools", p.718.
 2. These figures do not, however, take into account other books such as supplementary readers, available elsewhere in the school.

The report recommended that the establishment of school museums should be encouraged,¹ and that "necessary supplies of all kinds, such as lanterns, pictures, phonographic records,...globes, maps, etc., should be supplied much more liberally to all schools",² though it was not suggested that these materials should form part of the library collection.

In 1915 Charles C. Certain, author of the 1920 standards, evaluated high school libraries in Alabama and discussed the deficiencies in school library service there.³ He commented that

it is difficult to discuss high-school library problems intelligently because of the meagreness of accurate information relative to actual conditions. We know, however, that library facilities in southern high schools are distressingly inadequate to the professional needs of teaching. For example, in Alabama only one county high school owns a library of more than one thousand volumes, and the average number to the school does not exceed 230; whereas each of these schools should have from two to three thousand books, for effective work. Moreover eight of these high schools owned fewer than seventy-five books last term, and almost none of them had any systems of cataloguing or accessioning the books owned by the school.⁴

Certain indicated that the situation in Alabama was typical of that in many other states of the South, but reminded his readers that this was often the result of legislation, since "the people in some of these states have not in the past had the privilege of supporting their schools through local taxation by an increased rate of any kind",⁵ and funds had to be raised largely by private subscription. It was in response to these school library conditions, which he saw as being greatly inferior to those existing in other parts of the

1. Ibid., p.718.

2. Ibid., p.719.

3. C.C. Certain, "The Status of the Library in Southern High Schools", Library Journal, 40(1915), pp.632-637.

4. Ibid., p.634.

5. Ibid., p.634.

United States, that Certain, head of the department of English at the Central High School, Birmingham, Alabama, began to work for the establishment and maintenance of adequate high school libraries in the South. At the Chattanooga meeting of the Library Conference of the Southern Conference for Education and Industry, a Committee on High School Libraries was created with Certain as Chairman, to survey conditions in high school libraries in each southern state; based on this, to recommend standard equipment for the libraries; to give advice to those needing it; to act to improve book collections; to promote the establishment of school libraries; and to urge the appointment of trained librarians in every city high school.¹

By 1920 Certain had moved on to become head of the English Department of the Cass Technical High School in Detroit.² From this position he served as Chairman of a committee of twenty-three members, including fourteen librarians and nine other educators representing both the National Education Association and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which prepared library standards for publication by the American Library Association.³ These standards were based upon research, including regional surveys like Certain's Alabama and southern one, dating from 1915. The purpose of the committee's report was to provide school administrators with definite standards for high school libraries, which are described as "the very heart of the school".⁴ The bulk of the

1. Ibid., pp.636-637.

2. Gambee, "Standards for School Media Programs, 1920", p.483.

3. National Education Association. Committee on Library Organization and Equipment; Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools, (New York, 1920), (The Certain Report).

4. Ibid., p.7.

report outlined what were described as "attainable standards" proposed for a five-year period, which specified that the library should be under the guidance of a "trained librarian", that it should be spacious, pleasant, centrally located, used only for library purposes. Pupils were to have easy direct access to all materials, both for assignment use and for recreational use. The library was to serve as the centre and the co-ordinating agency for all non-book materials used in the school, including "stereopticons, portable motion picture machines, stereopticon slides, moving picture films, pictures, maps, globes, bulletin board material, museum loans",¹ lantern slides, victrola records,² postcard collections, and plaster casts of famous sculpture. The report stressed that attention should be paid to "scientific selection and care"³ of all library materials, and the "proper classification and cataloguing of this material".⁴ "Adequate annual appropriations" should cover salaries, maintenance of the collection, and purchase of new materials.⁵ Carefully planned courses of instruction on the use of the library were to be given to pupils, while for the teachers special services were to be provided, including a form of inter-library loan access to the collections of nearby public libraries and museums.⁶

In the course of the next quarter century, these standards were fully implemented in only a very small minority of secondary schools.

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1. Ibid., pp.21-22.
 2. Ibid., pp.14-15.
 3. Ibid., p.11.
 4. Ibid., p.11.
 5. Ibid., p.11.
 6. Ibid., p.22.

Most schools continued to be dependent on inadequate book collections, often housed in a cupboard or shelves in a room used for other purposes. Not many schools were able to appoint a librarian to take charge of the library; few of the people who were appointed to this position had received any training in librarianship or education. Even by the 1940s, "for those [schools] listed as receiving some type of library service, that service might range all the way from organized effective school libraries in some...to a few shelves of out-of-date books in others".¹ During the period 1920 to 1945, in several surveys and reports, detailed comment on the general inadequacy of school libraries was made.

One of these, a survey of actual conditions in Illinois high school libraries, published in 1931,² showed that in that state only eleven percent of all high schools had a full-time librarian in charge.³ The most common plan for the organisation of the library, followed by seventy percent of high schools, was that one of the teachers devoted a portion of her time to the library and had general charge of it. Other school libraries were supervised by several teachers with no one person in charge, or by the pupils themselves, or by the school secretary.⁴ Forty-two percent of people acting as librarians had no education or training beyond high school; in many cases they were high school pupils.⁵ Only one quarter of school

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1. United States of America. Office of Education, Education for Victory, (Washington, 1944), Vol.3, pp.8-9.
 2. Arthur W. Clevenger and Charles W. Odell, High-School Libraries in Illinois, (Urbana, 1931).
 3. Ibid., p.15.
 4. Ibid., p.15.
 5. Ibid., p.23.

principals reported that their librarians had received any training in library science; of those librarians approximately forty-five percent had no more than five hours training, and twenty-eight percent had six to ten hours training.¹ Just over fifty percent of schools had a room or rooms devoted to library purposes, as the Certain Report of eleven years earlier had recommended. But thirty-eight percent of libraries were housed in study halls, three to four percent in alcoves or recesses off study halls, and a further three to four percent in principals' offices, superintendents' offices, or classrooms.² All of these arrangements for housing libraries would present difficulties of access for both teachers and pupils. There was a tendency for small schools to have more books per pupil than larger ones, with a range of from twelve books per pupil in the smallest schools, with fewer than one hundred pupils, to only four per pupil in the largest schools with over one thousand pupils.³

A major survey conducted in 1933 of 390 high schools judged to have superior libraries, located in forty-six states and the District of Columbia,⁴ also demonstrated that even the best school libraries still failed to reach all the standards of the Certain Committee. This study showed that inadequate facilities were the main difficulty encountered by the school librarians; another was that too frequently the library was under the charge of a teacher who had a full-time

1. Ibid., p.23.

2. Ibid., p.27.

3. Ibid., p.34.

4. B. Lamar Johnson, The Secondary School Library, (Washington, 1933).

teaching load.¹ Of the 390 schools surveyed, 330 had a separate room for the library,² though other studies quoted by the author showed that this was less common among schools not judged as having a "superior" library service.³ The median number of books in library collections was 2540, but there was a wide variation in the size of library collections: the smallest library had only 116 books (in a school with an enrolment of fewer than one hundred pupils), while the largest library had 30,000 books (for a school with an enrolment in the range of 751 to 2000 pupils). The average number of books per pupil in all schools was 4.7, while the recommendations of the

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1. Ibid., p.vi. The author quoted three studies which had investigated the workload of school librarians. In 1927 a study of 280 California high schools showed that only twenty had full-time librarians, eleven had no librarians, 240 had teacher-librarians with varying classroom workloads, and in seven pupils served as librarians. Paul Thompson, California High School Libraries, (M.A. thesis, Leland Stanford University, 1927). In fifty-six North Dakota high schools in 1931 there were four full-time librarians, and of the fifty-two teacher-librarians, two taught seven periods a day, sixteen taught six periods, seventeen taught five periods, sixteen taught four periods, and one taught three periods. Robert D. Cole, "High-School Libraries in North Dakota", Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, 35(1931), pp. 200-214. In two hundred high schools in Ohio in 1929-1930 with enrolments of 200 to 500 pupils, thirty-eight had no librarians, 126 had part-time librarians, and thirty-six had full-time librarians. Of the part-time librarians, fifty percent taught more than five periods a day. Earl W. Anderson, A Study of Librarians in the Larger High Schools of Ohio for the Year 1929-30, (unpublished study in mimeographed form, Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research, 1930).
 2. Johnson, The Secondary School Library, p.9.
 3. In Indiana in 1928, twenty-five out of eighty-one high schools studied had libraries housed in parts of rooms used for other purposes. Curtis Emory Ambrose, A Study of High School Libraries with Special Reference to Indiana, (M.A. thesis, Indiana University, 1928). In Fayette County, Pennsylvania, only twelve out of twenty-two high schools had their libraries housed in separate rooms. Leonard Earl Harbaugh, A Study of the Library Facilities of the High Schools of Fayette County, Pa., (M.A. thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1930).

Certain Committee called for around ten books per pupil.¹

Conditions in elementary school libraries in the period 1920 to 1944 were, if anything, worse than in the secondary schools in the same period. In 1925 the publication of the Elementary School Library Standards² drew attention to the generally poor state of libraries in the elementary school. Again, Certain had been responsible for much of the work on these standards. In 1933 the entire yearbook of the National Education Association's Department of Elementary School Principals was devoted to the subject. But in 1945 when the report School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow: Functions and Standards³ was published, elementary schools were still served mostly by classroom collections or by what the local public library was able to supply.⁴ As in England at this time, the committee which produced this report in the United States saw a centralised elementary school library service as being even more essential because of new stress on the needs of the individual child, and the rapidly changing conception of those needs; adaptations made to, and extensions of, the school reading programme; and the emphasis on "realistic, more broadly planned work in the social studies".⁵

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1. National Education Association. Committee on Library Organization and Equipment, Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools, pp.27-31.
 2. National Education Association and American Library Association. Joint Committee, Elementary School Library Standards, (Chicago, 1925).
 3. American Library Association. Division of Libraries for Children and Young People, and its Section, The American Association of School Librarians, Committees on Post-War Planning, School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow: Functions and Standards, (Chicago, 1945).
 4. Ibid., p.7.
 5. Ibid., pp.7-8.

Meanwhile a study made in 1940 by the Illinois Library Association Junior Members Directory Committee, of three hundred elementary schools outside the Chicago area,¹ showed that only sixty-one percent had a central library. There were no libraries in twenty-one percent of the schools, and eighteen percent had classroom libraries. There were full-time librarians in sixteen percent of the schools, in thirty-seven percent a teacher-librarian, and in forty-six percent no librarian. This parallels the situation in England, where the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust in 1934 found very few people with any library training at all working full- or part-time in secondary school libraries,² and elementary school libraries were even less well staffed.

By the 1970s, as in earlier years, there was still a great discrepancy between what was considered desirable in school library standards, and conditions as they actually existed in schools. A statewide questionnaire-based study in the mid-1960s³ showed that "some California school library programs had met the standards of the American Library Association in part, but none of them had met the standards in full". Serious deficiencies were noted in provision of qualified library staff, in the variety and number of book and non-book holdings, and in design and equipment of library facilities.

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1. Alma Lundeen, "The Trend of Elementary School Libraries in Illinois", Illinois Libraries, 30(1948), pp.234-237, quoted by Joan E. Irwin Van Oord, "Illinois School Libraries: An Historical Survey", Illinois Libraries, 50(1968), p.857.
 2. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Libraries in Secondary Schools, p.26.
 3. Marvin Howell, School Libraries in California: A Report to the Californian Legislature, (Sacramento, 1968). This was a study of school library facilities, collections, and services, conducted by Marvin Howell for the Californian State Legislature, which subsequently published the work.

However the funds required to remedy these deficiencies were not available.¹ The problems of school library accommodation, staffing, and resources, were still evident ten years later, and it is now unlikely, since the California "Tax Revolt" of 1978, that necessary finance to expand school library programmes and to bring them up to national standards, will be made available.

For this study, survey questionnaires were completed by 5049 of California's 5150 elementary schools, or 97.8% of the total. Of these, 1916, or approximately thirty-eight percent, had their library collections housed in a school library room and organised according to an approved procedure.² Of these schools with libraries, only 360, or approximately 18.8% of the 1916, had trained librarians on a part-time or full-time basis. The average book collection in these 1916 libraries was 2930 volumes, 3070 volumes short of the minimum standards set by the American Library Association. Only 144 schools had book collections which met the American Library Association's minimum standard of 6000 volumes, and fifty of these were in one school district serving a large city. Of the 5040 elementary schools which returned questionnaires, 958, or approximately nineteen percent, had book collections housed in offices, cloakrooms, hallways, textbook stores, "and other places not considered acceptable as libraries".³

Table XV compares Californian elementary school libraries with

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1. Ibid., p.9.
 2. Ibid., p.10.
 3. Ibid., p.10.

those of the United States generally.¹ The Californian figure of approximately thirty-eight percent of public elementary schools with their own libraries is well below the national figure of more than forty-four percent.²

TABLE XV

UNITED STATES AND CALIFORNIAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL LIBRARY
FACILITIES, 1963

	Percentage of schools with libraries	Enrolment in schools with libraries		Percentage of schools served by school librarians	Average number of books per pupil
		Number	Percent		
United States schools	44.4	12,384,415	57.8	50.8	5.8
Californian schools	38.0	1,176,420	46.1	7.0	4.8

It is in the area of school library staffing that there is the most striking contrast between Californian conditions and those existing generally throughout the United States. Only seven percent of the Californian elementary schools had trained librarians on either a full-time or a part-time basis, while nationally almost fifty-one percent of all public elementary schools had the services of trained librarians. However the American Association of School Librarians³ had recommended in 1960 that one librarian should be appointed for

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1. Statistics from United States Office of Education, Public School Library Statistics, 1962-63, (Washington, 1964), and Howell, School Libraries in California, p.15.
 2. Francis Keppel, "Schools Without Libraries: Our National Disgrace", McCalls Magazine, 92(November 1964), p.116.
 3. American Association of School Librarians, Standards for School Library Programs, p.47.

each 300 pupils in a school,¹ with a clerk for each 600 pupils; if the librarians were responsible for audiovisual materials as well as books, the number of librarians should be increased by twenty-five percent. To meet these standards, an elementary school of one thousand pupils, where some non-book materials were made available through the library, should have had not one trained librarian, but four, assisted by at least two library clerks. With only seven percent of its elementary schools having the services of a trained librarian, and many of those with the librarian only serving on a part-time basis, school library staffing in California fell not only well below staffing levels in the United States schools generally, but alarmingly far below what was considered desirable in nationally accepted standards in the mid-1960s.

The book collections of the Californian elementary school libraries failed to meet the quantitative standards laid down by the American Library Association, though the survey for the California State Legislature showed that they were not very far below the average for United States schools generally, with 4.8 books per pupil against the national average of 5.8, as shown in Table XV. The American Library Association specified that the book collection of a school library should contain books covering every phase of the curriculum, with books to provide a pupil with the material necessary to pursue his special interests to the extent of his ability, and books designed to stimulate his interest in the world in which he lived. To meet the Association standards, book collections had to contain 6000 to 10,000 books for a school enrolment of 200-999

1. If there were more than 900 pupils in a school, an additional librarian should be appointed for each 400 pupils in excess of the 900.

pupils, and ten books per pupil which the enrolment exceeded 1000 pupils. To bring their collections up to these standards, the report estimated in 1968 that California's 1916 elementary school libraries alone would have had to add 6,149,919 volumes to their stock. At the same time other volumes would also have to be added to the collections each year to meet increased enrolments, to replace lost or damaged books, and to maintain the currency of collections.¹

All high schools in California responded to the survey questionnaire; in them, as in the secondary schools in Britain, the provision of libraries was generally more satisfactory than in the elementary schools. Of the 360 junior high schools, 350, or 97.1%, had centralised school libraries; of the 640 senior and four-year high schools, 632, or 98.6%, had centralised libraries. Of the junior high schools, 251 had trained librarians, while in the senior and four-year high schools there were 408 trained librarians. In the centralised libraries of the junior high schools there was an average of 5.4 books per pupil, or 4.6 books short of the minimum standard of ten books per pupil set by the American Library Association. In the centralised libraries of the senior and four-year high schools there was an average of 5.3 books per pupil, again short of the ten books recommended in the standards of the American Library Association.²

Since 1957 to a certain extent and since 1965 to a greater extent, school library resource provision has generally been given

1. Howell, School Libraries in California, p.20.

2. Ibid., p.11.

greater emphasis than formerly, largely as a result of the infusion of special federal government grants. Financial support for school libraries through federal funds began in 1958 when money provided through the National Defense Education Act was used for the purchase of some categories of library materials; after 1965 it was used also for the support of institutes for school librarians. But the most significant source of new funds for school libraries was the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Through this Act school libraries benefited from money allocated to encourage innovation in education, to provide special assistance to the educationally disadvantaged, and to strengthen the state departments of education.¹ Many schools in the United States were able to build new library centres during this period, while at the same time personnel were trained to take charge of them.² However, what did more to establish the value of school library media centres "than any other factor" was, according to F.T. Barrell, the Knapp Project.³

In December 1962 the Knapp Foundation, which had previously made grants for hospitals, medical research, youth organisations, community funds, and a model school system in Kentucky, made a grant of \$US 1,130,000 to be used, under the direction of the American Library Association, in a five-year demonstration project to be conducted in five elementary schools to "set examples of quality school

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1. Peggy Sullivan (ed.), Realization: The Final Report of the Knapp School Libraries Project, (Chicago, 1968), p.3.
 2. James Maxwell, "The School Library Resource Centre in a Dynamic Curriculum", in Australian School Library Association, The Teacher-Librarian: Curator or Innovator?, (Sydney, 1974), p.36.
 3. F.T. Barrell, "School Library Development in Queensland: Some Problems to Surmount", Journal of the School Library Association of Queensland, 3, 3/4(1970), p.11.

library services to pupils and teachers".¹ The Project called for "the establishment of school libraries which [would] serve as living examples of the recommendations in the national standards for school libraries."² The objectives of the programme, as described in the published report, were to illustrate through the demonstration libraries the value of school library programmes; to promote improved understanding of the use of the school library resources on the part of teachers and administrators by relating the demonstration libraries to teacher education programmes; to increase community awareness of the value of adequate school library programmes through visits to the demonstration libraries and planned activities; and to increase interest in and support for school library development among both educators and the general community through a publication programme. As a result of the experiences in the Knapp School Libraries Project, which showed the need for a study of the many kinds of personnel needed in modern school librarianship, the Foundation in November 1967 made a grant of \$US 1,163,718 to the American Library Association for a second five-year project, the Knapp School Library Manpower Project.³ Another result of the first programme was a general increase in funds made available through other sources, including Elementary and Secondary Education Act funds in twenty-nine states, for the development of school library projects.⁴

The impact of the Knapp School Libraries Project was felt far

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1. Ibid., p.11.
 2. Sullivan, Realization, p.6.
 3. Ibid., p.34.
 4. Ibid., p.33.

beyond the United States; it influenced, for instance, developments in Canada, as well as the work of the Library Association of Australia's Children's Libraries Section in the 1960s. In 1977 Ron Store described a secondary school library in Vancouver, Canada, developed in response to the current Standards for School Media Programs, standards which reflected the demonstrations of the Knapp Project. The Sir Winston Churchill Secondary School, with 1500 pupils, had a library of 20,000 volumes, plus audiovisual materials. It was also the centre from which the school's audiovisual hardware was distributed. It was staffed by three teacher-librarians, each responsible for a subject area, with support and volunteer staff. Circulation of materials was controlled through a computer, which produced overdue notices; a tattle-tape book detection system controlled stock; a collection of microforms could be used on two readers; an index of periodical articles not included in the standard indexes was produced by computer; a basic computer-print catalogue of audiovisual materials had been prepared, with plans in hand for further computerisation; and programmed instructional materials were prepared for student use.¹ This all indicates an extremely sophisticated level of service and administration. However Ron Store's report on this library also described two other school libraries in Vancouver which in no way approached this standard.

During the twentieth century the previously discussed new attitudes to education, and the publication of the many sets of standards for school library services, led to the publication of

1. Ronald E. Store, Visit Overseas 1976-1977, Report No.14, 22 April 1977, to Townsville College of Advanced Education.

newer manuals for school libraries, and other publications to assist the school librarian: these publications in turn had a great influence on the way school libraries developed. The earliest of the twentieth century manuals included John Cotton Dana's Modern American Library Economy, published in 1911, with a substantial section on "The School Department";¹ Martha Wilson's School Library Management, first published in 1919;² and a pamphlet published by the American Library Association in 1916, The High School Library.³ Later popular manuals included Hannah Logasa's The High School Library, published in 1928;⁴ the American Library Association's The Library in the School, written by Lucile F. Fargo in 1930;⁵ a smaller publication prepared by its Education Committee in 1931, A Handbook for Teacher-Librarians;⁶ and Margaret I. Rufsvold's more specialised manual Audio-Visual School Library Service, also published by the American Library Association, in 1949.⁷ These publica-

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1. John Cotton Dana, Modern American Library Economy, as illustrated by the Newark, N.J., Free Public Library, (Minneapolis, 1911).
 2. Martha Wilson, School Library Management, (5th edn, New York, 1931). This "was originally compiled to answer some of the many questions which come to the Supervisor's office, to follow up Summer School instruction, and to assist library workers with limited experience or time, to put a small school library into working order. It is, therefore, an attempt to state, in simplest terms, the problem of the library in the school, particularly the smaller one, and to offer practical suggestions as to its equipment, organization, administration and use...". (From the Preface.)
 3. G.O. Ward, The High School Library, (Chicago, 1916).
 4. Hannah Logasa, The High School Library: Its Functions in Education, (New York, 1928).
 5. Lucile F. Fargo, The Library in the School, (Chicago, 1930).
 6. American Library Association. Education Committee. Elementary Sub-Committee, A Handbook for Teacher-Librarians, (Chicago, 1931).
 7. Margaret I. Rufsvold, Audio-Visual School Library Service: A Handbook for Librarians, (Chicago, 1949).

tions successively illustrate the increasing sophistication of school libraries, and the higher expectations which educators had of them, as well as a newer emphasis on instruction through the library, and on audiovisual materials as part of an integrated collection.

Booklists and aids to book selection have been produced by professional associations throughout the century. In 1906 the Oregon Library Commission produced a list of Books for High Schools;¹ in 1913 the United States Bureau of Education published a List of Books Suited to a High-School Library, prepared by the Chicago University School of Education;² the Suggested List of Books for Secondary School Libraries prepared by New York State University's School Libraries Division in 1918;³ and Martha Wilson's Library Books for High Schools, published in 1918.⁴ The production and up-dating of such lists continued in later years, keeping pace with the range and variety of books available, and with the new statements of educational goals and objectives appropriate to the school and its library. In 1935, under the chairmanship of Mary Elizabeth Foster, the Joint Committee of the American Library Association, National Education Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English, produced 1000 Books for the Senior High School Library,⁵ which was

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1. Oregon. Library Commission, Books for High Schools, (Salem, Oregon, 1906).
 2. Chicago. University. School of Education. University High School, List of Books Suited to a High-School Library, (Washington, 1913).
 3. New York State University. School Libraries Division, Suggested List of Books for Secondary School Libraries, (New York, 1918).
 4. Martha Wilson, Library Books for High Schools, (Washington, 1918).
 5. American Library Association, National Education Association, and National Council of Teachers of English. Joint Committee, 1000 Books for the Senior High School Library, (Chicago, 1935).

subsequently updated. A Joint Committee of the same associations also produced A Basic Book Collection for High Schools, under the chairmanship of Jessie Boyd in 1942,¹ with various later revisions, including one prepared by Elsa Berner as Chairman of the Editorial Committee of the American Library Association in 1956.² Book selection aids for school libraries were produced in such numbers that guides to the current selection aids available were also necessary. The United States Office of Education made an early contribution in this field, publishing Edith Anna Lathrop's Aids in Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries in 1934,³ and her Aids in Book Selection for Elementary School Libraries in 1935.⁴

Another area of school librarianship in which there has been considerable publishing this century has been that of library instruction. Works have included suggested lesson programmes, manuals for teaching the use of the library and study techniques, and manuals and self-instructional materials for student use. Early publications included Library Lessons for High Schools by Ole S. Rice in 1918,⁵ and G.O. Ward's Suggestive Outlines and Methods for Teaching the Use of the Library, published in 1919.⁶ Later manuals included guides

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1. American Library Association, National Education Association, and National Council of Teachers of English. Joint Committee, A Basic Book Collection for High Schools, (Chicago, 1942).
 2. American Library Association. Editorial Committee, A Basic Book Collection for High Schools, (Chicago, 1956).
 3. Edith Anna Lathrop, Aids in Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries, (Washington, 1934).
 4. Edith Anna Lathrop, Aids in Book Selection for Elementary School Libraries, (Washington, 1935).
 5. Ole S. Rice, Library Lessons for High Schools, outlines and references, (Madison, Wisconsin, 1918).
 6. G.O. Ward, Suggestive Outlines and Methods for Teaching the Use of the Library, (Boston, 1919).

and activity books for pupils: Bertram French's High School Library Manual, first published in 1930;¹ Lewis and Lesser's Adventures with Books and Libraries (1934) for younger children;² and Lucile Fargo's manual for the American Library Association, Activity Booklet: Library Projects for Children and Young People (1945).³ This proliferation of publications designed to assist the school librarian in library management, book selection, and library instruction, paralleled developments in Britain in the same period.

The debate which has gone on in Britain since 1944 about the nature of the training necessary for a school librarian has also been echoed in the United States. Although the Certain Standards in 1920 had called for "trained librarians", those actually appointed as "trained" were usually teachers who had received no more than one or two weeks library training.⁴ Over the years three types of school librarian emerged in the United States, as they had in Britain, all three gaining some degree of acceptance: the teacher-librarian who had undertaken a full course in teacher training plus a full professional course in librarianship or school librarianship; the librarian who brought professional library qualifications to the work of the school library; and the teacher in charge of the library, part- or full-time, often with a considerable teaching load, and usually with only a short course completed (anything from a week

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1. Bertram French, High School Library Manual, (Donville, Illinois, 1937).
 2. E.E. Lewis and Goldie D. Lesser, Adventures with Books and Libraries, (n.p., 1934).
 3. Lucile F. Fargo, Activity Booklet Number Two: Library Projects for Children and Young People, (Chicago, 1945).
 4. 45% of the "trained librarians" in Illinois in 1930, for instance, had no more than five hours of training. See Clevenger and Odell, High-School Libraries in Illinois, p.23.

to a semester) in school library organisation. And studies quoted earlier show that many people in charge of school libraries throughout the twentieth century had no library qualifications at all.

As in Great Britain, public libraries in the United States in the twentieth century contributed to library service to schools. This contribution varied from the mere provision of juvenile collections, often with some assistance given to children in their use, to the encouragement of library visits by classes from local schools, and usually some library instruction for those classes, the provision of special collections for teachers, and provision of a reference and loan collection within the school itself for the use of teachers and pupils. And again, as in Britain, there was some development of dual-purpose libraries owned by the school or by the local authority but serving both a school and the general public. In New York State in 1908 fourteen of the fifty-three high school libraries then in existence were high school libraries also serving as public libraries. In some cases these were housed in a special building near the high school: for example, the Richmond Memorial Library of Batavia and the Guernsey Memorial Library of Norwich.¹ There was a similar provision in many cities and towns in Britain too: for instance, the Balgreen School Branch of the Edinburgh Public Library, which served adults and children of the local community from the 1920s, as well as making provision for the special library needs of the school.² Joint use of school collections had, as we have seen

1. Hall, "High School Libraries in New York State", p.57.

2. Robert Butchart, "School Libraries in Edinburgh", Library Association Record, 38(1936), pp.410-413.

in Chapter Three, been a usual practice in the common school libraries in several states, and in some high school libraries, in the nineteenth century in America. In the twentieth century newer joint services in towns and cities have been developed in both Britain and America; in both countries rural library services to school children, too, have tended to rely heavily on the support of local authority library services.¹

While there are very obvious similarities between school library services in Great Britain and the United States of America as they have developed in the twentieth century, there are also differences: the most obvious is in approach to audiovisual materials. In America, integrated resource collections are common, and are encouraged by the current American Library Association standards for school media collections; in Britain, however, despite a centuries old tradition of including non-book materials in library collections, the multi-media resources of the school are generally not administered through the school library, though in some cases the software at least may be stored there.

1. Sarah Byrd Askew, "County Libraries and Rural Schools in New Jersey", in Edith Anna Lathrop, School and County Library Cooperation, (Washington, 1930). Helen Heffernan and Gladys Lamb Potter, Effective Use of Library Facilities in Rural Schools, (Sacramento, 1934), describe a county library service to rural schools which has operated since 1911 in California. Their book aimed to give teachers served by the county library suggestions to enable them to make better use of the county library material.