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## CHAPTER SEVEN

## "ENCOURAGING THE LOVE OF GOOD BOOKS":

## THE SCHOOL LIBRARY AS A CENTRE FOR RECREATIONAL READING

While many school libraries during the last twelve hundred years have been established to support the instructional programme of the school, others, particularly since the late eighteenth century, have been established as a source of recreational and leisure reading for pupils. But while many libraries of fiction and recreational reading materials in schools have sought to encourage children to "seek in books a pleasant recreation",<sup>1</sup> such libraries have also been seen as encouraging the creative and worthwhile use of leisure time,<sup>2</sup> developing a discriminating taste in books,<sup>3</sup> encouraging "the reading habit",<sup>4</sup> and building the character of the pupils through exposure to "wholesome"<sup>5</sup> or "healthy" literature. In the nineteenth century and in the early twentieth century, though school libraries were promoted "for purposes of enjoyment",<sup>6</sup> it was taken for granted that "the love

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1. New South Wales Minister for Education, 1938. From New South Wales, Education Gazette, 32(1938), p.391. Quoted by Alan George Shearman, The Development of Departmental High School Libraries in New South Wales, (Post-graduate Diploma in Librarianship thesis, University of New South Wales, 1963), p.32.
  2. Charles C. Certain, "Public School Libraries", Library Journal, 43(1917), p.361.
  3. Library Association of Australia. Children's Libraries Section, Standards and Objectives for School Libraries, (Melbourne, 1966), pp.6-7.
  4. Report of Mr. Inspector Walker, Braidwood District. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 30 May 1908, p.332.
  5. Henry Farr, Library Work With Children, (Cardiff, 1910), p.4.
  6. Certain, "Public School Libraries", p.361.

of reading",<sup>1</sup> "the reading habit", or "a love of good books",<sup>2</sup> was a self-evident good which required no justification, and which, indeed, could be used to justify the provision of "school libraries for purposes of enjoyment".<sup>3</sup> So while teachers were encouraged to remove "all handicaps which might impair the enjoyment of reading",<sup>4</sup> this enjoyment was not often seen as an end in itself, but rather as a means of developing "strong motives for and permanent interest in reading",<sup>5</sup> of encouraging the "profitable use...of leisure time",<sup>6</sup> and even of providing a strong moral influence in the school.<sup>7</sup>

The school library as a source of recreation and reading for pleasure is a newer concept of school library service than that of the school library as a source of support for and enrichment of teaching and learning within the school, if only because the publishing of books designed to give children pleasure and entertainment came rather later than the production of books designed to instruct them. Because few books were produced with the deliberate aim of giving children pleasure until the eighteenth century,<sup>8</sup> children's libraries to cater for leisure reading did not develop until the later years of that century. And even when they did begin to

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1. H.T. Cox, "London School Board Libraries", The Library Chronicle, 4(1887), p.169.
  2. Farr, Library Work With Children, p.4.
  3. Certain, "Public School Libraries", p.361.
  4. Cecil De Witt Boney, A Study of Library Reading in the Primary Grades, (New York, 1933), pp.58-59.
  5. Ibid.
  6. Library Association of Australia. Children's Libraries Section, Standards and Objectives for School Libraries, p.6.
  7. Farr, Library Work With Children, p.4.
  8. F.J. Harvey Darton, Children's Books in England: Five Centuries of Social Life, (Cambridge, 1932), p.1.

develop, adults had mixed feelings about them. The Puritan influence caused many to doubt that what children enjoyed could possibly be good for them, while the strong didactic tradition in books produced in English for children was evident even in the works, specifically designed, from the eighteenth century onwards, to give pleasure. Both these traditions influenced strongly the early recreational libraries established for school children. The assumption that fiction had to be good for children led in the nineteenth century to a stress on the role of the fiction library in developing "the reading habit" in children: if the contents of the works read were no longer necessarily designed to improve and instruct, the act of reading was itself seen to have an educational value independently of those contents. The didactic and moral tradition still influences school libraries and their collections today, principally in the form of pressure applied by outside groups wanting to exclude particular types of books or to prescribe particular values in the selection of reading matter.

For several centuries before the development of printing with moveable type in the fifteenth century, books were produced for the instruction of children, usually written by schoolmasters, whether monks, secular clergy, or, more rarely, laymen. These were lesson books, generally intended for the children of wealthy families, with the text usually in rhyme or in question-and-answer ("catechism") form. Both these formats remained popular with writers for children into the nineteenth century. None of these books was meant to give delight to the young: the usual topics they treated were religious precepts, natural science, the duty of children, and manners and customs ("courtesy books"). The books of manners were at first

designed for "bele babees", or noble youths, and were concerned as much with etiquette and correct behaviour as with piety and morals. Later similar books were produced in the vernacular for children of humbler rank: one such was The Babees Book, written in about 1475 so that "all of tender years may receive instruction in courtesy and virtue".<sup>1</sup> In addition to these, purely instructional works were produced, from the early Middle Ages, "for budding grammarians, novitiates of the Church, or courtiers-to-be".<sup>2</sup>

Apart from these instructional works, however, "children's literature" as defined by Harvey Darton - "works produced ostensibly to give children spontaneous pleasure and not primarily to teach them, nor solely to make them good, nor to keep them profitably quiet"<sup>3</sup> - did not exist during the Middle Ages. William McMunn claims that "during the medieval period, there was no literary genre designed expressly for the entertainment of children",<sup>4</sup> while pointing out that children would have been familiar with the orally transmitted legends and heroic tales which were available to all, and that those who could read would have had access to the written literature generally available to adults and children.<sup>5</sup> Allen M. Barstow has also suggested that while it is doubtful whether any literature was written solely for children in the Middle Ages, "it is quite plausible to say that all vernacular fiction was directed toward an

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1. Anonymous, The Babees Book, edited by Edith Rickert, (n.p., 1908).
  2. Mary F. Thwaite, From Primer to Pleasure in Reading, (Boston, 1972), p.3.
  3. Darton, Children's Books in England, p.1.
  4. William Robert McMunn, "The Literacy of Medieval Children", Children's Literature, 4(1975), p.36.
  5. Ibid., pp.36-41.

audience that contained children", in an era when childhood was not seen as a period of life in which a person had different needs, emotional and physical, from those of adults.<sup>1</sup>

After the development of printing in Europe, editions of adult works, particularly romances, which obviously had some appeal for children, began to appear and we know that they were in fact read by children in search of entertainment.<sup>2</sup> William Caxton, England's first printer, issued a series of such books in the 1480s, including Aesop's Fables in English (1484); Sir Thomas Malory's Morte d'Arthur (1485);<sup>3</sup> The Historye of Reynart the Fox (1485);<sup>4</sup> and The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye (1475). All of these are in fact still read, in modern editions, by many children today. But they would have been more likely to be in adult book collections in the Middle Ages than in collections owned, or used only, by children. However amongst Caxton's earliest publishing ventures were works designed specifically for children: courtesy books and primers written for their instruction and training. In 1477 Caxton published the Book of Curtasye of Lytyll John, written in verse by an unknown monk<sup>5</sup> and

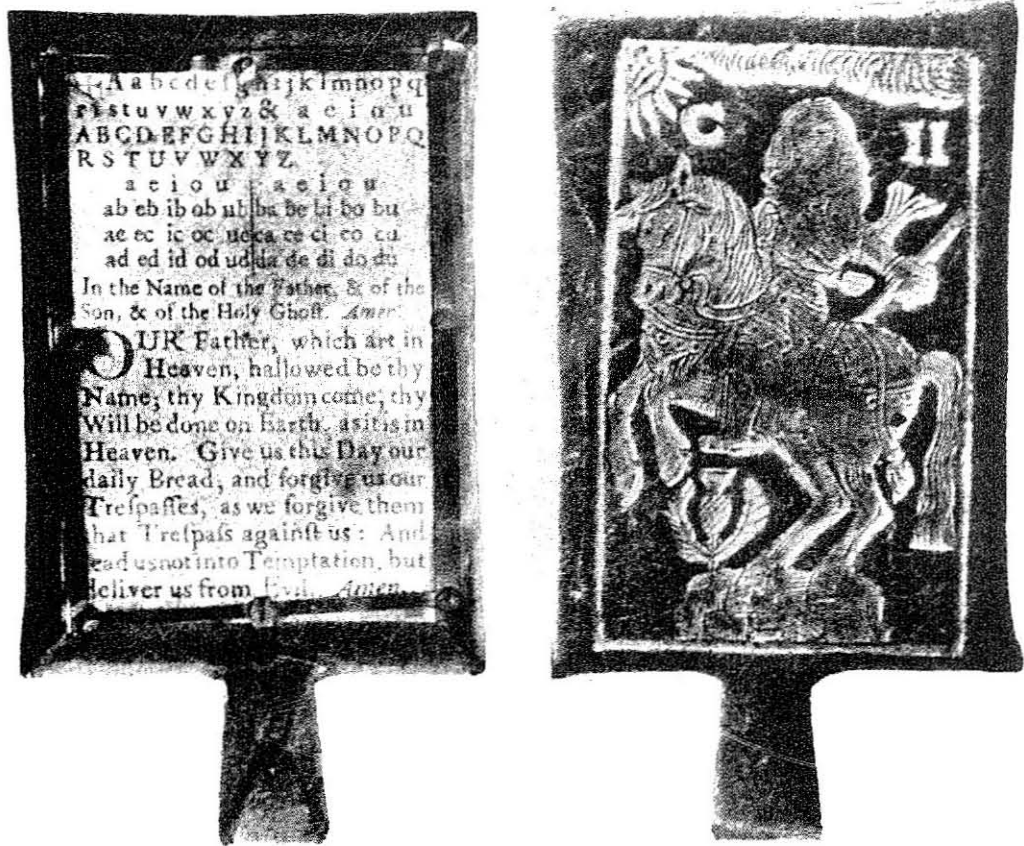
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1. Allen M. Barstow, "The Concept of the Child in the Middle Ages", Children's Literature, 4(1975), pp.41-44.
  2. Bennett A. Brockman, "Children and Literature in Late Medieval England", Children's Literature, 4(1975), p.59.
  3. This work was completed by Malory as a series of self-contained stories, in 1470, and read in manuscript until it was printed, slightly altered by Caxton into a continuous narrative, in 1484. Cornela Meigs, in Cornelia Meigs, Anne Thaxter Eaton, Elizabeth Nesbitt, and Ruth Hill Viguers, A Critical History of Children's Literature, (New York, 1953), p.29.
  4. Caxton's own translation of a Dutch romance and satire by the poet Willem. Meigs, Eaton, Nesbitt, and Viguers, A Critical History of Children's Literature, p.33.
  5. Ibid., p.32.

containing instruction for boys on manners, directions for saying prayers on rising, on how to dress appropriately, on behaviour at the table, and even on walking in the street.

Though not technically a "book", having no pages to turn, the hornbook was the first lesson book which would have been available to all children who received instruction, since many were inexpensive. These hornbooks, which apparently first came into use before the middle of the sixteenth century,<sup>1</sup> were little wooden paddles on which lesson sheets of vellum or parchment were pasted. Over this sheet was laid a piece of transparent horn to protect it from dirt and damage. The illustration on the following page shows a hornbook of fairly common type.<sup>2</sup> Most were about seven centimetres by ten or twelve centimetres; while they were generally made fairly roughly of wood, some very beautiful ones still exist in leather, rare carved wood, even silver filigree.<sup>3</sup> The lesson sheets of the hornbook, as in the one illustrated, began with a cross (+, "Christ's cross", "Christ-cross", "criss-cross") followed by the alphabet in small and large letters; then the vowels; the vowels in combination with consonants; sometimes the nine digits; the invocation "In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost, Amen"; and the Lord's Prayer.

Around 1746 another kind of lesson book, known as the battledore,

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1. Though Tuer claims that "the truth probably is that the horn-book was invented at an earlier period than this, but that it was not generally used until towards the close of the sixteenth century". Andrew W. Tuer, History of the Horn-Book, (London, 1897), p.5.
  2. From Tuer, History of the Horn-Book, p.304.
  3. Beulah Folmsbee, A Little History of the Horn-book, (Boston, 1942), p.43.

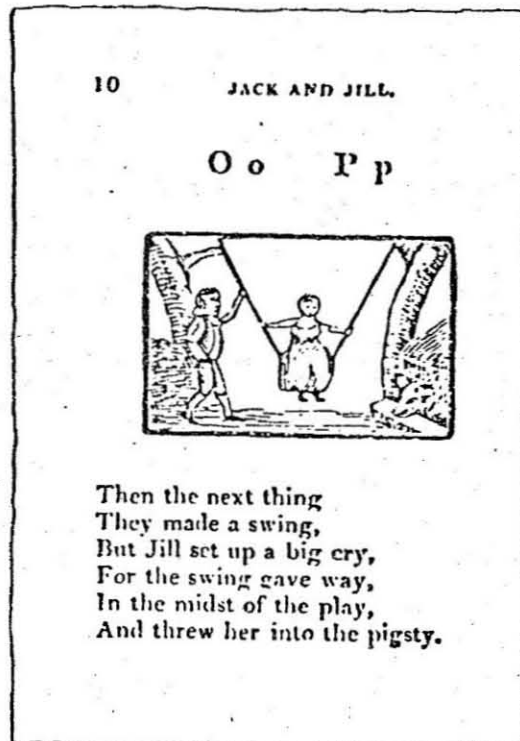


A seventeenth-century hornbook. (From an illustration in Andrew W. Tuer, History of the Horn-Book, (London, 1897), p.304.)



came into use. This consisted of a cardboard sheet folded three ways and printed with the alphabet and numerals. In addition it often included illustrations, poems, short sentences to read, and some entertaining matter. It too, however, remained primarily a device for instructing children in the basics of reading.

The hornbook and the battledore were the forerunners of the alphabet books which have been produced since the seventeenth century. The earliest were purely didactic, usually consisting of letters of the alphabet in various forms, both capital and small, in roman and italic, and often in "black letter" too. From the early eighteenth century many alphabet books showed a letter with a woodcut picture below or beside it, as on the battledores. Often the letter illustrated appeared several times in a rhyme below the picture, though sometimes not, as in this example from the press of J. Kendrew of York, printed in about 1830.<sup>1</sup>



1. From a copy in the University of Nottingham Library's Briggs Collection.

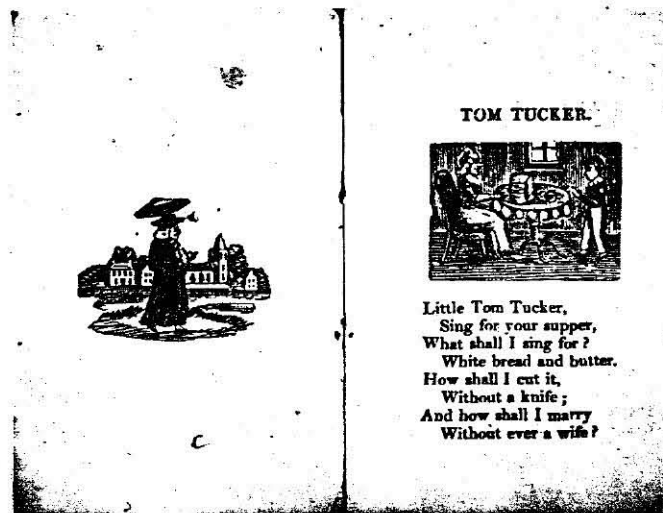
Other early books available to children were those sold by chapmen,<sup>1</sup> the itinerant merchants, hawkers, or peddlars of the seventeenth and eighteenth century, who travelled around the country with packs of trinkets and household goods, including these cheap little books which could be bought for as little as a penny.<sup>2</sup> These "chapbooks" perhaps originated as ballad sheets or broadsides, folded to make a booleet of eight or twelve papers. Later they assumed the familiar form of a miniature booklet, with sixteen to thirty-two pages, in a format of around ten centimetres high by six centimetres wide. Binding was very simple: though sixteenth century chapbooks were probably crudely bound as a rule, later chapbooks had no cover at all, or were bound in rough sugar bag paper with no lettering, or in "dutch" paper, an attractive multi-coloured paper particularly used on the small format children's chapbooks.<sup>3</sup>

These little books were originally produced for adults; they were often frowned upon by the educated upper classes, but the common people of England bought them in great numbers. While they may have been passed round by hand to numerous readers, both their format and their content would have rendered them unsuitable for inclusion in the few libraries of the time. Their subjects included traditional tales, folklore stories combining history and legend, magic, and the old wives' tales which "gave the reader consolation, entertainment,

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1. For a discussion of chapbooks and the chapmen who sold them, see Victor E. Neuburg, Popular Education in Eighteenth Century England, (London, 1971), particularly Chapter 5, "Chapbooks: Origin and Distribution", (pp.115-125); Victor E. Neuburg, The Penny Histories, (Oxford, 1968), passim.
  2. Thwaite, From Primer to Pleasure, p.40.
  3. Peter Stockham, "Collecting Chapbooks", Antiquarian Book Monthly Review, 3(1976), p.239.

and practical advice".<sup>1</sup> They included medieval romances such as the Arthurian legends, legendary tales like Jack the Giant-Killer, romances with a factual foundation like Dick Whittington, and stories of other heroes of lowly birth like Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. There were collection of riddles, dream-books, and humorous tales, often crude and ribald, which still read in an earthy, lively way. There is much evidence that children bought and read these little books,<sup>2</sup> and though as early as 1563 a few specially written chapbooks were being produced for them, it was not until the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century that a large chapbook literature developed specifically for them. Many of the earlier chapbooks would have been suitable for both adults and children; later alphabet books, moral and religious tales, and small instructional manuals, were produced for the child reader. Tales like The Tragical Death of an Apple Pie, Jack Jingle, Cock Robin, and The History of Little Tom Tucker<sup>3</sup> (an illustration from which is given full size below),

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1. Peter Stockham, review of R. Thompson (ed.), Samuel Pepy's Penny Merriments, (London, 1976), in Antiquarian Book Monthly Review, 9(1977), p.25.
  2. Percy Muir, English Children's Books 1600 to 1900, (New York, 1969), p.27.
  3. From a copy printed by J. Kendrew, Colliergate, York, in the early nineteenth century, in the Briggs Collection, University of Nottingham Library. This double page illustration shows pages 2 and 3. The illustration on the left is totally unrelated to the text, and was simply used by the publisher as a space filler. It had previously appeared in another chapbook issued by the same publisher, The House that Jack Built, where it was used to show the "Priest all shaven and shorn"; such repetition of illustrations from book to book was typical of the methods of the chapbook publishers.



were among the first tales written to entertain and amuse as well as to instruct children. These small and inexpensive booklets, disdained by educators and the upper classes, have their successors in the various forms of sub-literature available to children today, including comics and popular periodicals.

Puritan influences were strong in England in the seventeenth century; though the chapmen were peddling large numbers of their lighthearted, often lurid stories, there were very few conventional books published for children which did not reflect the conviction that religious beliefs form the basis for the whole of human life. The authors were fully aware of the importance of indoctrinating the young, and moral tales were written to cultivate in children an abhorrence of sin and to reinforce the Puritan social, economic, and religious ideals. While these stories seem morbid and terrifying today, with their emphasis on martyrdom and death, they were written from an earnest desire to make children happy: that is, secure in the avoidance of a very vividly depicted Hell and in the assurance of Heaven. However their method of teaching was to instil in

children a desire to do good based on a fear of Hell should they do otherwise, and in drawing vivid pictures of the consequences of sin they often produced passages of violence and horror which would generally be considered most unsuitable for children today.

One such book, long popular with those parents and teachers whose chief aim was to save children's souls and to rescue them from the clutches of Satan, was A Token for Children: Being an Exact Account of the Conversion, Holy and Exemplary Lives, and Joyful Deaths, of Several Young Children, written in 1671 by a Puritan clergyman, James Janeway.<sup>1</sup> In this gloomy book thirteen exemplary children spent their lives trying to reform, improve, and convert all those whom they encountered. They devoted considerable time to brooding on sin and eternal torment and the state of their own souls, before dying young, so earning early their just reward in Heaven. Percy Muir has commented that "death might indeed be a happy release from the regime enforced by the inexorable author" who required in his characters "a rigid abstinence from all forms of secular enjoyment, courage to rebuke frivolity in others, especially those nearest and dearest", while they were to "soberly rejoice at the funerals of the blessed, constantly...remind [themselves] of the inherent tendency to sin, and to be on guard against the wiles of Satan".<sup>2</sup> The book opens with a brief exhortation to parents, who were responsible for the conversion and salvation of their children. "Is not your duty clear? and dare you neglect so direct a command? Are the souls of your children of no value? Are you willing that they should be Brands of

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1. The title page illustration on the next page comes from a copy in the Bodleian Library, 80.R.97.Th.

2. Muir, English Children's Books 1600 to 1900, p.30.

A  
**T O K E N**  
 F O R  
**C H I L D R E N.**  
 B E I N G

An Exact Account of the Conversion, Holy and Exemplary Lives and Joyful Deaths of several young Children.

---

By **J A M E S J A N E W A Y,**  
*Minister of the Gospel.*

---

To which is added,  
 A **T O K E N** for the **C H I L D R E N**  
 of **N E W - E N G L A N D.**

O R,  
 Some Examples of Children, in whom the Fear of God was remarkably Budding before they died, in several Parts of **N E W - E N G L A N D.**

Preserved and published for the Encouragement of Piety in other Children.

With New Additions.

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**B O S T O N,** Printed:  
**P H I L A D E L P H I A,** Re-printed, and sold by  
**B. FRANKLIN,** and **D. HALL,** MDCCLXIX.

Hell?...Shall the Devil run away with them without controul?"<sup>1</sup> Janeway required them to pray with and for their children, and to encourage them to read right through this book.

As part of their normal instruction, children were required to memorise catechisms such as that of John Cotton, produced in England in 1646 and in print for over two hundred years: Spiritual Milk for Boston Babes in either England, drawn from the Breasts of both Testaments for their Souls' Nourishment.<sup>2</sup> He used a question-and-answer approach, with such questions as "How did God make you?" and the accompanying answer "I was conceived in sin and born in iniquity" to drive home Puritan teaching. Primers used for elementary instruction in schools, and given to children as improving leisure reading, were similar in purpose and content. One such work was Benjamin Harris' The Protestant Tutor, Instructing Children to Spel and read English, and Grounding Them in the True Protestant Religion and Discovering the Errors and Deceits of the Papists, written in 1679 as part of his running campaign against the "evils" of Roman Catholicism. It does contain an alphabet, reading exercises, prayers, and lessons for children, but the bulk of the books is a vigorous anti-Catholic tract graphically illustrated with pictures of people being tortured by the Papists.<sup>3</sup> A typical illustration from it is shown on page 474.

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1. James Janeway, A Token For Children, (facsimile edn, New York, 1977), n.p.
  2. The title page illustration on p.473 is from a copy in the Rosenbach Collection of the Free Library of Philadelphia.
  3. The illustrations show torture by, among other methods, boiling victims alive, hanging them by the hair, burning them at the stake, having them torn apart by wild dogs, and strangling them. Benjamin Harris, The Protestant Tutor, (facsimile edn, New York, 1977). The illustration reproduced is from page 62.

*Spiritual*  
**M I L K**  
FOR  
*'Boston Babes.*

In either *ENGLAND*:

Drawn out of the breasts of both  
*TESTAMENTS* for their  
Souls nourishment.

But may be of like use to any  
*CHILDREN.*

By *John Cotton, B. D.* Late  
Teacher to the Church of *Boston* in  
*New-England.*



Printed at *BOSTON*,  
1 6 8 4.

L K

L K

E S

hath God done  
u?

me. (a) He 4 Psal 119: 73  
& 120: 4--8

save me. Isa 63: 1  
b Joh 4: 44  
Exod 3: 14

*Q. Who is God?*

*A. God is a Spirit of (b) him-  
self, and for himself.*

*Q. How many Gods be there?*

*A. There is but one God in three  
Persons, (c) the Father, the Son, and  
the Holy Ghost.*

c 1 Cor 8: 6  
1 John 5: 7

*Q. How did God make you?*

*A. In my first Parents (d) holy  
and righteous.*

d Gen 1: 26, 27  
Eccles 7: 29

*Q. Are you then born holy and right-  
eous?*

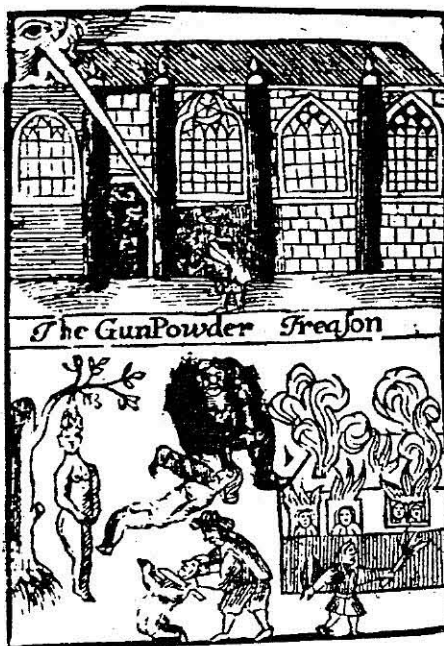
*A. No, my first Father (e) sinned  
and I in him.*

e Isa 43: 27  
Rom 12: 19

A 2

Quest





Another work, similar in intent and just as popular, was The New England Primer, which from 1680 was studied by children learning to read.<sup>1</sup> It, too, included the alphabet, with illustrations, pages of syllables, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and a Catechism.

These compilations, and others like them, were honestly intended "as light literature to bring joy to the hearts of their young readers",<sup>2</sup> and the authors were undoubtedly sincere, since they could conceive no greater joy than in saving souls from damnation.<sup>3</sup> It is not surprising, however, that children turned to the chapbooks for

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1. It has been estimated that in the period 1680 to 1830, between six and eight million copies of The New England Primer were printed. Daniel A. Cohen, preface to Anonymous, The New England Primer Enlarged, (facsimile edn, New York, 1977), p.vi.
  2. Muir, English Children's Books 1600 to 1900, p.33.
  3. Gilliam Avery, Childhood's Pattern, (London, 1975), p.104.

lighter reading. So by the end of the seventeenth century two major literary traditions had developed for children: serious books with a didactic and moral purpose; and lighthearted and more ephemeral literature in the popular tradition. The former were frequently used in the actual instruction of children, and while the more popular titles later came to form part of the stock of the Sunday school, and sometimes the national school, library, they were generally seen in the seventeenth century as having a more serious purpose than that of providing leisure reading: the latter were never regarded as suitable for libraries.<sup>1</sup>

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, then, literature for children consisted almost entirely of the Puritan-inspired devotional manuals and works designed to lead children towards salvation, books on behaviour (or courtesy books), and books for classroom use.<sup>2</sup> In addition there was the sub-literature of the chapbooks; some adult books which children read and enjoyed, including classics like Defoe's Robinson Crusoe and Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress; and editions of folktales, one of the earliest of which was Charles Perrault's Histoires ou Contes du Temps Passé, first published in Paris in 1697,

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1. Though chapbooks did not form part of the stock of libraries, they had, as we will see, a great influence on literature for children during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, hence the discussion of them in this chapter. However, since it is school libraries, and not children's literature, which forms the subject of this chapter, other forms of sub-literature for children - penny dreadfuls, comics, children's periodicals - which seldom or never appear in libraries, will not be discussed.
  2. William Sloane in the 1950s produced a detailed and scholarly study of works published for children between 1557 and 1710, excluding educational works; he found that nearly all the books were directed towards moral improvement or religious teaching. William Sloane, Children's Books in England and America in the 17th Century: A History and a Checklist, together with "The Young Christian's Library", the first printed catalogue of books for children, (New York, 1955).

and available from the 1730s in English as Tales of Mother Goose.<sup>1</sup>

During the eighteenth century the two major traditions in literature for children - the Puritan-inspired manuals, and the chapbooks - gradually became less distinct, each having an influence on the other. This gradual merging of the two traditions was aided by a weakening of the Calvinist doctrine of total infant depravity; the emergence of the idea that children learned best when enjoying themselves (an idea systematised in the work of philosopher John Locke); and the commercial acumen of publishers who sought to tap the child market revealed by the sale of the chapbooks, while still appealing to parents' desire for respectability.

John Locke, in the 1690s, wrote that a child, rather than being forced to learn through a fear of damnation if he did not, should "be cozen'd into a Knowledge of the Letters" through games and "some easy pleasant Book, suited to his Capacity...wherein the Entertainment that he finds might draw him on, and reward his Pains in Reading".<sup>2</sup> Locke's influence is apparent on John Newbery, one of the earliest publishers for children whose work showed this "shift from stern morality to amusing instruction".<sup>3</sup> Newbery quoted Locke's advice, for the benefit of parents, in the preface to his A Little Pretty Pocket-Book, first issued in 1744,<sup>4</sup> a work which has been seen as revolutionising "the methods and outworn ideas associated with

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1. Eric Quayle, "Early Children's Books, Part One", Antiquarian Book Monthly Review, 7(1980), p.177.

2. Quoted by Mary Ann Nelson, A Comparative Anthology of Children's Literature, (New York, 1972), p.9.

3. Ibid., p.9.

4. John Newbery, A Little Pretty Pocket-Book, a facsimile edition with an introductory essay and bibliography by M.F. Thwaite, (London, 1966), pp.55-57.

what the adult world considered suitable books for the young".<sup>1</sup> Another early publisher whose work shows the influence of Locke was Thomas Boreman. In a note at the beginning of his miniature book The Gigantick History of the Two Famous Giants..., published in 1741, Boreman said that "during the Infant-Age", when a child was "ever busy and always inquiring, there is no fixing the attention of the mind, but by amusing it".<sup>2</sup> He went on to provide a fast-moving but highly moral story based on the old chapbook tales of the giants Corineus and Gogmagog, printed in very small dwarf books that a child could handle easily, as shown by the full-size reproduction of the title page and frontispiece.



While Newbery was not the first publisher of attractive and

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1. Eric Quayle, "The Earliest Children's Books", Antiquarian Book Monthly Review, 2,12(1975), p.9.
  2. Thomas Boreman, The Gigantick History of the Two Famous Giants, and Other Curiosities in the Guildhall, London, (London, 1741), [p.i].

lighthearted books for the young,<sup>1</sup> he was probably the most successful.<sup>2</sup> In his preface to The Child's New Plaything, one of his earliest children's books, he wrote "'Tis hoped the whole will be seen rather an Amusement than a Task"; this sentiment was the key to all his publishing for children. A prominent word on the title page of his Little Pretty Pocket-Book is "amusement", too; the children who read it were not only to be instructed, but also to be entertained.<sup>3</sup> Sold for the price of sixpence, this book came in attractive gilt and embossed paper covers, and with the free gifts of a ball and a pin-cushion, "the use of which will infallibly make Tommy a good boy, and Polly a good girl".<sup>4</sup> The book contained two letters purporting to be from a very moral Jack the Giant-Killer, giving mild lectures on good

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1. In 1736 Thomas Boreman printed A Description of a Great Variety of Animals, and Vegetables, ...Especially for the Entertainment of Youth, and in 1742 printed The History of Cajanus, the Swedish Giant. See Muir, English Children's Books 1600 to 1900, p.60. Muir believes that there were also other publishers active in this field at this time, some of them basing their publications, as did Boreman with the second title mentioned, on the old chap-book tradition. One such writer was "T.W.", who in Queen Anne's reign issued a small twelve-page book entitled A Little Book for Children, consisting chiefly of alphabets, including the rhyme beginning "A was an Archer, and shot at a Frog". Without sermons or moralising, it was meant to instruct in "a plain and pleasant Way". Mary F. Thwaite, in her Introduction to Newbery, A Little Pretty Pocket-Book, pp.12-13. Another publisher/writer was Mrs. Cooper, who in 1744 issued Tommy Thumb's Song-Book for all little Masters and Misses: to be sung to them by their Nurses till they can sing them themselves. By Nurse Lovechild....
  2. In agreement with this, Mary F. Thwaite, in her Introduction to the 1966 edition of A Little Pretty Pocket-Book by Newbery, noted that though "several books had appeared before the Pocket-Book to show that publishing for children was poised for great strides forward...it was Newbery who had sufficient energy and judgement to exploit the situation fully, and to make a steady success in the regular production of books for the young." (p.12)
  3. John Rowe Townsend, Written for Children, An Outline of English-Language Children's Literature, (Harmondsworth, 1976), p.31.
  4. Newbery, A Little Pretty Pocket-Book, title page.

behaviour, asking Polly, for instance to continue to be "a good girl, that every body may still love you".<sup>1</sup> These were followed by an alphabet section with pictures of games, a more or less appropriate rhyme, and a moral "rule of life". In the pictures the children fly kites, play marbles, dance round the May-pole, play shuttle-cock - a far cry from the work of Janeway, who would have regarded such activity as a sinful waste of time which could have been spent in reading the Bible and in prayer. The alphabet section is followed by a letter from Jack the Giant-Killer to Tommy and Polly on their duties and the importance of learning; then a series of pictures of children at prayer, and reading; illustrated poems about the seasons; and some proverbs. Much of this material is still highly moral and didactic by twentieth century standards, but the maxims are "made more romantic and palatable by the signature of Jack the Giant-Killer".<sup>2</sup>

While publishers like Newbery and Boreman successfully used devices like free gifts and very small publishing formats, as well as folk heroes and chapbook characters, to attract the child reader, their works still partly reflected the Puritan tradition out of which they had grown. This is particularly apparent in the need they felt to justify the frivolity in their books as an aid to instruction. Their success must have been an encouragement to other publishers; certainly many other books for children were published after A Little Pretty Pocket-Book, reflecting, as that work did, both the desire to entertain and the desire to instruct. One of

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1. Ibid., p.70.

2. Zena Sutherland and May Hill Arbuthnot, Children and Books, (5th edn, Glenview, Ill., 1977), p.43.



A Little Pretty  
**POCKET-BOOK,**  
 Intended for the  
 INSTRUCTION and AMUSEMENT  
 OF  
 LITTLE MASTER *TOMMY*,  
 AND  
 PRETTY MISS *POLLY*.  
 With Two Letters from  
**JACK the GIANT-KILLER;**  
 AS ALSO  
 A BALL and PINCUSHION;  
 The Use of which will infallibly make *Tommy*  
 a good Boy, and *Polly* a good Girl.

To which is added,  
**A LITTLE SONG-BOOK,**  
 BEING  
 A New Attempt to teach Children the Use of  
 the *English Alphabet*, by Way of Diversion.

L O N D O N,  
 Printed for J. NEWBERRY, at the *Bible and Sun*  
 in *St. Paul's Church-Yard*, 1767.  
 [Price Six-pence bound.]

The title page and frontispiece of John Newbery's A Little Pretty Pocket-Book.

these was the well-known Renowned History of Little Goody Two Shoes, a juvenile novel, published in 1765, which told the story of Mrs. Margery Meanwell, an extremely virtuous child who survived the tribulations of great poverty as an orphan, educated herself, and became first a governess and then the mistress of her own school.

Before the end of the eighteenth century there had emerged writers who specialised in producing literature for children, once a demand had been established. It is to the period from the 1770s onwards that the earliest school libraries designed to cater to children's leisure reading interests belong. The major writers of the period, whose work formed a considerable part of the collections in such libraries, were women, many of whom produced juvenile novels which were in keeping with the didactic and moral tradition.<sup>1</sup> They included Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs. Trimmer, Lady Eleanor Fenn, the Taylors, Miss Edgeworth, and Mrs. Sherwood. Thomas Day was one of the few notable male writers for children in the 1780s; his novel Sandford and Merton (1783) remained popular into the late nineteenth century. All of these writers were to some extent influenced by the philosophy of Rousseau, whose book Émile<sup>2</sup> had been published in 1762. Rousseau's ideas on education were based on allowing the child to develop according to his natural instincts, leaving him free to learn through his senses rather than through formal schooling. Rousseau's theories should have freed children's literature from didacticism; in fact followers seized upon the idea that a child's spontaneous interests should be used for instructional purposes, so that

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1. Muir, English Children's Books 1600 to 1900, p.179.

2. Jean Jacques Rousseau, Émile, translated by Barbara Foxley, with an Introduction by Andre Boutet de Monvel, (London, 1911).



children's books became a tool for the teaching of facts.<sup>1</sup>

A book which is in many ways typical of those produced by educators in the late eighteenth century is Evenings at Home, by Dr. Aiken and his sister Mrs. Barbauld, and published from 1792. The structure of the book is based on small groups of readings selected to provide an evening's entertainment. There is some variety in each group: for the first evening, for instance, a dialogue, two fables, and a story of a traveller, are provided. In introducing the stories the tutor/narrator contrived a situation which would lead to question-and-answers. Aiken's realisation that knowledge in a palatable form is more readily digested led him to suggest, in the introduction to the book, ways of making learning more attractive. His stories, arising out of common situations, were designed to appeal to the child, while at the same time encouraging him to look

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1. Even books which were advertised as light-hearted amusements had this purpose. An advertisement for Memoirs of Dick the Little Pony, "supposed to be written by himself, and published for the instruction and amusement of girls and boys", quoted a notice from the Critical Review:

Children should have books of amusement as well as their parents; and when such compositions are made the means, as in the present instance, of combining a history of human life with important moral observations, a most valuable point of education is obtained. We can heartily recommend this "Little Pony to our young masters and misses, as a pleasing companion after their school hours, and have no doubt that he will afford them an agreeable evening's excursion."

This was printed at the back of [Maria Edgeworth], Idleness and Industry Exemplified, in the History of James Preston and Lazy Lawrence, (Philadelphia, 1804).

For an analysis of Rousseau's influence on children's book authors, see S.W. Patterson, Rousseau's Emile and Early Children's Literature, (Metuchen, N.J., 1971). Patterson had pointed out that in their enthusiasm to use books to further the education of the child, the writers of the late eighteenth century broke two of Rousseau's rules: firstly, they wrote for an audience which Rousseau said was too young to be reading; and secondly, they were, in effect, telling the children their lessons rather than allowing the children to experience for themselves and at their own pace.

at his own surroundings, and to learn from them.<sup>1</sup> The didactic intent of works such as this remained very apparent.

In the nineteenth century the body of literature available for children increased greatly in size and variety. Public libraries were established in England and America, and from the 1850s, with school libraries, they created a demand for more books for children on a greater variety of subjects. The Sunday School Movement encouraged reading and the distribution of books, and by the end of the nineteenth century Sunday school libraries on both sides of the Atlantic included a large proportion of non-religious fiction. Didactic stories preaching good behaviour continued to be of major importance, but play came to be recognised as an acceptable part of a child's life.

From the early nineteenth century many stories were being written for boys and girls without any overtly didactic purpose. Such works included Captain Marryat's The Children of the New Forest (1847) and Masterman Ready (1848); W.H.G. Kingston's Peter the Whaler (1851); Charles Kingsley's Westward Ho! (1855); Thomas Hughes' Tom Brown's School Days (1856); and Charlotte M. Yonge's The Daisy Chain (1856). Original works of fantasy which played upon the child's imagination became popular: John Ruskin's The King of the Golden River (1851), W.M. Thackeray's The Rose and the Ring (1855), Lewis Carroll's Alice in Wonderland (1864), and George Macdonald's At the Back of the North Wind (1871), are examples. Edward Lear's Book of Nonsense (1864) recognised the child's love

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1. John Aiken and Mrs. Anna Letitia Barbauld, Evenings at Home, (6 vols, London, 1792-1796).

of humour. Folk and fairy tales and editions of myths were popular, as they had been in earlier centuries. The stories of Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm were translated into English by Edgar Taylor in 1823; the fairy tales of Hans Christian Andersen appeared in England in 1846, translated by Mary Howitt. In the United States the Greek myths were introduced to children through the work of the novelist Nathaniel Hawthorne in his children's books A Wonder-Book for Girls and Boys (c.1852) and Tanglewood Tales for Girls and Boys (1853); in England they were retold for children by Charles Kingsley in The Heroes in 1856.

Family stories increased in popularity throughout the century. Many realistic stories for girls were written in America in the 1860s and 1870s, dealing with home life; the best-known of these is Louisa M. Alcott's Little Women, published in 1867, and its sequels. Several such books were written in late nineteenth century Australia too, including Ella M. Chaffey's The Youngsters of Murray Home in 1896 and the much more famous Seven Little Australians by Ethel Turner in 1894. For boys, the adventure story was an important source of reading for pleasure;<sup>1</sup> many boys' school fiction libraries in the second half of the nineteenth century contained few books

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1. Adventure stories were usually written chiefly to entertain, but even if the author had no wish to inculcate "correct attitudes" (which was by no means always the case), he had to be careful not to appear to breach or ignore them; in practice it often meant that they were included anyway. In any event the successful author of such books usually shared those attitudes fully, and often gloried in the "healthy" influence they exercised.

which did not fall into this category.<sup>1</sup> Popular books included Swiss Family Robinson by J.H. Wyss (1814), James Fenimore Cooper's The Last of the Mohicans (1826), and works by Captain Marryat, R.M. Ballantyne, G.A. Henty, and W.H.G. Kingston. The boys' adventure story was important in the history of nineteenth century Australian children's literature: Edward Howe's book The Boy in the Bush, published in 1872, in which the characters experience drought and bushfire and flood, are lost, meet hostile natives, and join the rush to the gold diggings, among other things, is typical of the genre.<sup>2</sup>

Despite the number of works written without any overtly didactic purpose in the nineteenth century, children's books in the Puritan tradition did not cease to be circulated, or even written. Writers influenced by the teachings of Evangelical churchmen produced many children's novels and devotional manuals, some of which continued to be republished for more than one hundred years.<sup>3</sup> At the beginning of the century Mrs. Sherwood (1775-1851), who had taken up writing primarily for the opportunity it afforded for moral teaching, produced over four hundred different titles, including books, tracts, magazine serials, textbooks for schools, articles in

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1. For example, the libraries established at Townsville Grammar School in 1888; at Toowoomba Grammar School in the 1890s; at Fort Street Boys' High School in the late nineteenth century. See "The Library", Townsville Grammar School Magazine, (1897), p.4; "Library", Toowoomba Grammar School Magazine, 1,2(1904), pp.24-27; Alan George Shearman, The Development of Departmental High School Libraries in New South Wales, (Post-graduate Diploma in Librarianship thesis, University of New South Wales, 1963).
  2. Edward Howe, The Boy in the Bush, (London, 1872).
  3. For a survey of such works, see Margaret Nancy Cutt, Ministering Angels: A Study of Nineteenth-century Evangelical Writing for Children, (Brouxbourne, Herts., 1979).

periodicals, chapbooks, and Sunday school rewards.<sup>1</sup> Well known among these were Little Henry and His Bearer (1815), a story set in India, of the conversion of a boy of five or six years of age, and of his attempts (before he died at the age of eight) to convert his Indian servant, and The History of the Fairchild Family (1818), in which children are given a prayer and a hymn at the end of each story. One of these children's hymns sums up the whole tone of these books:

Lord, I am vile, conceiv'd in sin,  
And born unholy and unclean;  
Sprung from the man whose guilty fall  
Corrupts his race, and taints us all.<sup>2</sup>

Later in the nineteenth century Maria Louis Charlesworth was also interested in promoting the religious education of children through literature; her best-known book, Ministering Children, was first published in 1854.<sup>3</sup>

After the 1830s the Tractarian Movement in the Church of England had some influence on children's literature, though never to the extent of that exercised for more than two centuries by the Puritans. The Tractarians' insistence on Apostolic succession and on the individual's submission to the authority of the Church, their revival of practices which they attributed to the "primitive" Church of early Christian centuries, their emphasis on the sacraments of the Church, and on the importance of Holy Communion in the life of a Christian, are reflected in the work of several writers influenced by the Oxford

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1. Margaret Nancy Cutt, Mrs. Sherwood and her Books for Children, (London, 1974), p.ix.
  2. Mary Sherwood, The History of the Fairchild Family, (facsimile edn, New York, 1977), p.44.
  3. Maria Louisa Charlesworth, Ministering Children, (London, n.d.).

Movement. One of the most prolific of these was Charlotte M. Yonge,<sup>1</sup> author of around 150 books for children, young people, and adults. Profoundly influenced in her churchmanship by John Keble, one of the instigators of the Oxford Movement and a friend of her family,<sup>2</sup> she published many novels in which much of the plot centres on the spiritual conflicts experienced by the protagonists. Among these books was The Castle-Builders; or, The Deferred Confirmation (1854), a novel directly concerned with doctrinal matters, in which the importance of confirmation and Holy Communion, and the need for adequate preparation before participation in these rites, is stressed.

Other writers used children's fiction to expose contemporary social evils, and to agitate for reform. The Anti-Slavery Movement was publicised by Uncle Tom's Cabin, a novel written for adults but read by children, and by a variety of Abolitionist tracts with an avowed didactic purpose of showing the horrors of slavery. Charles Kingsley's The Water-Babies argued the cause of the young children who worked as chimney sweeps, a multitude of "temperance tales" showed the evils brought about by alcohol,<sup>3</sup> and books like "Hesba Stretton's" Alone in London (1869) or "Brenda's"<sup>4</sup> tale of Froggy's

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1. Robert Lee Wolff, Gains and Losses: Novels of Faith and Doubt in Victorian England, (New York, 1977), pp.117-140.

2. Ibid., p.117.

3. "Hesba Stretton" (Sarah Smith, 1832-1911) produced several temperance tales, including Brought Home (1875) and Nellie's Dark Days (1870). In the latter, the drunken father pawns his child's doll and sells her mother's funeral flowers to buy gin; when all seems utterly hopeless, he is converted by a noted Liverpool street preacher. For a discussion of temperance literature, see Norman Longmate, The Waterdrinkers, (London, 1968).

4. "Brenda" was Mrs. G. Castle Smith. See Margaret Mortimer's Preface to the 1970 facsimile edition of Sarah Smith, Little Meg's Children.

Little Brother pointed to the need for children's hospitals.<sup>1</sup>

The influence of Rousseau's work and the "new didacticism" in children's books which it inspired, carried over into the nineteenth century. The "tutor", often a parent or guardian, who could ask questions of the reader and interpret the stories for him, became a stock character in these works; a sympathetic version of this tutor is the most important character in the first children's book to be published in Australia, A Mother's Offering to her Children, by "A Lady Long Resident in New South Wales", in 1841.<sup>2</sup> In the common question-and-answer format of so many nineteenth century works which aimed to improve the knowledge of the reader, the book tells stories of early life in Australia, of the indigenous plants and animals, of shipwreck, murder, and trouble with natives, in conversations between a mother and her four children.

Harvey Darton suggests that children's books designed primarily for leisure reading, as distinct from schoolbooks, moral and didactic treatises, alphabet books, primers, and spelling books, "did not stand out by themselves as a clear but subordinate branch of English literature until the middle of the eighteenth century".<sup>3</sup> Even after

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1. Charles Dickens also wrote a story on this subject: "Between the Cradle and the Grave", All the Year Round, 1 February 1862, pp.454-456.
  2. Anonymous, A Mother's Offering to her Children, By a Lady Long Resident in New South Wales, (facsimile edn, Milton, 1979). The authorship of this work is discussed by Rosemary Wighton in her Introduction to this facsimile edition. It has also been the subject of several articles, including: Loma Rudduck, "A Woman and her Book", Royal Australian Historical Society Journal, 48,4(1972), pp.255-269; Loma Rudduck, "A Mother's Offering and the Enigma of its Authorship", Reading Time, April 1980, pp.4-5.
  3. Darton, Children's Books in England, p.1.

the appearance of such books, the numbers written and published grew only slowly for the better part of a century. However in the second half of the nineteenth century they formed a large part, second only to fiction, of English publishing. By the end of the nineteenth century there was also an enormous range and variety in the type of books being published for children's leisure reading contrasting sharply with the more limited provision in earlier centuries. Many were still didactic in intent, and often highly moral. Nevertheless a great many works, including adventure stories, family stories, works of fantasy, and humorous books, were being produced primarily for the entertainment of children. It was partly the growing number of these books which made possible the development of recreational libraries in schools.

It was, therefore, during the late eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries that school libraries were first developed to cater for children's recreational or "home reading" needs. The increase in children's fiction libraries, however, was not entirely a function of the increasing supply of suitable titles: there can be little doubt that it also reflected newer educational theories, including a view of the child as having special reading needs and interests related to the development of his imagination and creative powers which could be fulfilled only through reading imaginative literature. Probably the development of school libraries in the Sunday schools<sup>1</sup> as much as in the day and boarding schools, actually helped to create a demand for children's fiction which led to more writing and

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1. Avery, Childhood's Pattern, p.65.



publishing of such books,<sup>1</sup> as did the increasing rate of literacy in the child population. While a generally literate urban middle class had evolved as a consequence of the Industrial Revolution, Alec Ellis has claimed that "the most substantial increase in the rate of production of children's books in nineteenth-century Britain occurred in the 1880s, and co-incided with the growth in literacy which took place following the Elementary Education Act of 1870".<sup>2</sup> Since Alec Ellis has also shown that "for most of the Victorian period the working people could not easily afford to buy new children's books",<sup>3</sup> the very increase in the number and range of titles available may have been a factor in encouraging the development of fiction libraries in schools which served the needs of working class children.

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One of the earliest secondary school libraries designed for recreational reading was that at the Manchester Grammar School in the late eighteenth century. A library collection had existed in this school from around 1680; by 1740, as a result of donations from several townsman, it had grown substantially, with a "liberality of thought and width of outlook" guiding the choice of

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1. A parallel with this is the phenomenon of adult novels especially written for circulating libraries, particularly from Regency to Victorian times.
  2. Alec Ellis, "Influences on the Availability of Recreational Reading for Victorian Working Class Children", Journal of Librarianship, 8(1976), p.185.
  3. Ibid., p.186.

books.<sup>1</sup> Its benefactors argued that through the library the boys would be able "to cultivate their natural interests and powers" during their leisure time; it would provide them with opportunities for "the free and voluntary exercise" of their talents,<sup>2</sup> particularly in areas not related to the curriculum. It was claimed, too, that a recreational library would enable them to overcome the limitations of school life, and to take an interest in the wider civic life around them. Some of the works listed as belonging "to ye school library" were works of fiction, including Gulliver's Travels, Robinson Crusoe, Don Quixote, and the works of Addison.<sup>3</sup> The age of the pupils in the secondary school would, however, have precluded the inclusion of much of the new juvenile fiction which was becoming available in the late eighteenth century, and would explain the reliance on popular adult fiction in building up the collection. While a few works in the library were English translations of the classics, including Ovid's Works, Plutarch's Lives, Homer, and Aesop's Fables, and the collection included a Greek lexicon, Bennet's Hebrew Grammar and Littleton's Dictionary, the bulk of the collection consisted of works which would have been classed as recreational reading, since the grammar school curriculum in the eighteenth century consisted almost entirely of the study of classical languages with some related studies, and divinity. There were works of English literature, including Milton's Paradise Lost,

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1. Alfred E. Munford, The Manchester Grammar School 1515-1915, (London, 1919), p.522.

2. Ibid., p.522.

3. "An Account of the Books Bought With the Money on the Other Side and of all the Books Such as Belong to Ye School Library", undated, after 1733. From the Manchester School Registers, now reprinted in Munford, The Manchester Grammar School 1515-1915, pp.525-526.

Dryden's Fables, Sir Richard Steele's Plays, and works of Pope and Swift; histories like Camden's History of England, Herrera's History of America, Peter Kolben's History of the Cape of Good Hope; and books on geography, travel, politics.<sup>1</sup> That these books were by at least some of the pupils is shown by the impression De Quincey records of the conversation of his fellow pupils when he joined the school in 1800. The first evening was spent in discussion of Grotius' Evidences of Christianity; subsequent discussions on other matters showed considerable ability and knowledge on the part of these young men.<sup>2</sup>

In the late eighteenth century some attention was also being paid to the education of girls, and the selection of books for them in schools. Erasmus Darwin in his Plan for the Conduct of Female Education in Boarding Schools,<sup>3</sup> written in 1797, suggested that the main aims of such educational effort were the uniting of

health and agility of body with cheerfulness and activity of mind; in superadding graceful movements to the former, and agreeable tastes to the latter; and in the acquirement of the rudiments of such arts and sciences, as may amuse ourselves, or gain us the esteem of others; with a strict attention to the culture of morality and religion.<sup>4</sup>

Very few girls' boarding schools of the time would, in fact, have aimed

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1. Ibid.

2. De Quincey was a boarder at Manchester Grammar School from 1800 to 1802. See Autobiography from 1785 to 1803 in The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey, edited by David Masson, (Edinburgh, 1889), Vol.1, p.378. The discussion of Grotius is recorded in some detail in Confessions of an English Opium-Eater, in The Collected Works of Thomas De Quincey, edited by David Masson, (Edinburgh, 1890), Vol.3, pp.260-263.

3. (Derby, 1797).

4. Darwin, Plan for the Conduct of Female Education in Boarding Schools, p.10.

even as high as this; at best most, in Jane Austen's words, describing the school at which Harriet Smith was a parlour-boarder in Emma, but also describing a similar school at which she herself had been a pupil,<sup>1</sup> were places where "a reasonable quantity of accomplishments were sold at a reasonable price, and where girls might be sent to be out of the way and scramble themselves into a little education, without coming back prodigies".<sup>2</sup> At the other end of the scale there was the Cowan Bridge School, attended by Maria, Elizabeth, Emily, and Charlotte Bronte, described by Mrs. Gaskell in her biography of Charlotte,<sup>3</sup> and, disguised as Lowood School, by Charlotte in Jane Eyre,<sup>4</sup> where the children were ill-housed, ill-fed, ill-warmed, and punished unreasonably while acquiring an education in reading, English grammar, geography, history, arithmetic, and needlework.

Darwin recommended that girls in boarding schools should, ideally, read "such books...as join amusement with instruction, and thus lighten the fatigue of continued application",<sup>5</sup> but at this early

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1. Brief descriptions of the Abbey School at Reading, attended by Jane Austen and her sister Cassandra, which make it clear that this school was similar to that described in Emma, may be found in Joan Rees, Jane Austen, Woman and Writer, (New York, 1976), p.24; Jane Aiken Hodge, The Double Life of Jane Austen, (London, 1972), pp.21-23; Marghanita Laski, Jane Austen and her World, (London, 1969), p.24. These accounts rely heavily on a description of the school given by Mrs. Sherwood, who attended it five years after the Austens, and who subsequently achieved fame as a writer. See above pp.485-486, for a discussion of her work.
  2. Jane Austen, Emma, (Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1973), p.52. First published in 1816.
  3. Mrs. Elizabeth C. Gaskell, The Life of Charlotte Bronte, with an introduction by Clement Shorter, (Oxford, 1978). First published in 1857.
  4. Charlotte Bronte, Jane Eyre, (Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1966). First published in 1847.
  5. Darwin, Plan for the Conduct of Female Education, p.13.

date he had real difficulty in naming books which met his clearcut criteria of suitability. He suggested titles like Thomas Day's Sandford and Merton (1783), Maria Edgeworth's Parent's Assistant (1795), and John Aiken and Mrs. Barbauld's Evenings at Home (1792), all highly moral and didactic works; but ones which were nevertheless written, in the late eighteenth century, to amuse children as well as to convey facts, and to develop a Christian character in the Puritan tradition. Darwin also suggested that novels or romances, serious and humorous, could form part of the reading of girls, though he felt that "the amorous of these" should "be entirely interdicted".<sup>1</sup> Titles he recommended were The Children's Friend,<sup>2</sup> Tales of the Castle,<sup>3</sup> Robinson Crusoe, Edward by "the author of Zeluca".<sup>4</sup> And to these could be added "other modern novels, the productions of ingenious ladies, which are I believe less objectionable than many others; as the Evelina, Cecilia, and Camilla of Miss Burney; the Emmeline and Ethelinda of Charlotte Smith; Inchbald's simple story; Mrs. Brook's Emely Montague; and the female Quixote;" all of which Darwin listed "from the character given...of them by a very

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1. Ibid., p.33.

2. The Children's Friend (1786). Translated by the Rev. Mark Anthony Meilan in 24 volumes. (The first English translation of Berquin's L'Ami des Enfants (1782-1783).)

3. I have been unable to identify the work referred to here by Darwin.

4. The writer referred to here is Dr. John Moore (1729-1802). His most popular novel, Zeluco, appeared in 1786, Edward in 1796, and Mordaunt in 1800. A Scots physician, he travelled widely in Europe, wrote several travel books, and was the father of Sir John Moore, who led the retreat to Coruña in 1808-9. Zeluco is an adventure story describing the misdeeds of a Sicilian scoundrel of good family, actuated in all his doings by cruelty, selfishness, or revenge.

ingenious lady", lest anyone should suspect that he had been spending his time reading ladies' fiction.<sup>1</sup> These were all novels about the lives of young and very well-behaved heroines who could be emulated by the young ladies in their daily lives.<sup>2</sup> Darwin also recommended the supplying of some humorous novels, because they conveyed instruction as well as enjoyment, as far as they imitated real life; his suggested titles included "Le Sage's famous novel of Gil Blas" and Fielding's Tom Jones, with the qualification that neither was suitable for very young girls.<sup>3</sup>

Not all of these books received Darwin's unqualified recommendation, despite his listing of them; in this he was in accord with the educational thinkers influenced by Rousseau who viewed most purely entertaining fiction with a certain suspicion. He claimed that there were

...few books which delineate manners, whether in prose or poetry, however well chosen, which have not some objectionable passages in them. In reading the fables of Esop, Mr. Rousseau well observes, that the effect on the mind may frequently be totally different from that designed by the author; as in the fable where the fox flatters the crow, and gains the piece of cheese, the moral was designed to show the folly of attending to flatterers; but may equally be supposed to applaud the cunning of the fox or flatterer, who is rewarded.<sup>4</sup>

In the same way he also criticised Defoe's Robinson Crusoe, a book which had been recommended, though with reservations, by Rousseau.<sup>5</sup>

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1. Darwin, Plan for the Conduct of Female Education, p.33.
  2. The golden-haired heroine of Miss Burney's Evelina was envied as a model of virtue by Ethel Turner's early twentieth century Australian heroine Miss Bobbie, more than one hundred years after the book Evelina was written. Ethel Turner, Miss Bobbie, (Sydney, n.d.).
  3. Darwin, Plan for the Conduct of Female Education, p.34.
  4. Ibid., p.35.
  5. Rousseau, Émile, pp.147f.

The book, Darwin felt, could inculcate "a childish superstition concerning the intimations of future events, somewhat like the second sight of the highlands of Scotland is frequently inculcated"; he also objected to "the use of rum or brandy...as an infallible cure in all maladies" in the story.<sup>1</sup> These "faults", however, had been "corrected" in The New Robinson Crusoe, the purchase of which Darwin recommended. This was actually a German rewriting of the Defoe story by Johann Heinrich Campe, Robinson der jüngere (1779), in which all "objectionable" material was removed. It was subsequently translated into French from the German, and then into English by J. Stockdale in 1788.<sup>2</sup>

While Darwin genuinely intended that the books he recommended for the boarding school should amuse the girls there, nevertheless, in keeping with the moral and didactic tradition so evident in late eighteenth century literature for children, he was also concerned that they should learn from those books - or, at the very least, not be led astray by them. If his suggestions had been followed in stocking a girls' school library, the collection would have been very different from that for boys at Manchester Grammar School, where the intention was also to supply leisure reading for the pupils. In the girls' school library the words would have been generally less serious, with much more fiction, including novels, romances, and other works sometimes regarded as frivolous, with instruction and moral development being seen as related to enjoyment. In the boys' library at Manchester, however, the newer books reflecting the

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1. Darwin, Plan for the Conduct of Female Education, p.36.

2. Johann Heinrich Campe, Robinson der jüngere, (Hamburg, 1781). Johann Heinrich Campe, The New Robinson Crusoe, translated by J. Stockdale, (London, 1788).

didactic and moral tradition were less in evidence, and factual books were seen as providing recreational reading, along with some novels.

In British secondary schools in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, general libraries developed with the object of encouraging leisure reading, like that at Manchester Grammar School, were few. Most libraries of this kind were attached to the houses in which pupils of the boarding schools lived, under the supervision of a master. This was particularly true of the independent "public" schools of England. Responses by these schools to questions asked by the Public Schools (Clarendon) Commission in 1864 showed that Westminster, Charterhouse, Rugby, Eton, and Harrow had libraries of this kind, open to the boys who lived in the house, usually upon payment of a subscription.<sup>1</sup> Esdaile Arundell, writing almost fifty years later, reported that many of the larger public schools still had, in each house, collections of fiction and other books designed solely to amuse, generally unrelated to the curriculum of the

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1. England. Department of State. Public Schools Commission, *Public Schools and Colleges*, Vol.2, p.203; Vol.2, p.224; Vol.2, p.309; Vol.3, p.249, q.7385; Vol.3, p.264, q.8088; Vol.3, p.436, q.1140; Vol.3, p.474, q.2421; Vol.4, p.183, q.598; Vol.4, p.266, q.859.



school.<sup>1</sup> These house libraries varied in size: at Westminster in 1864 the library in the senior assistant's house contained over six hundred volumes, while another library in a newer house had rather less than that number;<sup>2</sup> at Eton, the library in Mr. Evans' house had "about 1400 volumes".<sup>3</sup>

In some schools these libraries were built up largely through the donations of the boys themselves;<sup>4</sup> in others the boys had some say in the selection of books purchased with the money raised through their subscriptions.<sup>5</sup> Mr. H.M. Butler, Head Master of Harrow, described the library in his house as consisting largely of novels, though not "the mere ordinary novels that come out, but any works that seem...works of real genius, and at the same time not

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1. Esdaile Arundell, "Public Schools and their Libraries", The Library, new series, 7(1906), p.367. W. Kennedy also wrote in 1906 that "sometimes each house, or dormitory, has its own library of novels and other popular books, while the school library was reserved for works of a more solid character". W. Kennedy, "Libraries", in Anonymous (ed.), The Public Schools from Within: A Collection of Essays on Public School Education, Written Chiefly by Schoolmasters, (London, 1906), pp.113-114. Kennedy on pp.116-117 gave a list of the books which had recently been borrowed from two of the ten house libraries in his school, which illustrates the leisure reading character of these libraries; this list is reproduced as Appendix H.

Some educational writers, however, suggested that libraries in the houses in which the school boarders lived should also "cater to the more serious interests" of the pupils, rather than leaving that provision solely to the general school library. Cyril Norwood and A.H. Hope, "School Libraries", in their The Higher Education of Boys in England, (London, 1909), p.482.

2. England. Department of State. Public Schools Commission, Public Schools and Colleges, Vol.2, p.203.
3. Ibid., Vol.3, p.264, q.8088.
4. Ibid., Vol.3, p.264, q.8088, and Vol.4, p.266, q.9859.
5. Ibid., Vol.4, p.183, q.598.

objectionable".<sup>1</sup> However he delegated to the boys themselves the responsibility for choosing books, only checking the final purchase list before it was sent out. This library contained all the Waverley novels of Scott, several of Fenimore Cooper's novels, George Eliot's Adam Bede, Thackeray's Vanity Fair, and many novels of Dickens.<sup>2</sup> The questions of the Commissioners regarding library provision for leisure reading in the eight public schools indicate their concern that the pupils should have access to a collection of appropriate fiction: several ex-pupils were asked about the novels read by the boys, particularly at Eton<sup>3</sup> and Rugby,<sup>4</sup> and the Commissioners suggested to the Headmaster of St. Paul's School that a French Library containing what he had described as "amusing" works by Chateaubriand and others in French, might not amuse the boys or provide them with suitable leisure reading material.<sup>5</sup>

While these house libraries usually supplied recreational reading materials to boarders in the public and grammar schools in the nineteenth century, with the general school library concentrating on the provision of curriculum-related or scholarly books, general school libraries were established in some secondary schools to serve the leisure reading needs of the pupils. At Cliff-House School near Dover, which taught "Greek and Latin classics on the Eton System", together with mathematical and scientific subjects, and where "young gentlemen" were "boarded and instructed in every branch of useful and

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1. Ibid., Vol.4, p.183, q.601.

2. Ibid., Vol.4, p.183, q.602.

3. Ibid., Vol.3, p.249, q.7387-7402, and Vol.3, p.258, q.7864.

4. Ibid., Vol.4, p.294, q.1914-1926.

5. Ibid., Vol.4, p.85, q.373-383.

other polite literature", a school library had been formed, consisting of "works of amusement and instruction, which are lent out to engage the mind, when either the inclination or the weather may induce the Student to forego his customary recreation".<sup>1</sup> At King William's College, on the Isle of Man, boys were encouraged to read novels through a library of more than 3000 volumes, three hours a week in winter term being set aside for reading from the library.<sup>2</sup> A library had been established at Roystone Grammar School in 1858 "to cultivate a taste for reading amongst the pupils in their leisure hours";<sup>3</sup> several other schools, including Bedales School, Petersfield, Hampshire,<sup>4</sup> and Aberdeen Grammar School<sup>5</sup> had substantial fiction library collections by the 1890s.

In many Australian secondary schools, too, library collections for recreational reading were built up in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. This was true of both government and independent schools, for both boys and girls, throughout the country, as the following examples will show. The library at Townsville Grammar School, begun in 1888, consisted by 1897 of 250 books on shelves in the dining hall, with the principal authors represented being the adventure story writers Henty, Marryat, Haggard, Ainsworth, and Ballantyne;<sup>6</sup> Rolf Boldrewood's Robbery Under Arms and Marcus

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1. Cliff-House School, Prospectus, (Dover, n.d.).
  2. King William's College, Isle of Man, Prospectus, (n.p., June 1889), p.2.
  3. University of Leeds Museum of the History of Education, Advertisement AD131 for Roystone Grammar School, near Barnsley, in their collection of school advertisements.
  4. Bedales School, The Bedales Record, No.1(1894), p.12.
  5. Aberdeen Grammar School, The Grammarian, No.1, 12 April 1899, p.5.
  6. "The Library", Townsville Grammar School Magazine, (1897), p.4.

Clarke's For the Term of His Natural Life were especially popular. Other books in the collection included Scott's Ivanhoe, Kingsley's Westward Ho!, and Thomas Hughes' Tom Brown's Schooldays.<sup>1</sup> At Toowoomba Grammar School the library, established in the late 1890s, and having 335 volumes when a complete list was published in the school magazine of May 1904, was also chiefly a fiction library, containing only twenty-five non-fiction volumes in all.<sup>2</sup> This library, too, had many nineteenth century adventure stories, and books by Dickens, Scott, Charlotte Bronte, and Kipling. The Southport School magazine's lists of additions to the school library throughout 1908 show that eighty-eight fiction titles and only four non-fiction titles were added to the collection in the whole year, indicating a library overwhelmingly of fiction books, since acquisitions in other years at the beginning of the century seem to have followed the same pattern.<sup>3</sup> Other secondary schools with predominantly fiction library collections in the early twentieth century were the Convent High School, The Range, Rockhampton,<sup>4</sup> where the reading of fiction was encouraged during special lessons spent in the library;<sup>5</sup> the Glennie Memorial School, Toowoomba, where the library of 130 books in 1910 included works of Ethel Turner, Dickens, Scott, Lytton, Reade, and others;<sup>6</sup> the Methodist Ladies' College, Melbourne, where

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1. Ibid., p.5.

2. "Library", Toowoomba Grammar School Magazine, 1,2(1904), pp.24-27.

3. The Southport School, The Southportonian, May 1908, p.7, and November 1908, p.17.

4. Convent High School, The Range, Rockhampton, Convent High School Annual, (1907), p.39; ibid., (1911), p.7.

5. Ibid., (1911), p.64.

6. The Glennie Memorial School, Toowoomba, The Glennie Gazette, 1,2(1910), p.20; ibid., 1,3(1910), p.18.

the library, begun in 1914, had a collection consisting of "all of Dr. Fitchett's books<sup>1</sup> and very many adventure stories - mostly by Ballantyne";<sup>2</sup> and Brisbane State High School, where "one of the chief functions" of the school's library was "providing members with a means of recreation".<sup>3</sup>

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While secondary school libraries were seen as having a role in the provision of recreational reading materials in some schools from as early as the 1790s, it was in the elementary school libraries of the nineteenth century that late eighteenth and early nineteenth century developments in the writing and publishing of leisure reading materials for children were most strikingly apparent. Given the close parallel in school library development in Great Britain, the United States of America, and Australia that has been demonstrated in earlier chapters, what can be shown of primary school libraries in Australia, for which a great deal of information is available, is probably very similar to what happened in other countries.

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1. The Rev. William Henry Fitchett, B.A., LL.D., (1842-1948), author, educationist, and Methodist minister, founded the Methodist Ladies' College at Hawthorn, where he became first Principal, holding that position for forty-two years. The author of numerous newspaper articles and lectures, he also wrote popular histories, chiefly of England at war, including Deeds that Won the Empire (1896 on), Fights for the Flag (1898), How England Saved Europe (1899), Wellington's Men (1900), Wesley and his Century (1906). The Methodist Ladies' College had a collection of his works as an adjunct to the fiction library. For a brief biography see Percival Serle, Dictionary of Australian Biography, (Sydney, 1949), Vol.1, pp.297-298.
  2. J. Cook, "Methodist Ladies College Library 1882-1967", Australian School Librarian, (June 1967), p.17.
  3. Brisbane State High School, Magazine, 1,5(1923), pp.12-13.

The primary school libraries of the eastern Australian states in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, described in Chapter Five, were almost exclusively fiction libraries, heavily stocked with the works for children which had become available in the nineteenth century: adventure stories, family stories, fantasy, fairy tales, with a few works of didactic or religious fiction. Much of the purchased stock consisted of titles available in cheap "school reader" formats put out by many Australian and British publishers from the 1860s onwards, with conventional editions of popular stories, and Sunday school "reward" editions generally of older titles,<sup>1</sup> being added to the collections by donation.

While these libraries were designed to supply leisure or "home reading" materials, their aims were closely related to the general aims of education of the time: it was an era when the inculcation of "the reading habit"<sup>2</sup> was seen partly as an educational objective in itself, and partly as a character-building defence against any tendency to moral decay in the community. In their 1909 reports many New South Wales School Inspectors, who were asked to supply information on the libraries in the schools they visited, made comments which indicated their reasons for further encouraging the establishment and development of school libraries. Mr. Acting-Inspector Noble, of the Bathurst District, among others, suggested that much

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1. But not exclusively: many adventure stories, including the works of Henty and Ballantyne, appeared in such editions.
  2. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1910, p.168 (Mr. Inspector McCoy, Lismore District); 31 May 1910, p.166 (Mr. Inspector Fraser, Yass District); 30 April 1913, p.87 (Mr. Inspector Campling, Broken Hill District); 31 May 1909, p.125 (Mr. Inspector H.S. Smith, Tamworth District).

could be done by the school library "to cultivate a taste for reading" among the pupils;<sup>1</sup> Mr. Inspector Walker, of the Wagga Wagga District, further commented that if this "taste for reading" was to be formed, the pupils needed "to be taken in hand at an early age, and suitable, attractive stories placed within their reach".<sup>2</sup> However the teachers' obligations did not end there; those who believed that when a school library had been established their work had terminated, and who gave "little or no encouragement to foster and develop a taste for reading" were criticised.<sup>3</sup> As a result of this attitude, said the Inspectors, there were schools in which only those who had "a general bent for literature" experienced "the benefits of the establishment of a school library" and non-readers were not encouraged.<sup>4</sup>

Many of the Inspectors were also concerned, though some only in a vague and general way, that the quality of the reading materials supplied by the libraries should be high. The phrase "healthy literature" to describe what they saw as desirable, recurs frequently in the reports, without any qualification, as in a comment by Mr. Senior-Inspector Nolan, of the Goulburn District, that the school library could be "a powerful factor in stimulating an abiding love

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1. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1909, p.128. Also Mr. Inspector Dennis, Dubbo District, ibid., 31 May 1910, p.165; Mr. Inspector Cornish, Bowral District, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.123; Mr. Inspector Reay, Mudgee District, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.123.
  2. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.122.
  3. Mr. Inspector Connelly, Young District, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.123.
  4. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.123.

and taste for healthy literature".<sup>1</sup> Some Inspectors were a little more specific: Mr. Inspector S.H. Smith wanted books that would give pupils "a sane and wholesome outlook on life", by which he appeared to mean adventure stories which encouraged children to emulate sterling British heroes.<sup>2</sup> He wanted to eliminate from school libraries what he called "trashy literature - amiable twaddle and well-intentioned nonsense" - though he was unfortunately not specific about the titles he was criticising.<sup>3</sup> Mr. Inspector Fraser also commented that "a few teachers fill their school libraries with goody-goody, wishy-washy stories of impossible morals, undesirable perfections, and extremely attenuated interest."<sup>4</sup> What was wanted, he said, were "character-building books", not "thin-blooded, flabby things of the invertebrate order", but "books with

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1. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.120. Also a remark by Mr. Inspector Wright, Wellington District, that "...a taste for reading healthy literature" was developed by the libraries, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.123; and later, Mr. Inspector S.H. Smith, North-Western Sydney District, who saw school libraries as the "best means of encouraging a love of literature of the right kind", ibid., 31 May 1911, p.151. Similar comments were made by Mr. Inspector Cotterill, Kempsey District, ibid., 30 April 1913, p.86, and Mr. Senior-Inspector Hunt, Dungog District, ibid., 31 May 1910, p.161. The Queensland Department of Public Instruction expressed the same idea in a different way: "It is very desirable to create in our pupils a taste and desire for good literature". Queensland State Archives, Department of Public Instruction, Library Various, No.1, Memorandum, "School Libraries", 4227, 10 March 1909.
  2. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1910, p.167.
  3. Ibid., 31 May 1910, p.167.
  4. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.125.



the backbone of healthy human interest, real flesh and blood creations".<sup>1</sup>

Some Inspectors saw the encouragement of the reading of fiction as having wider implications in the development of the pupil than just the promotion of a love for healthy books. Fraser felt that the reading of such works as fairy tales, fables, fantasy, and other stories "arouses the emotions, stimulates the imagination, kindles thought, inspires action...",<sup>2</sup> which he and others saw as desirable, particularly in country children whose horizons were very limited. Other Inspectors saw the reading of fiction as "a valuable aid in the acquisition and development of ideas".<sup>3</sup> Mr. Inspector Cotterill claimed that reading opened up to pupils "new worlds", and that "their mental horizon [was] broadened by their incursion into the fields of adventure and well-told history", while "their moral sense

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1. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.125. He was not alone in this. In a Victorian Education Department publication of only three years later, E. Morris Miller said:

...the thing that vitally matters [as an object of education] is efficiency to confront the hard facts of life with courage and foresight, and effectively resolve them. Though visions may come, alluring the soul to soar - "In ever-highering eagle-circles up to the great sun of glory" - yet the constant performance of duty in one's "allotted field" or station in life; will fit these as instruments towards a more intelligent and fruitful aspiration. Action withal requires mental endowment and the careful cultivation of one's reading provides no small portion of the equipment and extends the range of power.

E. Morris Miller, School Libraries and Reading, (Melbourne, 1912), p.1. In addition to making public statements and writing on libraries and education, Miller was active in professional associations as a librarian at the Public Library of Victoria and subsequently as a lecturer in philosophy and economics at the University of Tasmania; he also achieved some eminence in Australian bibliography. See John Thompson, "E. Morris Miller and the Writing of Libraries and Education", Australian Library Journal, 29,3(1980), pp.138-144.

2. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1909, p.125.  
 3. Mr. Inspector Cotterill, Kempsey District, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.128.

is developed by the recorded deeds of their favourite heroes".<sup>1</sup>

Others hoped that these school libraries would "elevate the literary tastes of the common people".<sup>2</sup> Fraser suggested that the "humanitarian spirit" embodied in these collections, would "bring genuine culture to the less-favoured classes of the community". He saw as progress the fact that "the masses of the people, who now read with relish many of the popular but poor novels, could not read at all a generation or two ago", and felt that "good literary taste" was "a thing of slow growth in the masses of any nation", whose "long hours of hard labour leave them little time for literary leisure". There was no hope, he said, for "the nation that does not read", but "step by step, the desired advance" would come. The school library was "only one factor" in "the essential work of moulding and making national character", but it was "a very important factor", and so school fiction libraries merited encouragement.<sup>3</sup>

The school libraries which were established with the support of these Inspectors were generally collections of fiction books housed in cupboards in the school. While there were a few collections of up to eight hundred or so books in the larger schools,<sup>4</sup> most appear to have had around two or three hundred books,<sup>5</sup> and some were smaller: Balmoral State School in Queensland, for instance, in 1910 had sixty-five books for the fourteen boys and four girls who attended the

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1. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.128.

2. Mr. Inspector Fraser, Yass District, ibid., 31 May 1909, p.125.

3. Ibid., 31 May 1909, p.125.

4. Report of Mr. Inspector Cotterill, Kempsey District, ibid., 30 April 1913, p.86.

5. Ibid., 31 May 1911, p.153.

school.<sup>1</sup> Most of the comments about these collections in the Inspectors' reports are references to deficiencies in book provision, particularly relating to the lack of suitable reading matter often provided for the youngest children<sup>2</sup> and for girls.<sup>3</sup> The few sympathetic comments are about the books which had proved most popular with the children; these included works dealing with travel, adventure, and famous lives,<sup>4</sup> and particularly the novels of Henty and Ballantyne.<sup>5</sup> It was noted, too, that very few children read poetry, and that "even by the more advanced scholars", Pilgrim's Progress, Robinson Crusoe, Don Quixote, Gulliver's Travels, and other "old-time favourites" were less read,<sup>6</sup> as on the whole were the works of Dickens and Scott by Australian pupils, despite their fairly

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1. Balmoral State School, "Books in Library 1911", Queensland State Archives, Education Department, Library Various A-C (Closed Schools), 20 March 1911.
  2. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1910, p.164, Report of Mr. Inspector Dennis, Dubbo District.
  3. The provision of fiction for girls had created problems for school librarians in America, too, in the early twentieth century. Lutie E. Stearns, of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, addressed a summer school at Madison, Wisconsin, in 1902 on "The Book for the Girl", beginning with the words "No greater problem confronts the librarian than the problem of the book for the girl...". Lutie E. Stearns, "The Book for the Girl", Public Libraries, 7(1902), p.408. She subsequently attempted to address this problem by publishing a bibliography of books for girls and young women. Lutie E. Stearns, "The Problem of the Girl", Library Journal, 31(1906), pp.103-106. Australian educators also considered the provision of books for girls in the same period, as for example, Teresa Magner, "The Training of the Australian Girl", Third Australian Catholic Congress Proceedings, (Sydney, 1909), pp.202-208, reprinted by Beverley Kingston, The World Moves Slowly: A Documentary History of Australian Women, (Sydney, 1977), pp.179-180.
  4. New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 31 May 1910, p.164, Report of Mr. Inspector Byrne, Braidwood District.
  5. Ibid., 31 May 1910, p.164, Report of Mr. Inspector Dennis, Dubbo District.
  6. Ibid., 31 May 1910, p.164, Report of Mr. Inspector Dennis, Dubbo District.

lavish representation in most libraries.<sup>1</sup>

In 1912 a survey was carried out by the New South Wales Department of Public Instruction in which teachers in the larger schools in several districts of the state were asked to indicate the type of books which boys and girls in their class liked best, and the titles of those works which had been "most eagerly sought after by the children" from the library. The replies received were incorporated into a list showing "the books most generally recommended by the teachers for inclusion in the school libraries", published in the Public Instruction Gazette.<sup>2</sup> This gives a list of approximately twenty titles for boys and for girls for each class from Infants through to Sixth Class. It in some cases includes series titles without referring to specific books, which makes for difficulty in comparison with the actual contents of libraries, since catalogues in schools generally listed books by specific title rather than series; examples are the listing of "A.L. Series" for Infants, and "Told to the Children" Series for Second Class, both series including rewritten popular children's fiction stories.<sup>3</sup> Other problems are created by the failure to record authors; this is particularly inconvenient when it is obvious from the list that a particular title is referred to in a simplified version - as in the listing of Robinson Crusoe and Swiss Family Robinson for Infants.<sup>4</sup> This list has been included in Appendix C and, since it contains titles which

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1. Ibid., 31 May 1910, p.164, Report of Mr. Inspector Byrne, Braidwood District.
  2. "Books for School Libraries", ibid., 15 October 1913, pp.307-308. See Appendix C.
  3. Ibid., 15 October 1913, p.307.
  4. Ibid.

both children and teachers liked, it has been used as a basis for a comparison and evaluation of actual primary school library collections.<sup>1</sup>

The listing itself is almost entirely of fiction; such non-fiction as appears consists of rewritten biographies or biographical stories of men like Captain James Cook, Nelson, Raleigh, Livingstone, and Drake, and the "Peeps at Many Lands" series of stories about other countries. For Infants and First Class there were fairy tales, Aesop's Fables, and the old chapbook title, Jack the Giant-Killer, rewritten. Rewritten classics like Uncle Tom's Cabin, and children's picture books like Ethel Pedley's Dot and the Kangaroo were added in Second Class. By Third Class a clear difference between the listings for boys and for girls was apparent: for boys there were adventure stories like R.M. Ballantyne's Coral Island and Martin Rattler, and W.H.G. Kingston's Peter the Whaler; while stories of family life like Susan Coolidge's What Katy Did, L.M. Alcott's Little Women, and Ethel Turner's Seven Little Australians, were listed for girls. By Sixth and Seventh Class, the lists included such classics of English fiction as Dickens' Old Curiosity Shop, Tale Of Two Cities, and David Copperfield, and Scott's Ivanhoe and Kenilworth, along with the adventure stories and the family stories. What is striking is that there are no highly moral,

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1. The format of the list has, however, been changed to suit the format of the composite Table. Books are not listed by school class, as they were in the issue of the Public Instruction Gazette, and double listings (a book listed as suitable under two or more class headings) have been reduced to one mention of the title, since all the books, regardless of the class for which they were listed as suitable, would have been placed in the one school library. The listing by class was simply to ensure that the interests and reading ability of all age groups in the school were considered in book selection.

didactic, or religious works on the list at all; fifty years earlier it would have been almost impossible to stock a recreational reading library for children without including at least some. While these school libraries were seen as aids in promoting "the reading habit", they were clearly also designed for enjoyment.<sup>1</sup>

Three early twentieth century Queensland primary school library collections, the accession lists for which have survived in the Queensland State Archives, are compared with this list of recommended titles in Appendix C. Each of these school libraries had fewer than one hundred books at the time their first accession list was made; each of the libraries, however, served only a small school. Allawah Provisional School, whose library owned forty books, had four boys and six girls enrolled in 1913, though in age they ranged from seven to thirteen.<sup>2</sup> Balmoral State School, which had fourteen boys and four girls in 1910, with the oldest pupil a girl aged ten, had a school library of sixty-four books.<sup>3</sup> Kandanga Township State School was, however, somewhat larger: fifty-six children were enrolled in 1918 when the accession list showing seventy-five books in the library was compiled. Since even as late as 1924 sixty-two percent

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1. The final column in the Table in Appendix C gives a list of sixty books "in great and steady demand" in London elementary school libraries. Of those books, twenty-seven also appear on the New South Wales Department's list; and of the twenty-three others, most appeared in at least one of the Queensland primary school library accession lists to be reviewed below. Great Britain. Board of Education, Memorandum submitted by Mr. A.E. Palfrey on the scheme for the circulation of books in London elementary schools, in The Teaching of English in England... report of the...Board of Education, (Appendix III, London, 1921), p.375.
  2. Queensland State Archives, Department of Public Instruction, Library Various, Memorandum, "Allawah Provisional School, Particulars of Pupils".
  3. Ibid., Library Various, A-C (Closed Schools), "Balmoral State School, Books in Library", 20 March 1911.

of Queensland state schools were small one-teacher schools,<sup>1</sup> these collections are probably reasonably representative of school libraries generally in the state. The accession lists were compiled for the Department of Public Instruction preparatory to building up existing collections; they are, then, for school libraries which were about to be improved. This helps to explain why these three collections fall below the two hundred or so books noted earlier as being the general size of primary school library collections at this time.

It could also help to explain the fact that each of these three library collections contained relatively few of the recommended books from the New South Wales list. At Allawah Provisional School the library possessed only five titles which appeared on that list, these representing 12.5% of the collection; at Balmoral State School seventeen books, or 26.5% of the collection, were recommended works; at Kandanga Township State School fifteen books or 22.6% of the collection. Once the libraries began to expand in response to the Department of Public Instruction's urging, purchasing, as instructed, only from the Queensland Department's list, their collections would have improved in quality and shown a greater similarity. The initial collections, however, as represented by these accession lists, were mixed. At Allawah Provisional School most of the library books, with eight exceptions, were readers from publishers' series, including Blackie's "Empire Series" in which each book dealt at an elementary level with one country of the British Empire, Bell's "Nature Books Series", and Collins' "Biographical Series". The collection at

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1. G.S. Browne (ed.), Education in Australia, (London, 1927), pp. 102, 104, 266.

Balmoral State School included adult historical works like Prescott's Conquest of Peru, apparently donations, along with adventure stories of varying quality, family stories, and fairy tales. At Kandanga Township the collection also included several readers from publishers' series, adventure stories, fantasy, and books for very young children, including fairy tales, Little Girls and Boys, and My Baby's Book. The miscellaneous nature of the three collections suggests that they had all been built up from readers supplied through the Department of Public Instruction, and donations from the children themselves, with occasional adult works, probably acquired as a result of a parent's spring-cleaning.

The first Departmental list of books from which Queensland teachers could choose works to build up their school library collections was published in the Queensland Education Office Gazette in 1910.<sup>1</sup> All the 161 books recommended were from publishers' school series; many were school readers. The selection did, however, include eighteen titles in the "Blackie's Coloured Picture Story Readers" for young children and thirty-seven titles in the "Blackie's Story Book Readers" series. Of the remaining titles, seventy-nine represented works of fiction: the Australian novels for young people by Ethel Turner, Seven Little Australians and The Little Larrikin, family stories like L.M. Alcott's Little Women, adventure stories like W.H.G. Kingston's Peter the Whaler and R.M. Ballantyne's Dog Crusoe, classics of English fiction like Dickens' Pickwick Papers and Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare. The selection also included the "Blackie's English Texts" series, with titles like The Spanish Armada,

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1. "School Libraries", The Education Office Gazette, March 1910, pp.63-66, with a supplement, "School Libraries", in the May 1910 issue, pp.157-158.



French in Canada, and Napier's Battles; and the "Jack's Story Series" with biographical stories of "children's heroes", including Nelson, Roberts, Lincoln, and Cook.

In all, with its emphasis on fiction, but with some historical and biographical stories, this list strongly resembled that prepared in New South Wales in 1913 by the Department of Public Instruction.<sup>1</sup> The result of this similarity in lists of recommended books was that primary school libraries throughout eastern Australia from the second decade of the twentieth century came to have a certain uniformity in their book collections. Moreover, as we have seen, they usually served similar purposes: they aimed to introduce children to good leisure reading in the hope of encouraging "the reading habit".

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Many school libraries established in Great Britain, the United States, and Australia in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to cater to the recreational reading needs of pupils, underwent a change in the 1920s and 1930s, gradually becoming more closely related to the school curriculum, and to the instructional programme of the school. Examples of such libraries may be found in both

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1. The list of books recommended for Fourth Class boys in New South Wales schools, for instance, contained twenty-five titles, of which nineteen also appeared on the Queensland list; the list for Fifth Class boys contained twenty-six titles, of which twenty-two also appeared on the Queensland list. See "Books for School Libraries", New South Wales, Public Instruction Gazette, 15 October 1913, pp.307-308; "School Libraries", The Education Office Gazette, March 1910, pp.63-66.

primary and secondary schools; it was in the secondary schools, however, that the trend was first manifest.

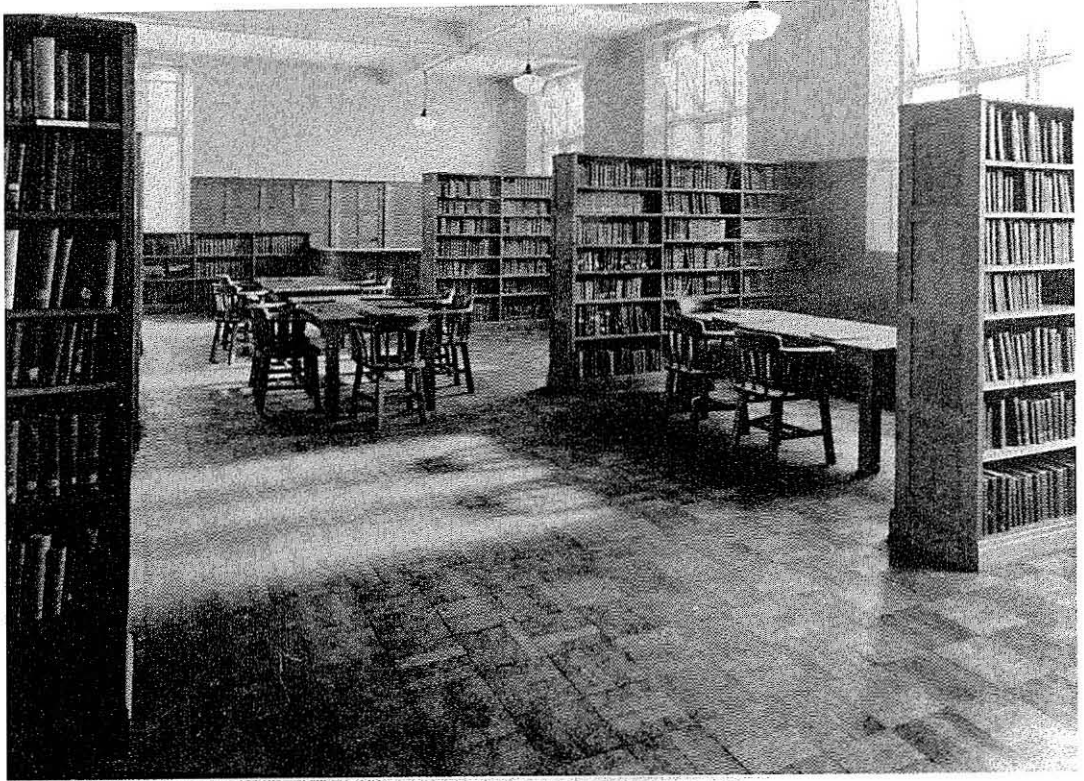
Early in the twentieth century the General Library<sup>1</sup> at the Bristol Grammar School in the west of England was one of the more carefully organised of the secondary school libraries which aimed to provide books for leisure reading. Initially a closed access library, housed in a classroom, it moved in 1928 to its own large room where open access could be organised.<sup>2</sup> A catalogue of this library was first printed in 1918, when the collection numbered some two thousand books.<sup>3</sup> The 1925 printed catalogue,<sup>4</sup> arranged alphabetically by author, gave only the title of each work to guide boys in their choice of reading, with an accession number which was used to order the book required by the user. The library contained 2887 volumes, the vast majority works of fiction; as in similar libraries in England and Australia, very many of the titles were adventure stories and stirring tales of war and the Empire. The collection included sixty adventure books by Henty, for instance, thirty-three by Herbert Strang, twenty by W.H.G. Kingston, and thirty by F.S. Brereton, as well as twenty-seven novels by Sir Walter Scott and thirty works by Rudyard Kipling. While there were separate school libraries in this school for the

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1. So called to distinguish it from the Caldicott Library of classical books for reference, which had been established in 1860 by the headmaster with £5, and which maintained its own identity until the late 1920s. C.P. Hill, The History of Bristol Grammar School, (London, 1951), p.85. An earlier library, built up from the seventeenth century, had disappeared without a trace by the nineteenth century. Ibid., p.46.
  2. The Bristol Grammar School Chronicle, 3,3(1928), p.137.
  3. Hill, The History of Bristol Grammar School, p.197.
  4. Bristol Grammar School, General Library, Catalogue, (Bristol, 1925), p.2.

classics, for science, for French, and for the use of the Middle School, this general library did include some non-specialist general interest non-fiction, much of it on topical subjects like current issues in science and new discoveries in science and technology. Examples of such titles include J.A. Fleming's Wireless Telegraphy, H. Golding's Wonder Book of Railways, S. Graham's Russia in 1916, A.E. Dudeney's Amusements in Mathematics, T. Corbin's Romance of Submarine Engineering, and C. Flammarian's Astronomy for Amateurs.<sup>1</sup>

In December 1929 this general library was incorporated into a newly opened open-access library, housed in its own "large and well-lighted room", fifty feet by thirty feet, which was equipped "with all of the necessary library fittings"; at the time of its opening, this library, shown in the photograph on the following page, was one of the outstanding school libraries of Great Britain.<sup>2</sup> The new room provided shelf space for 7500 books; separate libraries still housed the classical collection and the science and geography books. Despite its size, and the range and variety of its holdings - in which some previously separate collections had been incorporated - this library was used in the late 1920s chiefly as a source of fiction. The Tables which follow show student borrowing by form in the first term of 1928 and for the final term of 1929. In the 1928 term fiction books comprised 82.3% of all books borrowed; in the 1929 term, after the re-organisation of the library collections and the opening of the new and extended general library, fiction books still accounted for 68.07% of borrowings, despite the greater range of subject choice provided.

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1. Bristol Grammar School, General Library, Catalogue, passim.
  2. Hill, The History of Bristol Grammar School, p.197.



Bristol Grammar School: The general library in 1936. (From: Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Committee Appointed to Inquire into the Provision of Libraries in Secondary Schools, Libraries in Secondary Schools, A Report..., (Edinburgh, 1936)).

TABLE XXI

## BRISTOL GRAMMAR SCHOOL:

BORROWING FROM THE GENERAL LIBRARY, TERM ONE, 1928<sup>1</sup>

Class of Books	Form								Totals
	6c	6m	6L	5	4	3	Prep	Staff	
A. General	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
B. Philosophy	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
C. Antiquities, Biography	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1	4
O. History	18	15	5	4	6	34	1	3	86
F. Fiction	60	131	309	271	316	367	150	20	1624
G. Geography	2	7	10	3	2	7	-	2	33
H. Economics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
J. Politics	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
M. Music	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
N. Fine Arts	1	11	3	1	1	2	-	3	22
P. Literature	8	20	13	3	1	-	-	1	46
Q. Science	1	2	8	5	8	5	3	-	32
T. Engineering, Sport	2	8	18	7	4	13	2	-	54
U. Army	1	1	1	7	9	7	6	-	32
V. Navy	-	1	2	5	3	14	3	-	28
Totals	94	207	370	306	351	449	165	30	1972

1. The Bristol Grammar School Chronicle, 18,4(1929), p.188.

TABLE XXII

## BRISTOL GRAMMAR SCHOOL:

BORROWING FROM THE GENERAL LIBRARY, FINAL TERM, 1929<sup>1</sup>

Class of Books	Forms									Totals
	6c	6m	6l	5	4	3	Divs	Prep	Staff	
A. General	2	-	4	-	5	-	-	-	-	11
B. Religion and Philosophy	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
CDE History, etc.	36	33	19	11	14	20	17	38	4	192
F. Fiction	23	32	125	287	276	149	78	324	6	1320
G. Geography	3	4	26	13	3	6	12	17	-	84
HJ Politics, etc.	12	2	2	2	1	1	-	-	3	23
M. Music	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
N. Art	12	7	8	1	1	1	-	-	1	31
P. Language and Literature	24	27	16	3	2	-	3	-	11	86
Q. Science	13	1	6	4	3	17	5	13	1	63
T. Engineering, etc.	-	-	11	5	19	22	13	35	1	106
UV Army and Navy	1	-	6	4	2	-	-	3	-	17
Z. Bibliography	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Totals	127	107	224	331	327	216	128	430	27	1939

In the years which immediately followed, the number of books in the general library increased, as did the borrowing from it, as the Table of annual issues below shows.<sup>2</sup>

1. The Bristol Grammar School Chronicle, 18,6(1929), p.291.

2. Ibid., 22,1(1940), p.24. The Table has been collated from information given in a short article on the library.

TABLE XXIII

BRISTOL GRAMMAR SCHOOL:ANNUAL BORROWING FROM THE GENERAL LIBRARY

Year	Number of Books Issued
1935	6340
1936	6730
1937	6950
1938	7900
1939	8450

In the Christmas term of 1939 the number of books issued was a school record of 3093. At the same time, the proportion of fiction borrowing to non-fiction gradually decreased as the library became more closely integrated with the instructional programme of the school, particularly after the recommendations of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust Report of 1936.<sup>1</sup> This was especially noticeable after 1939, when regular library periods, in which pupils were instructed on the arrangements of the library, the use of books, and efficient use of reference sources, were commenced.<sup>2</sup> This library continued to be used until 1973, when a newly-built library opened with five thousand square feet floor area, nearly twice the Library Association's recommended requirements for a school of one thousand pupils.<sup>3</sup>

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1. Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Committee Appointed to Inquire into the Provision of Libraries in Secondary Schools, Libraries in Secondary Schools: A Report...
  2. The Bristol Grammar School Chronicle, 21,7(1939), pp.172-173.
  3. This had a bookstock of 30,000 volumes and seating for one hundred pupils. Chris Colley, The Social Context and Management of Libraries Project: The Staffing of School Libraries, A Case Study based on Bristol Grammar School's Library, (typescript, 1977).

The changes which have converted Bristol Grammar School's General Library during the twentieth century, from a library supplying mainly fiction for leisure reading, to a library resources centre closely related to the curriculum of the school and its instructional programme, illustrate the fact that a library established in a school for one reason may come, over the years, to be maintained and organised to suit another purpose. In Chapter Three we saw libraries which had been established to support the teaching given in Sunday schools in Great Britain and the United States of America gradually change in character as they began to supply books for recreational reading; in primary and secondary schools in the twentieth century the general trend has been in the reverse direction, to integrate the libraries more closely with the instructional programme of the school, while still attempting to meet some leisure reading requirements with fiction collections smaller in relation to non-fiction. It has been possible for school libraries to concentrate less on fiction for leisure reading partly because in the twentieth century public libraries have generally assumed responsibility for supplying such reading materials in the urban areas of Great Britain, the United States of America, and Australia.<sup>1</sup>

In the history of the library of Aldenham School, Elstree, the change from a fiction library to a library closely related to curriculum needs is clearly apparent. This boarding school of approximately 350 boys began in the sixteenth century as Aldenham Grammar School, and expanded considerably in the nineteenth century. The school library was established and organised as a subscription

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1. Alec Ellis, Library Services for Young People in England and Wales, (Oxford, 1971), pp.3-4, p.17.



library by 1881,<sup>1</sup> when games, including chess and draughts, as well as books, were bought for the use of the boys in their leisure time.<sup>2</sup> In 1883 the library was catalogued,<sup>3</sup> with the books arranged in twelve classes according to subject.<sup>4</sup> The collection was housed in various rooms around the school until 1924, when it moved into its own specially designed library room, was recatalogued, reclassified according to the Dewey System,<sup>5</sup> and completely re-organised on professional lines by Cecil Stott, librarian in the school for forty-three years, and one of the founders of the School Library

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1. Aldenham School, Cuttings Scrapbook, in the school library. Cutting dated April 1883, from the school magazine. There is evidence that considerable care and planning went into this library. In 1881, 1882, and 1883, subscriptions were used to pay for stationery, books, binding, newspapers, shelves and shelf labels, and printing.
  2. Ibid., cutting dated August 1881, from the school magazine.
  3. Aldenham School, "Aldenham School Library Catalogue, 1883", MS, at the school library.
  4. These were:
    1. Classics
    2. Fiction
    3. Biography
    4. History
    5. Poetry
    6. Travel
    7. Science
    8. Miscellaneous (Including English literature and criticism, except poetry, and also including books on religion)
    9. G (Magazines)
    10. Athletics
    11. F (Continued)
    12. H (Continued)

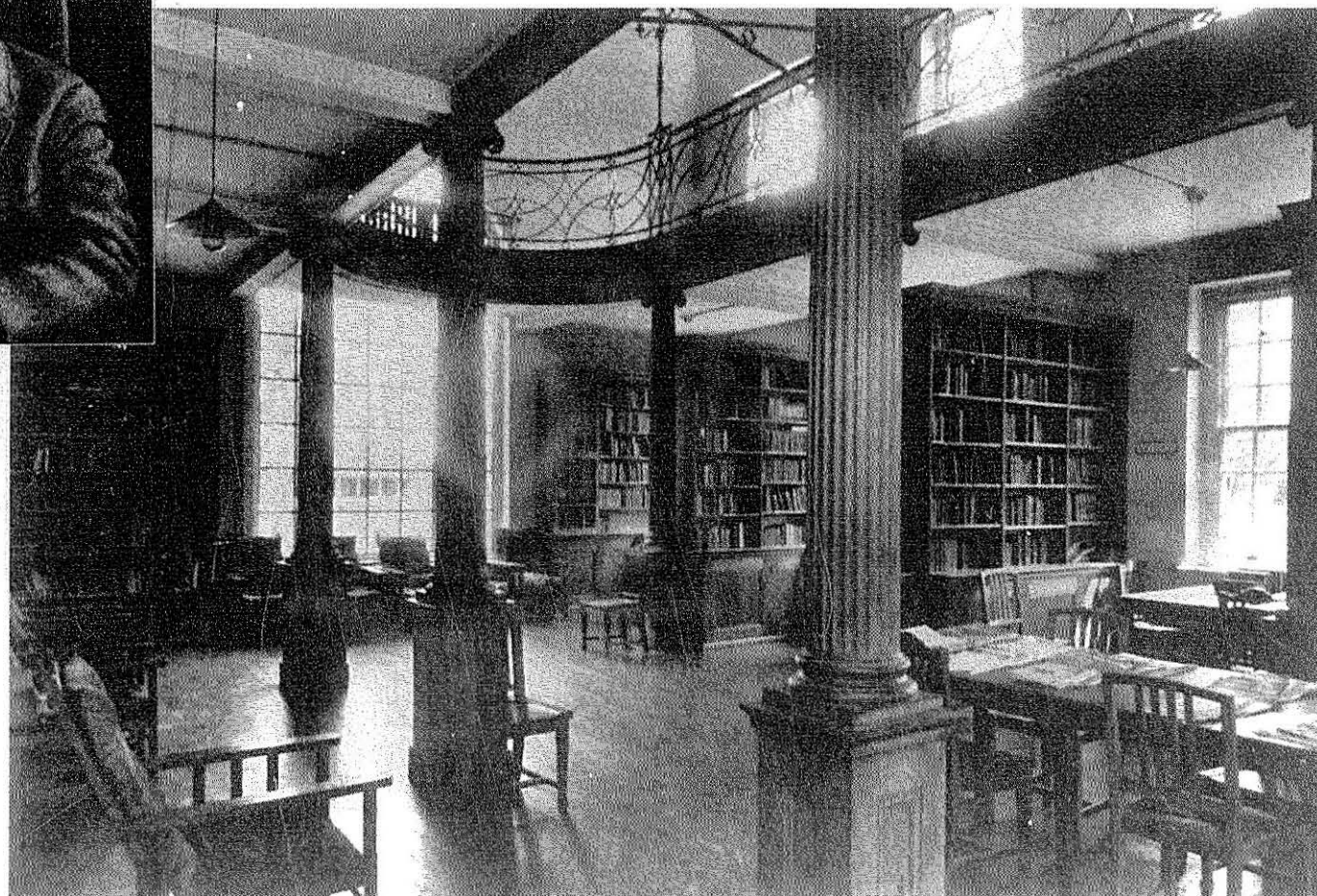
The books were given running shelf numbers within these classes, as, for example,

- C.1. The Roman Poets of the Republic, W. Sellar
- C.2. Peloponnesus, W.G. Clark
- C.3. Gallus, Becker

5. Aldenham School, Cuttings Scrapbook, cuttings dated November 1924 and April 1935, both from the school magazine.



The Library, Aldenham School, Elstree, in 1937, with a portrait of its long-serving Librarian, Cecil Stott. (Photograph of the library from the school).



Association.<sup>1</sup> In the 1920s a great deal of modern fiction was bought for the library,<sup>2</sup> partly in response to demands from the pupils.<sup>3</sup> Not only did the proportion of fiction books to non-fiction books in the collection increase during this period, but the overall stock of the library increased rapidly: when the library moved into its permanent quarters in 1924, 1800 books were transferred; only four years later the total stock was around 4500 titles.<sup>4</sup> The record of books borrowed from the library illustrates clearly the change from a library chiefly for leisure reading materials in 1925 to a library used predominantly for curriculum-related materials by 1937. The graphs which follow show this development, from 1925, when eighty percent of the borrowings were of fiction books, to 1954, when eighty percent of the borrowings were of non-fiction.<sup>5</sup>

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1. C.W. Morris "Cecil Ainsworth Stott: an Appreciation", The School Librarian, 27,4(1979), pp.315-318; Anonymous, "Aldenham School, Elstree", The School Librarian, 27,3(1979), p.204.
  2. Aldenham School, Cuttings Scrapbook, cuttings dated July 1921, from the school magazine.
  3. Ibid., cutting dated December 1919, from the school magazine.
  4. Ibid., cuttings dated November 1924 and March 1928, from the school magazine.
  5. Figures taken from Aldenham School, Cuttings Scrapbook, cuttings dated 1925-1955, from the school magazine.

TABLE XXIV

ALDENHAM SCHOOL LIBRARY:

FICTION AND NON-FICTION BOOKS BORROWED, 1925-1954

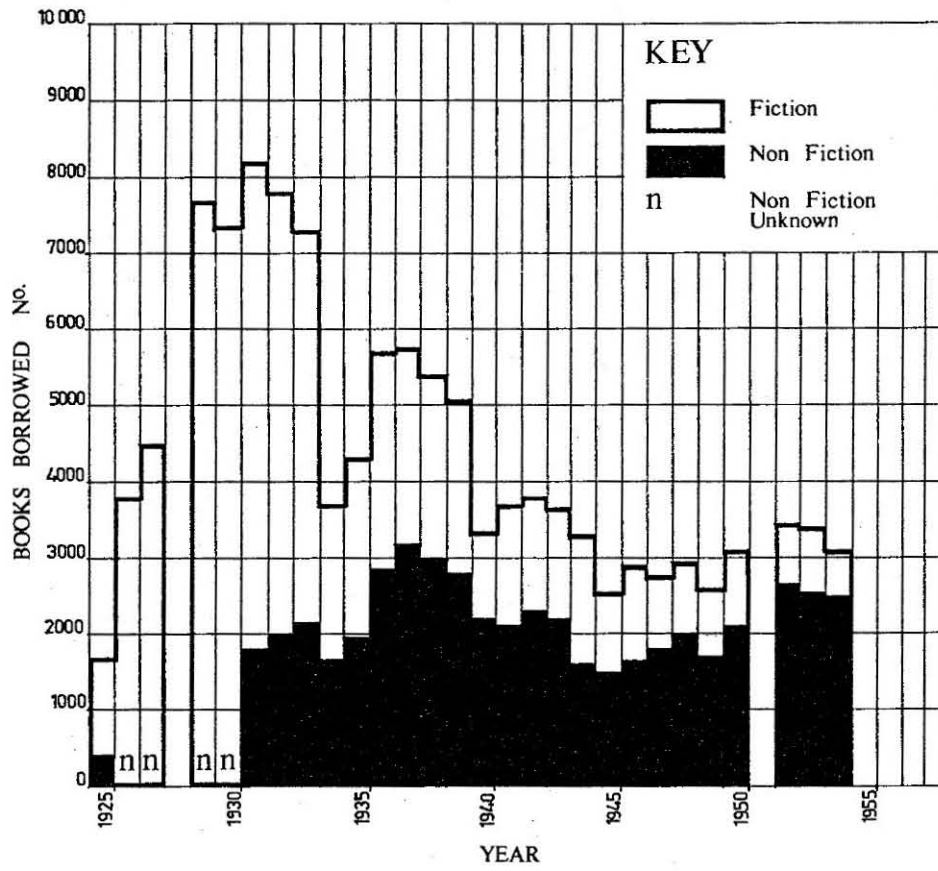
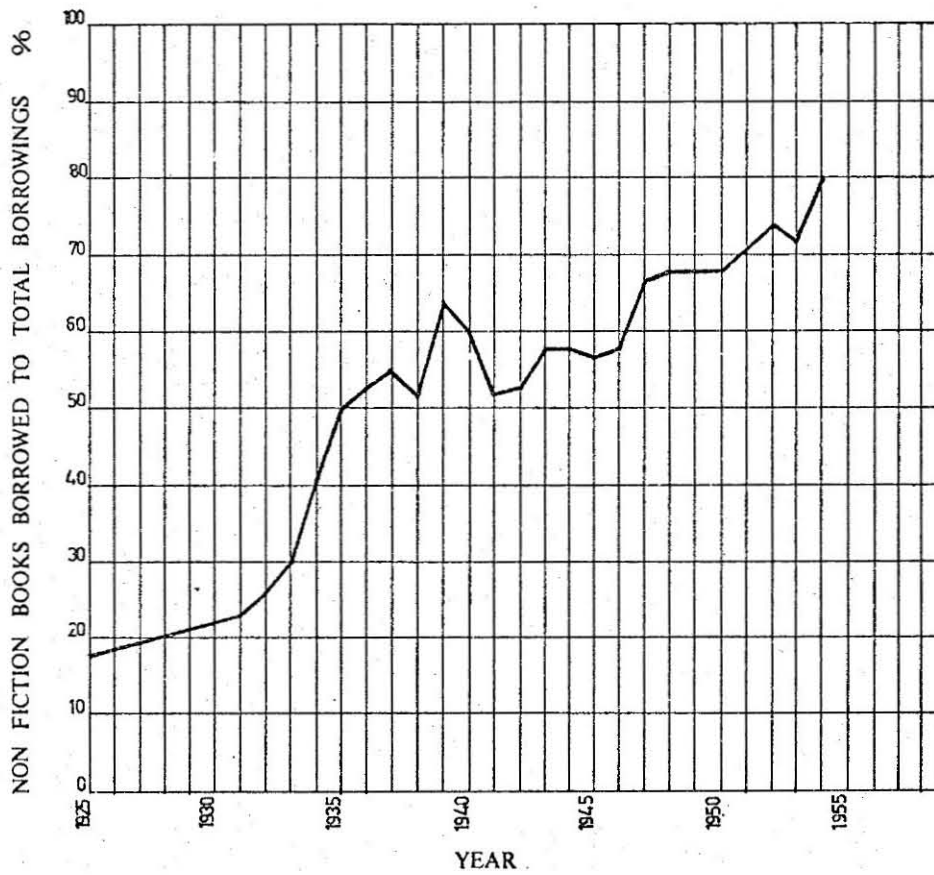


TABLE XXV

ALDENHAM SCHOOL LIBRARY:PERCENTAGE OF NON-FICTION BOOKS BORROWED TO TOTAL BORROWINGS, 1925-1954

Several factors, over and above the general trend already noted, may account for this. Firstly, it appears that after 1924 Stott himself, while encouraging the development of a quality fiction collection in the main school library, saw the library as a vital part of the scholarly life of the school, so that his own policy would have encouraged the development of the non-fiction collection.<sup>1</sup> Secondly, fiction books were inconveniently shelved in a crowded bay of the library near the door until 1954, and then housed in an even less convenient location in the former Masters' Common Room. Thirdly, five house libraries, consisting chiefly of fiction, were established around 1945 and were well-used in the 1950s; much of the fiction read by boys would have come from them rather than from the general library. Perhaps too, though it would be difficult to verify this, the boys' reading tastes changed, with a preference increasingly being shown for factual books over fiction for leisure reading; there is certainly evidence from elsewhere for such a change.<sup>2</sup> In this period, too, fiction reading as a leisure activity found increasing competition from other forms of entertainment - films, radio, and by the 1950s television. Although their direct impact on a boarding school population would have been limited, it is probable that changes in reading habits in the general population which occurred as a result of the availability of these new leisure activities would

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1. Ibid., cutting dated November 1924, from an article by Cecil Stott, on the aims of the library, in the school magazine.
  2. Alec Ellis, for instance, quotes a Sheffield survey of children's reading preferences in 1938 which showed that even at that stage, while girls generally preferred fiction, boys actually read more non-fiction than fiction. Ellis, Library Services for Young People, p.71. He also suggests that this trend could be the result of the availability of increasingly attractive non-fiction for children in the 1930s, with a wider coverage of subjects for most age groups. Ibid., p.71.

have been reflected to some degree in boarding schools.<sup>1</sup>

While showing the increasing proportion of non-fiction books to fiction books borrowed, the first graph also shows that total borrowings from the main library, of both fiction and non-fiction, increased dramatically between 1925 and 1931, then gradually tapered off until around 1940, when they seem to have stabilised at around 3500 books a year. It is possible that changes in the physical environment of the library tended to reduce borrowing after 1931: longer opening hours made it less necessary for boys to borrow books to use outside; and with the installation of heating and comfortable furniture, the library became a much more pleasant place in which to read. We know that blackout conditions imposed during the Second World War led to a further decline in borrowing, particularly during 1940.<sup>2</sup> At about the time that total borrowings began to decrease markedly, a teacher who had been at the school many years, and who had effectively encouraged the use of the library, retired; the influence of teachers on pupil use of the library has been demonstrated in several studies, so that his leaving the staff may have

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1. Ellis, Library Services for Young People, p.92, mentions librarians who, late in the 1950s, questioned the idea that television was a bad influence on children's reading habits. However a major country-wide survey of English children's voluntary reading habits, carried out by the Schools Council from 1969 to 1974, did produce evidence that heavy television viewers (that is, more than three hours viewing per week-day evening) formed a higher proportion of the non book readers than of medium or heavy book readers. Frank Whitehead, A.C. Capey, Wendy Maddren, and Alan Wellings, Children and their Books, (London, 1977), p.58.
  2. A total of 2047 for the Christmas term 1939, but only 1142 for Christmas term 1940, with the average daily number of issues dropping from twenty-four in 1939 to fourteen in 1940.

meant a general lessening of interest in the library.<sup>1</sup>

The library in this school today, still in its 1923/1924 room, but with modern extensions built in 1978, has a collection of around 23,000 books. The fiction books, removed to another room in 1954, have been returned to the main library, where they are housed in a new room used also for the periodicals collection and casual reading. The library now, however, as the borrowing figures show,<sup>2</sup> chiefly serves to support the curriculum-related teaching and learning activities in the school.

This change in purpose, so clearly apparent in many English school libraries, is also evident in some Australian secondary school libraries in the twentieth century. The Glennie Memorial School, an Anglican Girls' boarding school founded in 1908 in Toowoomba, Queensland, had a library in 1910 of "over 100 well-bound, green-covered books".<sup>3</sup> The authors represented in this embryo collection, which had been built up by donation, and which was housed in the dining room,<sup>4</sup> included Thackeray, Scott, Dickens, Lytton, Reade, Mason, Merriman, Crockett, Marion Crawford, Barr McCutcheon, Gertrude Page, Nicholson, and Ethel Turner.<sup>5</sup> The library increased

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1. For example, Ernest Roe in South Australia found that "... certain individual librarians and teachers significantly influence children's education through libraries". Roe, *An Examination of the Influence of Libraries on the Education of Secondary School Children in South Australia*, (Ph.D. thesis, University of Adelaide, 1963), abstract.
  2. In 1966, for instance, of the 1154 books borrowed in Christmas term, only 118 were fiction.
  3. The Glennie Gazette, 1,2(1910), p.20.
  4. Ibid., 1,3(1910), p.18.
  5. Ibid., 1,2(1910), p.20.



steadily in size after its establishment; by 1920 there were 1000 volumes<sup>1</sup> for a school of around one hundred pupils. By 1926 both the reference library and the fiction library were housed in their own rooms, but while hope was expressed in the school magazine that "the shelves for reference books will soon be as well filled as the fiction ones",<sup>2</sup> the fiction library remained the most heavily used for some time to come. Some of the funds from the girls' library subscriptions were allocated for the first time in 1926 to buy "reference" or non-fiction books; after this the reference library gradually grew in size. The initial purchases of non-fiction, however, were heavily oriented towards English literature, with only three of the first fifteen purchases being works on other subjects: Griffith Taylor's Meteorology in Australia; Lawrence's Movements in European History; and Morris and Wood's The English Speaking Nations.<sup>3</sup> Ten years later the fiction and reference libraries were almost equal in size,<sup>4</sup> with the reference library showing an increasing variety in its stock; by 1939 there were more non-fiction books than fiction.<sup>5</sup> By 1951, the stock of the reference library was more than double that of the fiction library.<sup>6</sup>

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1. Ibid., 7,23(1920), p.17.

2. Ibid., 13,35(1926), pp.9-10 and p.12.

3. Ibid., 13,36(1926), pp.6-7. The other purchased works were: Sidney Lee - Life of Shakespeare; Oxford Book of English Prose; Meredith's Poems; Henley's English Lyrics; Herbert's Poems; De Quincey's Essays; Swinburne: Crescent Moon; Tagore; Milton; History of Art and Literature - 3 vols.

4. Ibid., 25,56(1936), p.18.

5. Ibid., 28,62(1939), pp.20-21.

6. Ibid., 39,81(1951), pp.14-15.

TABLE XXVI

## THE GLENNIE SCHOOL, TOOWOOMBA:

THE GROWTH OF THE LIBRARY COLLECTIONS<sup>1</sup>

Year	Fiction Library Books	Non-Fiction Library Books	Total
1920			1000
1923			1100
1932			1700
1936	1020	>1000	>2020
1939	>1000	1070	>2070
1941	1035	1130	2165
1951	943	>1900	>2843

The combined school library today, in a new building erected with Australian Government assistance and opened in 1971,<sup>2</sup> has a collection of 5000 or more volumes for the 130 girls enrolled. This collection, like those at Bristol Grammar School and Aldenham School in England, is now primarily organised to support the classroom work of the school, with some attention being paid to building up the fiction and general non-fiction sections of the collection to cater to the recreational reading needs of the pupils, particularly boarders.

Other Australian school libraries show the same development. The list of fifty new books added to the library of the Southport School, Queensland, in the half year to May 1908, when the school

1. Figures taken from articles in the school magazine, *ibid.*, issues 7,23(1920), p.17; 9,29(1923), pp.17-18; 20,48(1932), p.13; 25,26(1936), p.18; 28,62(1939), pp.20-21; 30,65(1941), pp.10-11; 39,81(1951), pp.14-15.

2. *Ibid.*, 51,95(1971), pp.31-33.

magazine carried the first such list, included only three non-fiction titles, two of which were histories and one a book on sport.<sup>1</sup> Thirty-one years later, the accessions list in the December 1939 issue of the magazine showed that while seventeen fiction titles had been added in the half year, twenty-eight non-fiction titles were listed, including ten history titles, seven travel books, and eleven works classified broadly as "art, literature, biography, etc."<sup>2</sup> In 1924 the form libraries at the Church of England Grammar School, East Brisbane, were amalgamated to form a school library, chiefly of fiction books;<sup>3</sup> the writer of an editorial in the October 1925 issue of the school magazine, with regard to the aims of this library, suggested that "the true function of books is the giving of pure pleasure; that unsullied mental recreation available in no other form".<sup>4</sup> Even by 1927 this was no longer a true description of what this school wanted in a school library; an editorial of that year announced that a new library would be built to "provide a good general library for the whole school, and an excellent reference library for senior boys and masters",<sup>5</sup> as well as to supply leisure reading materials.<sup>6</sup>

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1. The Southport School, The Southportonian, May 1908, p.7.
  2. Ibid., December 1939, pp.16-17.
  3. The Church of England Grammar School, The Viking, April 1924, p.13.
  4. Ibid., October 1925, p.1.
  5. Ibid., September 1927, p.4.
  6. Other Australian school libraries in which this trend is apparent include Somerville House (The Brisbane High School for Girls), The Somerville House Magazine, issues from 1900; the Ipswich Girls' Grammar School, Ipswich Girls' Grammar School Magazine, issues from 1912 on; and Toowoomba Grammar School, Toowoomba Grammar School Magazine, issues May 1904 on, and particularly November 1913, pp.5-6.

\* \* \* \* \*

This gradual change in so many school libraries, from being predominantly suppliers of fiction for home or leisure reading to providing curriculum-related non-fiction, has meant that most school libraries now have collections in which non-fiction books greatly outnumber the fiction. The graphs below, based on information given in the 1972 Commonwealth Secondary School Libraries Research Project Report, Secondary School Libraries in Australia,<sup>1</sup> show that in the 637 government secondary schools throughout Australia which were surveyed, and in the 627 non-government schools, the bookstock of fiction was significantly smaller than the non-fiction stock. In the case of the government schools, the mean fiction collection consisted of 1762 books and the mean non-fiction collection of 4111 books, while for non-government schools the mean collections were 843 and 2430 respectively.

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1. (Brisbane, 1972), pp.41-44.

TABLE XXVII

BOOKSTOCK IN LIBRARIES IN GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
IN AUSTRALIA, 1972

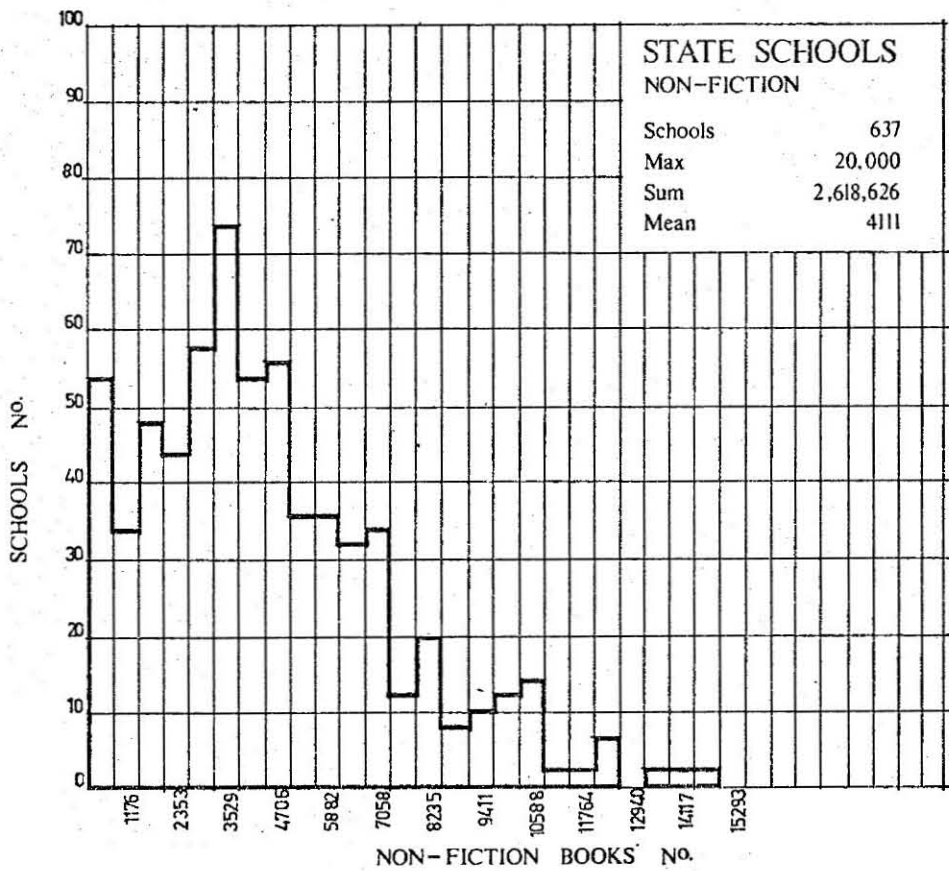
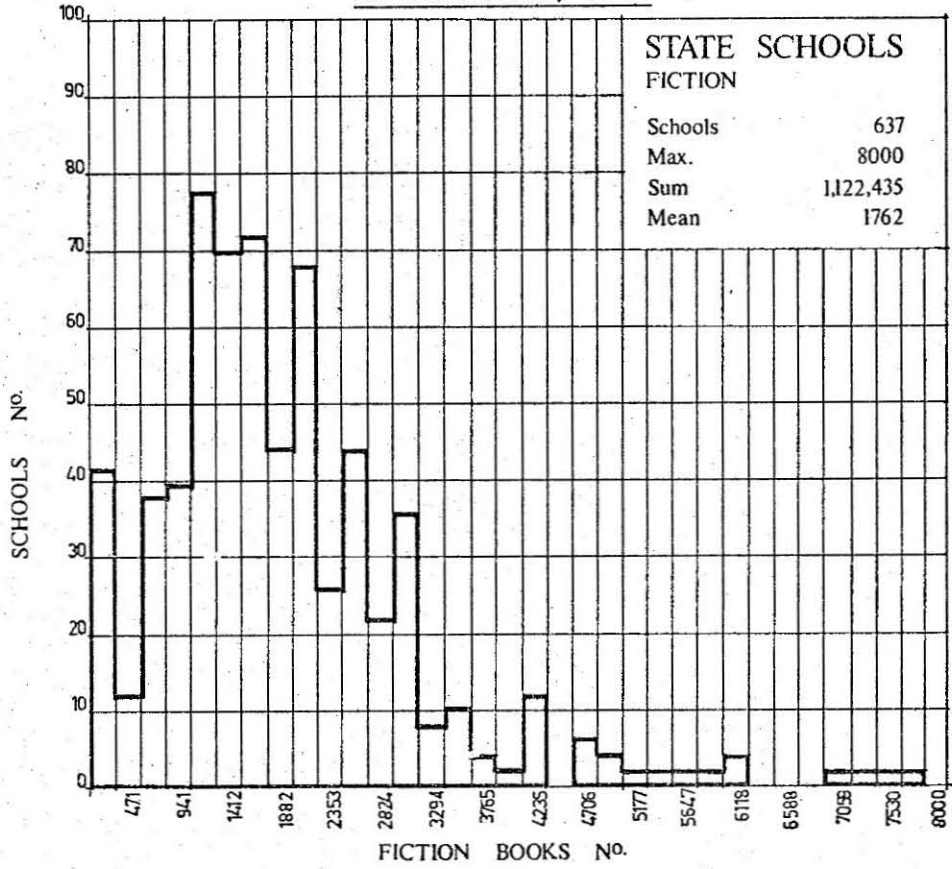
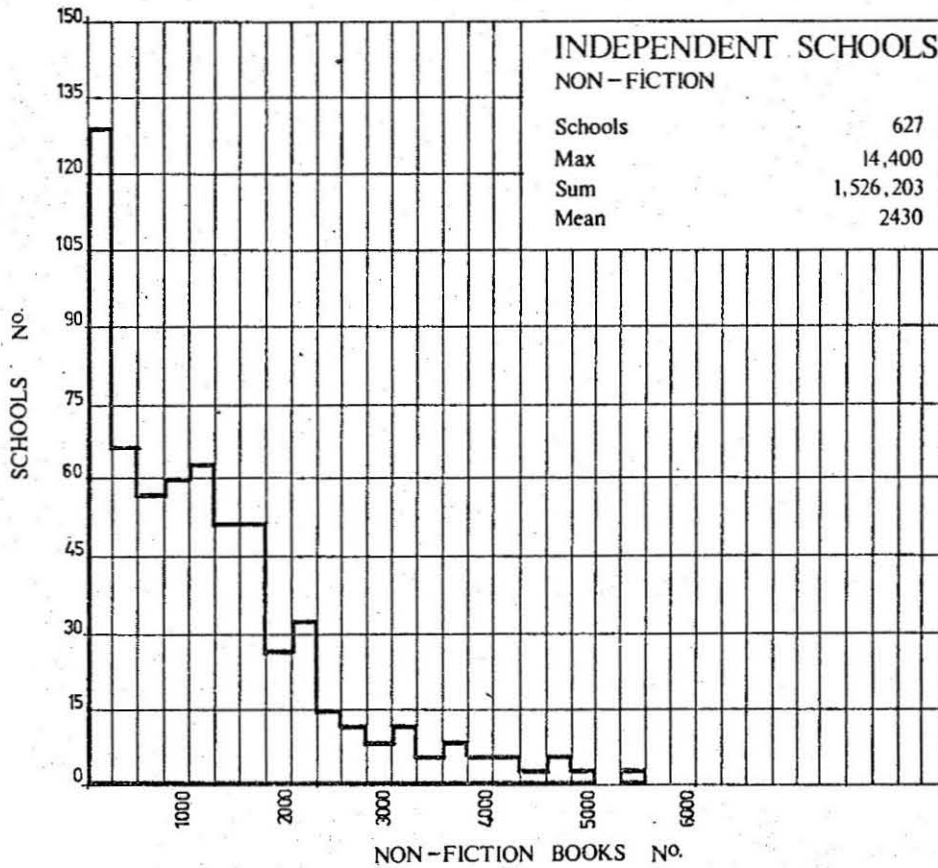
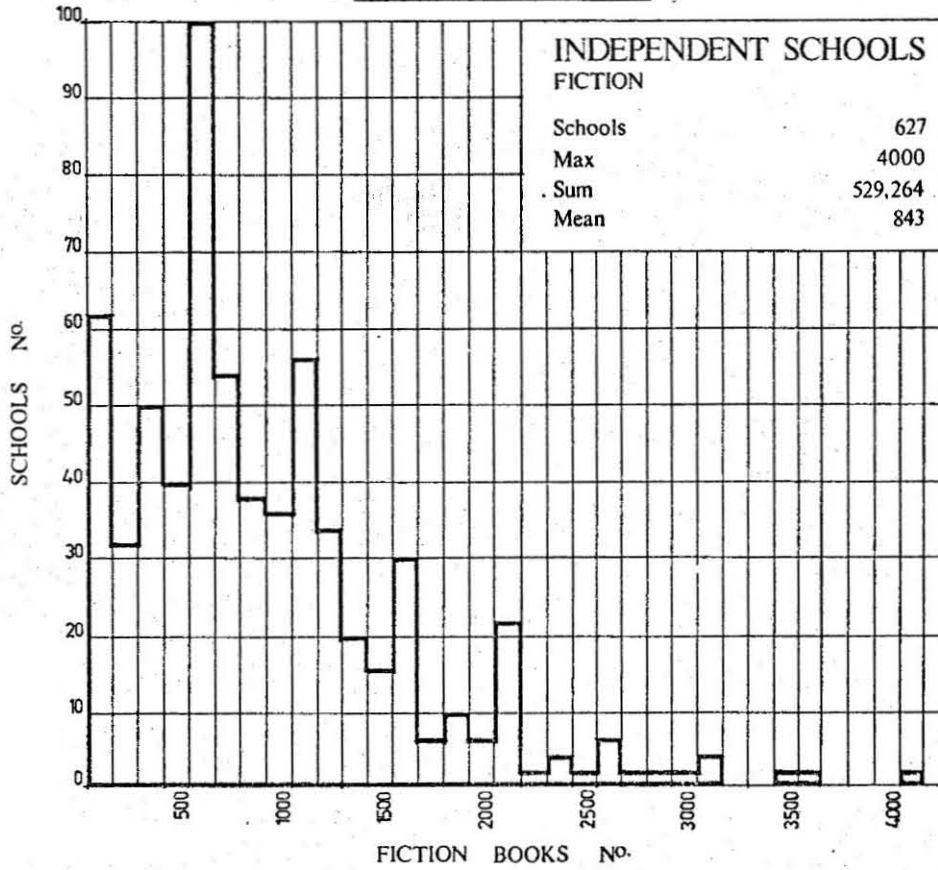


TABLE XXVIII  
BOOKSTOCK IN LIBRARIES IN INDEPENDENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
IN AUSTRALIA, 1972



The following Table, showing books bought by the 637 Australian government schools with the Commonwealth funds which were allocated to them between 1969 and 1971 under the States Grants (Secondary School Libraries) Act, 1968, further illustrates this trend: the number of non-fiction titles bought was more than double the number of fiction works over the three year period.

TABLE XXIX

AUSTRALIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES:BOOKS BOUGHT WITH COMMONWEALTH FUNDS 1969-1972 BY 637 SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

Type of Book	Total Books Bought	Average Number of Books Bought per School	Average Number of Books Bought per Pupil
Fiction	175,066	275	0.41
Non-Fiction	360,984	567	0.84
Total	536,050	842	1.25

- 
1. Table based on figures given in the Commonwealth Secondary School Libraries Research Project report, *ibid.*, p.40. The average number of books bought per pupil, given in column four, is based on an enrolment figure of 428,461 pupils in the 637 schools.

While this situation was common<sup>1</sup> in Australian secondary schools by the 1970s, there were still many primary schools, particularly in Queensland, where the book collections were basically fiction, though the School Library Association of Queensland felt that a ratio of fiction to non-fiction of 40:60 was more desirable and endeavoured to encourage collection-building along these lines.<sup>2</sup> A survey conducted in 1972 of thirteen of the twenty state primary school libraries in the Central Queensland city of Rockhampton showed, however, that the overall ratio of fiction to non-fiction in those libraries was 63:37, with individual schools showing ratios as high as 18:3. In some infants sections of those primary schools there were no non-fiction books at all in the libraries. The Tables below are adapted from tables given in the report of this study.<sup>3</sup>

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1. In Western Australia, for instance, as early as 1958, nine of the state secondary schools had book collections in which there were more than two non-fiction books to every fiction book, and a further seven such schools had more than one but fewer than two non-fiction books to every fiction book. But nevertheless in no fewer than fourteen junior high schools, fiction books still outnumbered non-fiction books in the library collections. The full high schools, then, tended to have collections predominantly of non-fiction, while the lower-status junior high schools had collections which were largely fiction. Paul L. Duncan, *The Secondary School Library: a survey of the need for secondary school libraries, and their aims, provision, and staffing, especially in relation to state high schools in Western Australia*, (B.Ed. thesis, University of Western Australia, 1958), p.72. This phenomenon was also noted by B. Lamar Johnson twenty-five years earlier in the United States. He attributed it partly to the policy of headmasters in junior secondary schools who, having mostly primary school experience, concentrated on supplying books for leisure reading; and partly to a lack of adequate public libraries for leisure reading materials in the rural areas where these schools were often located. B. Lamar Johnson, *The Secondary-School Library*, (Washington, 1933), p.vi.
  2. School Library Association of Queensland. Rockhampton Branch, "Survey of Print Materials in Rockhampton State Primary School Libraries", *Journal of the School Library Association of Queensland*, 5,3(1972), pp.14-18.
  3. *Ibid.*, pp.16 and 17.



TABLE XXX

## ROCKHAMPTON, QUEENSLAND: BOOK COLLECTIONS IN GOVERNMENT

## PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1972

School	No. of Pupils		Fiction Books		Non-Fiction Books		Refer- ence Books
	Total Number of Pupils	Number of Infant Pupils	Fiction for Infants	Fiction for Others	Non- Fiction for Infants	Non- Fiction for Others	
Allenstown	900	242	810	1192	78	1688	162
Frenchville	813	236	500	1326	-	800	16
Berserker St	761	295	700	1972	50	800+	120
Park Avenue	600	201	150	200	200	820	100
Mt. Morgan	495	137	200	700	50	850	8
Hall	468	192	985	1200	50	660	140
Crescent Lagoon	442	119	400	800	150	400	-
Lakes Creek	305	97	66	500	4	290	50
Depot Hill	149	45	54	500	-	328	65
Glenmore	97	29	150	250	50	250	3
Nerimbera	55	22	56	1100	-	162	7
Kalapa	41	13	90	360	-	100	19
Parkhurst	83	29	40	200	-	40	4

TABLE XXXI

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School	Infant School Ratio of Fiction:Non-Fiction	Ratio of Fiction:Non-Fiction in Primary School Collection as a whole
	F:N-F	F:N-F
Allenstown	10:1	20:19
Berserker	70:5	8:3
Berserker Infs.	14:1	
Frenchville	500:0	9:4
Park Avenue	3:4	1:3
Mount Morgan	4:1	18:3
Hall	20:1	5:2
Crescent Lagoon	8:3	2:1
Lakes Creek	16:1	5:3
Depot Hill	54:0	4:3
Glenmore	3:1	4:3
Nerimbera	56:0	1:1
Kapala	90:0	4:1
Parkhurst	40:0	4:1

In these primary schools a feature of the libraries is the heavy provision of fiction books for infants children. In England in the 1970s another trend was apparent in secondary collections: the provision of comparatively large fiction collections for less academically able pupils, with only small fiction collections being provided in independent and academically-oriented schools. Several reasons could account for this: firstly, the belief that many less able pupils had reading interests and needs more akin to those of primary pupils than of academic secondary pupils; secondly, the

belief that children of lower academic ability need to be enticed into reading, in contrast to academic pupils who are more motivated to read; thirdly, the belief that fiction would be less readily available in the homes of less able pupils; fourthly, the belief that the more intelligent pupils are likely to borrow fiction from the local public library, while non-academic pupils would be less likely to venture there; fifthly, the belief that fiction is easier to read than non-fiction, and so more suitable for less able children. In addition, there has been a tendency to provide very little fiction for the ablest pupils because they are under most pressure to work for public examinations, and are therefore seen as having little time for recreational reading. Whatever the reasons for this phenomenon, the following Table shows that while of the five Lancashire secondary schools for which figures are given, none had a collection consisting of more than twenty percent fiction, the two comprehensive schools, Burnley Grammar School and Bury Grammar School, had significantly greater percentages of fiction in their collections than the academic schools, with Manchester Grammar School, for instance, having only six percent fiction.

TABLE XXXII

BOOKSTOCK BY SUBJECTS OF FIVE ENGLISH SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1978<sup>1</sup>  
(expressed as percentages of total stock)

	Schools				
	Manchester Grammar School (Academic)	Merchant Taylors' School, Crosby (Academic)	Bolton School (Boys' Division) (Independent)	Burnley Grammar School (Compre- hensive)	Bury Grammar School (Compre- hensive)
	%	%	%	%	%
General Reference	2	4	2	3	10
English	18 Incl. USA	15	12	16	8
Fine Arts	4 Art and Music	4 Art and Music	4	6 Incl. Recre- ation	3
Music			2		1
Sport and Pastimes	1	1	3		
Classics	5 (Latin 2 Greek 3)	5	4	2	1
Geology and Geography	2	4	9	5½	4
Mathematics and General Science			10		
Mathematics		3		2	3
Physical Sciences				3	5
Applied Sciences	2	1		3	
Natural Science					3
Pure Sciences	7	6			
Economics and Social Sciences	4	5	6	6	4½
Languages	1	1			
German	11	3	6	3½	4
Russian	1		1		
French	5	5	10	4	3
Spanish				½	
History	23	18	20	20	18
Biography		8			1
Theology			2		
Philosophy and Religion	6 (Philosophy 2 Religion 4)	5		5	3
General Literature	2				
Junior Non-Fiction (Fiction)	6	12	9	19	9 20

1. The figures for this Table were taken from Joan M. Potter, Old School Libraries of Lancashire: A Continued History 1885-1978, (M.A. thesis, Loughborough University of Technology, 1979).

For no two schools was it possible to use exactly the same subject divisions in the Table, since figures, given to Mrs. Potter by the schools themselves, were based on the subject divisions of their own library classification schemes and stocktaking records. The Dewey Decimal Classification (not without local adaptation) was used by Burnley Grammar School, Manchester Grammar School, and Merchant Taylors' School, Crosby; Bury Grammar School used the Brown Classification; and Bolton School used a modified Dewey system, but with the books shelved by school subject departments rather than by broad Dewey classes.

Despite the range in fiction provision in these schools, of from six percent to twenty percent of the collection, fiction was not a large component of any of these collections, especially when they are seen in relation to the primary school libraries in Queensland in the same decade. The provision of fiction in the English schools was seen to be more important for less able pupils, but their libraries, too, were still predominantly non-fiction and curriculum-related.

The concept of the school library as a source of recreational reading has been declining in popularity during the twentieth century; with some exceptions, the emphasis today in school library development is on the library as a source of support and enrichment for curriculum-related teaching and learning activities in the school, and/or for the school library as a school and community resource. Leisure reading materials have been incorporated into the general school library as a fiction section, with a stock generally much smaller than the non-fiction and reference sections. Part of the responsibility for supplying recreational reading materials has passed during this century to the childrens' and young adult departments of public libraries; generally, however, fiction forms a larger part of the collections of primary school libraries than of secondary school libraries today, while within the secondary schools themselves the provision of fiction is generally seen to be more important in schools which have a substantial enrolment of less able pupils.