

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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The purpose of this investigation was to examine the literature in education and library science to determine why standards for education libraries have not been realized, in the light of the specific criteria for other areas of teacher education accreditation. Educators and librarians in favor of strict standards for education libraries believe that they would give greater credibility to collections and services; those opposed believe that each teachers college and teacher education program is unique and that the library should reflect the parent institutions's individuality.

This study also examined the complex nature of the literature of education and discussed the history and development of education libraries. In the absence of education library standards, librarians need to use established evaluation measures in their report to accreditation agencies; several measures suitable for education libraries are included in this study.

Evaluation of Education Libraries
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EVALUATION OF EDUCATION LIBRARIES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION ACCREDITATION

INTRODUCTION

Professional teacher education programs are evaluated at regular intervals to determine if they meet the accrediting agencies' standards. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), for example, lists specific standards, or "criteria for compliance," in five areas: knowledge bases for professional education; relationship to the world of practice; students; faculty; and governance and resources. Reports from the institution are required to show how these standards are being met by the education unit to ensure "that programs are based on established and current research findings and sound professional practice" (NCATE, 1990, p. 43). Although the library is included in the evaluation process, explicit criteria or standards for satisfactory library support of teacher education programs are inadequate. The librarian who prepares the library's report is frustrated by the lack of specific guidelines, as is the evaluator or the accreditation team who interprets the report.

Accreditation is not unique to teacher education. Accrediting bodies also exist for postsecondary education in general and in numerous other professional fields such

as chiropractic, law, medicine, music, and psychology. Accreditation is inherently an evaluative process and should not be viewed as an external monitoring or regulating mechanism, but as an "organized search for educational quality" (Young, 1981, p. 5).

The lack of standards for education libraries which support teacher education programs has been criticized in the literature of both education and library science. The latter is rich with studies on methods of quantitative and qualitative library evaluation; furthermore, standards exist for numerous kinds of libraries, such as school media centers, college libraries, and university branch libraries. Although useful for assessing collections and services in some libraries, these standards do not address the specific concerns of the education librarian or the evaluation team in the accreditation process.

This study addresses these concerns, through a comprehensive survey of education and library science literature. Chapter I presents an overview of teacher education accreditation; Chapter II discusses the library component of accreditation, particularly as it pertains to teacher education programs; Chapter III addresses the nature of education literature and its acquisition and organization for bibliographic control; Chapter IV discusses the history and types of education libraries which have developed in the United States; Chapter V presents a

discussion of standards for education libraries and the dichotomy which exists regarding whether standards are feasible or desirable; Chapter VI contains a summary of the most common methods of evaluating library collections and services which are particularly suitable for education libraries; Chapter VII summarizes the results of this study; and Chapter VIII presents recommendations for further study and research.

CHAPTER I

ACCREDITATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Accreditation is the "approval of a professional program of studies, or of the study programs of an entire educational institution, by a recognized accrediting body" (Hawes & Hawes, 1982, p.5). It can further be defined as the process of judging the quality of an institution, program, or course of study on the basis of a set of criteria or standards, in order to signify the level of excellence that it attains.

Licensure, in contrast to accreditation, is a process that gives approval to an individual to practice in a particular profession, such as medicine, engineering, or nursing. Government assumes the legal responsibility for deciding who is qualified to practice in a particular area and thus protects the public from unqualified practitioners. Although accreditation and licensure are separate and distinct processes, they have some interdependence. In education, for example, teachers must have completed a course of study at an accredited institution, in addition to other requirements, before they can be licensed (or certified) to teach in their state's public schools (Selden, 1960, pp. 185-6).

Teacher education programs are generally considered those which are four- or five- year programs for the

preparation of teachers for certification or licensure to teach preschool through grade 12. These programs are governed by national, regional, and state accreditation or approval agencies. A valid accreditation system involves three factors: (1) establishing criteria and standards believed to be significant indices of a program's or institution's quality; (2) a method of identifying and discriminating among institutions with respect to their meeting and maintaining these standards; and (3) an office or agency recognized and respected by the appropriate profession as being competent to establish standards and to evaluate individual institutions accordingly (Russell, 1950, p.83).

At the national level, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) is the only accrediting organization approved by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation (COPA). NCATE is also recognized by the U.S. Department of Education as the only accrediting agency authorized in the field of school personnel preparation (NCATE, 1990, p.2). Although accreditation by NCATE is voluntary, and fewer than half the nation's teacher education schools are members, the member schools graduate 80% of the nation's elementary and secondary school teachers (Watkins, 1989, p. A14).

At the regional level, COPA recognizes six accrediting associations which accredit universities and colleges as a

whole unit. As mentioned above, regional accrediting agencies, such as the Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges (which includes Oregon) do not differentiate between individual programs and professional schools (Russell, p.86). Each of the regional accrediting associations has its own set of standards and policies.

At the state level, six states currently employ the NCATE standards, and seven states use standards developed by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC). Several states use a combination of the NCATE and NASDTEC standards (Ayers & Berney, 1989, p. 6). The educational reform movement has spurred renewed interest in the establishment of Professional Standards and Practices Boards (PSPBs), which are autonomous and accountable only to the legislature of the state. In Oregon, for example, the Teachers Standards and Practices Commission (TSPC) was given the authority in 1973 to set teacher certification standards, to establish program approval standards, and to impose disciplinary action. It was formally established by legislative statute, under Chapter 342 of the Oregon Revised Statutes (ORS). The TSPC is defined and its authority is given in the Oregon Administrative Rules (OAR), Chapter 584. The Board consists of seventeen members appointed by the Governor, subject to confirmation by the Senate. The term of office of each member is for three years and members

are eligible for reappointment for one additional term (Scannell, 1989).

Whether an institution is seeking accreditation at the national, regional, or state level, the evaluation process is similar. Currently, NCATE encourages joint accreditation visits with other COPA approved agencies or with state departments of education, thus avoiding duplication of effort on the part of the institution or program.

Some attention to the history of NCATE is essential to an understanding of its function as an accrediting agency, and the internal and external forces which have shaped its present organization. Before 1950 the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) was the only agency on the national level which accredited teacher education programs. It was not recognized by the National Commission on Accrediting (which later merged with the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education to become COPA) because its membership was considered to be restrictive and nonrepresentative (Selden, p. 189). NCATE was organized in 1952 and a council was formed by the representatives of several education associations. Although membership on the council has changed since 1952, it currently includes representatives from the following organizations: the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the National Education Association, the National Associ-

ation of State Boards of Education, the National School Boards Association, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the American Association for Counseling and Development, the American Association of School Administrators, the Association of Teacher Educators, the Association of Educational Communication and Technology, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the Council for Exceptional Children, the International Reading Association, the International Technology Education/Council for Technology Teacher Education, the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Association of School Psychologists, the National Council for the Social Studies, the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, the National Science Teachers Association, and the American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance (Gollnick & Kunkel, 1986, p.314)

In its mission to provide voluntary national accreditation of professional preparation programs in education, NCATE (1) evaluates and revises its own standards; (2) implements the accreditation process through the development of policies and procedures; (3) issues a list of current professional education units accredited by NCATE, (4) maintains an appeals board for institutional appeal of accreditation decisions; (5) provides training

for members of the Board of Examiners; and (6) engages in other activities pursuant to its purposes (Educator's Desk Reference, 1989, pp. 513-514).

Criticism of NCATE began to appear within a few years of its formation. Objections centered around three main areas: (1) colleges and universities which were directly involved with the education of teachers were not adequately represented on the council; (2) NCATE was too dependent on educational associations for financial support and therefore could not remain independent and objective; (3) some critics believed that regional accreditation, which involves the college or university as a whole unit, was sufficient for accrediting teacher education programs. Regional accreditation is not concerned with individual programs or professional education units; therefore, its value for or influence on teacher education is negligible. The third point is particularly interesting because of the opinion expressed by critics who believed that a solid liberal arts background is sufficient training for the preparation of teachers, with few or no professional education courses (Stiles, 1963, pp. 154-159).

Several studies and reports appeared which criticized NCATE and called for reform, but it was not until the

AACTE threatened to establish an alternative national accrediting system (AACTE, 1983), that NCATE finally responded. The report stated:

NCATE [should] adopt uniform standards, establish a data bank, identify quantifiable indicators of quality, expand pre-conditions or eligibility requirements for accreditation, focus on the professional education unit as a whole instead of on discrete program categories, and establish a board of examiners. [NCATE should also] provide in-depth training for members of evaluation teams, reduce the size of the teams, adopt continuing accreditation, establish a process for annual monitoring and review, provide more information annually about institutions, and develop better articulation between the processes of securing national accreditation and state approval (Gollnick & Kunkel, p.310).

Response from the education community to the redesign of NCATE was generally favorable (Watts, 1986) and in 1987 NCATE published its revised Standards, Procedures, and Policies for the Accreditation of Professional Education Units. A new revision appeared in January 1990. Its mission, as stated in the Standards, is twofold:

(1) to require a level of quality in professional education that fosters competent practice of graduates, and (2) to encourage institutions to meet rigorous academic standards of excellence in professional education (NCATE, p.1).

After a full year of operation under its new standards and procedures, NCATE has denied approval to nearly a third of the teacher education programs that have applied for re-accreditation. Of the 46 schools, colleges, and

departments of education that were evaluated in 1988-89, 14 failed to meet the new standards. Denials previously had run about half the current rate, but NCATE officials believe that the denials will gradually decline as institutions strive to increase the quality of their programs. NCATE officials also believe that the higher standards and their more rigorous application has increased the esteem of the institutions which have met the new standards (Watkins, 1989, p.A13).

The five categories of standards addressed by NCATE are: (1) knowledge base for professional education, (2) relationship to the world of practice, (3) students, (4) faculty, and (5) governance and resources. A total of 18 standards and 94 criteria for compliance make up these five categories. The standards apply to both the basic and the advanced level: the basic unit is a department of education in the School of Arts and Sciences and the advanced unit is a separate Graduate School of Education. In most institutions, one unit is responsible for both levels. The professional education unit is expected to meet these standards at a level judged acceptable at the time of its on-site review by the accreditation team (NCATE, p.43).

CHAPTER II

THE LIBRARY COMPONENT OF ACCREDITATION

Background

In June 1980 COPA and the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) co-sponsored a conference to bring together representatives of the six regional accrediting agencies and academic librarians, nominated by the agencies as having been effective accrediting team members. Papers from the conference were published (Virgo and Yuor, 1981) and included all aspects of library evaluation which concern the accreditation of colleges and universities by the regional associations of schools and colleges. Topics included the library standards published by ACRL such as the Standards for College Libraries and Standards for University Libraries, both of which have been revised since the conference; evaluation from the standpoint of the library; evaluation from the standpoint of the accrediting agency; and improving the effectiveness of each. One of the criticisms voiced at the conference was that the ACRL Standards are too general and do not provide the guidance in the establishment and use of quantitative measures. Although conference participants agreed on the value of academic libraries and their inclusion in the accreditation process, it was clear that

further work needed to be done to bring librarians and accreditation team members closer together.

The COPA/ACRL conference focused on the concerns of the library in regional accreditation of academic institutions, but some correlation can be made to education libraries in the teacher education accreditation process. Criticism of NCATE due to its lack of standards for education libraries began to appear in 1964 (MacVean) and in 1971 (Forman). Both researchers centered on the lack of specific guidelines for the library component of teacher education accreditation. MacVean (1964) reported that inadequate library facilities had not caused any institution to be denied accreditation, but that "certain institutions had been given only provisional accreditation partly for this reason" (p. 174).

Ayers and Berney (1989) reported an examination of the approval process for teacher education programs in all fifty states. They found much variation in accreditation processes, with some states using NCATE standards, some using NASDTEC standards, and many using a combination of both. The approval process of the states that did not use the NCATE or NASDTEC standards were examined in detail and no additional evaluation needs were found, beyond those used by NCATE. They anticipate that the NCATE standards, or some modification of them, will be adopted by more states in the future (p. 6).

The references to libraries in the NCATE Standards are listed under Standard V.B: Resources, Criteria for Compliance, Funding Resources, no. 84:

Financial support provided during the last five years has been adequate for books in education, periodicals listed in Education Index, films and filmstrips, computer hardware and software, and other similar sources.

Under Criteria for Compliance: Library, Equipment, Materials, and Supplies, no. 90:

Library holdings provide adequate scope, breadth, and currency to support the professional education programs.

Under Criteria for Compliance, no. 91:

Systematic reviews of library and media materials are conducted periodically and are used to make acquisition decisions (NCATE, 1990, p. 59).

Gollnick, Interim Deputy Director of NCATE, agrees that NCATE's standards for libraries are not adequate for assessing the quality of collections and services. She believes that specific standards and guidelines would be valuable to NCATE to assist with the accreditation process. Although NCATE includes a representative of ALA on its board, this person does not necessarily work with the library component of accreditation (D. Gollnick, personal communication, November 29, 1989).

The library guidelines from the Oregon Teacher Standards and Practices Commission are as general as those from NCATE. The TSPC addresses library services and

resources in Chapter 584 of the Oregon Administrative Rules, under Materials and Media Services, 584-15-090:

(1) The institution shall provide print and non-print learning resources necessary to support the programs including standard and contemporary holdings in education, pertinent educational periodicals and text books [sic] and other instructional materials used in elementary and secondary schools; (2) The institution shall provide media services to assist candidates in the selection and use of learning resources; (3) The institution shall assure convenient access to materials and media services necessary for practica.

The executive secretary for Oregon TSPC reported that standards or guidelines for education libraries would be valuable to accreditation evaluators, particularly for the colleges of education in Oregon which are not affiliated with one of the larger universities (D. V. Myton, personal communication, November 14, 1989).

CHAPTER III

THE LITERATURE OF EDUCATION

Background

Good (1973) defined education as a social process in which people are "subjected to the influence of a selected and controlled environment (especially that of the school) so that they may attain social competence and optimum development." (p. 202). An even broader view is that education is the sum of the processes that develop human ability and behavior (Page & Thomas, 1977, p. 112). No subject touches as many people or disciplines as the field of education. In 1988 education involved, directly or indirectly, 65 million Americans at a cost of \$311 billion, representing nearly 7% of the gross national product (National Center for Education Statistics, 1989). Education is big business, both in terms of dollars spent and the number of citizens involved in providing or receiving formal education.

One accepted model of the major subdisciplines of education includes the following: (1) higher education; (2) bilingual and bicultural education; (3) multicultural education; (4) special education; (5) adult, community, and continuing education; (6) vocational and technical education; (7) comparative and international education;

(8) early childhood education; (9) health and physical education; (10) history and philosophy of education; (11) educational psychology; (12) educational sociology; (13) curriculum and instruction; and (14) educational administration (Thurston, 1987, p. 56). Related to these subdisciplines are specialities such as tests and measurements, educational technology, urban and rural education, education of minorities, and private education.

One way to understand the literature of a discipline is to approach it as a beginning bibliographer, who must understand how scholars communicate their research and the substantive and bibliographic structure of the discipline (D'Aniello, 1984, p. 12). In an essay entitled "The Science of Bibliography: Theoretical Implications for Bibliographic Instruction," Michael Keresztesi stated "that all documentary and literary products emanating from the activities of each component of a discipline [must] be brought together and organized for use." He further said:

This means all communications, organs, reports, journals, monographs, texts, publications of academic departments, research centers, institutes, university presses, proceedings of meetings and conferences, annual reviews, various reports of the regional, national, and international professional associations and bodies, documents of pertinent government agencies, and bibliographic instruments and reference tools in printed and electronic form. In a word, it means every important piece of record through which a discipline as a system manifests itself." (1982, pp. 20-21).

Government agencies, including those at the national, state, and local level, frequently issue reports on every aspect of public schooling. Local school districts publish curriculum guides which prescribe the district's goals for learning specific subjects and skills at specific grade levels. State Departments of Education also issue curriculum guides, as well as compilations of school and student statistics, subject bibliographies on current awareness areas, and informational pamphlets for parents, students, and teachers.

Speeches, papers, and yearbooks from a variety of professional conferences, meetings, and institutes are other sources of education literature. Some of these are subsequently published, but many are not. The U.S. Department of Education and other government agencies issue numerous publications on all aspects of education. Other sources include private organizations and foundations, such as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the American Council on Education, and the National Council of Teachers of English.

In 1988 nearly 1,000 hardcover and paperback books on education were published in the United States and another 200 hardcover titles were. (Bowker, 1989). These figures do not include most of the books about education in specific subjects, such as music education or science education. The 1989 edition of El-Hi Textbooks and

Serials in Print includes citations and prices for over 36,771 elementary, junior and senior high school textbooks and pedagogical books.

The two major journal indexes in education, Education Index and Current Index to Journals in Education, included 342 and 743 journal titles respectively in 1989. These figures do not include the dozens of local and esoteric serial publications, any of which may have research value for the scholar or practitioner in education. Ulrich's Plus (1990), a comprehensive database on CD-ROM of international serials, lists 6,957 separate titles on all aspects of education (1990). Serial publications present particular problems to the researcher, as well as to the subject bibliographer, because they unexpectedly change their titles and formats, suspend publication or merge with another to form a new title, or cease publication altogether. The escalating cost of journals has also contributed to problems of accessibility, causing many libraries to cancel subscriptions to titles which are not indexed. Several researchers, including Perk and Van Pulis (1977) have studied the correlation between low-use titles and those which are not included in the major indexing and abstracting services for that particular discipline.

One of the most difficult areas for bibliographers and scholars alike is grey literature, because much of the

relevant information for scholars and researchers does not exist in published form; that is, it is released by organizations or institutions in the form of reports, position papers, feasibility studies and the like. This information does not generally add to the wealth of knowledge in a field, but has immediate and practical applications as a source of data that may not exist in any other form (Allison, 1987, pp. 244-45).

Research that has been partially or wholly funded by government grants is certain to appear in the National Technical Information Service (NTIS) database, if related to engineering, or in the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) database, if related to education. This database is critical to the understanding of the literature of education.

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) was established in 1966 by the U.S. Office of Education to provide a link between the producers of educational research and the users who must apply research results innovatively to enhance the quality of education. Organizationally, ERIC consists of a central office (Central ERIC) which establishes policy, funding, and monitors the entire system. In addition, it monitors the clearinghouses, which currently number sixteen. Each clearinghouse specializes in a distinct subfield of education, such as educational management, information

resources, reading and communication skills. Recently, the first adjunct clearinghouse in the history of ERIC was established in the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C., which is also the home of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. The Adjunct Clearinghouse on Literacy Education will collect, analyze, abstract, index, and enter documents in its scope area into the ERIC database. It is intended to link the diverse set of public and private institutions, agencies, and community groups concerned with literacy issues for limited-English-proficient (LEP) adults and out-of-school youth (News from ERIC, 1990).

The objectives used to establish the ERIC system were (1) to guarantee ready access to the world's English-language literature related to education; (2) to generate new information products by reviewing, summarizing, and interpreting current information on priority topics; and (3) to infuse information about educational developments, research findings, and outcomes of exemplary programs into educational planning and operation (Burchinal, 1970, p.56).

Central ERIC, the editorial and computer facility, maintains the ERIC database and prepares the abstract journal Resources in Education, originally called Research in Education, and cited as RIE. Each issue of this monthly publication announces approximately 1,000

documents, provides the full bibliographic citation and an abstract for each. The documents may be reports and other grey literature but also include many published materials. About 98% of these published materials have permission from authors and researchers for them to be made available in microfiche or hard (paper) copy. The microfiche, a product of the central ERIC Document Reproduction Service, are shipped to libraries and educational facilities world wide on a subscription basis. Documents which are not available on microfiche must be obtained from the publisher or producer, as listed in the individual issues of RIE. However, library users need to be aware that many documents may have already been purchased by the library and are listed in the library's catalog or may be available from another library in the area on interlibrary loan. The majority of documents designated as unavailable are book-length monographs from such commercial publishers as the Educational Testing Service.

Another ERIC product is Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE), a monthly index to over 700 journals in education and education-related articles in non-education journals. The abstracts are briefer than those provided for documents in RIE, and consist of only two or three lines of descriptive information about the journal article. Another major difference from the documents abstracted in RIE is that the original articles are not

available in a microfiche collection because it is more difficult to obtain copies of the journal articles announced in CIJE due to copyright restrictions. Users must locate the original issue of the journal in a library or obtain a reprint from one of the organizations that has made arrangements to reimburse the original publishers, such as University Microfilms International or the Institute for Scientific Information.

Although CIJE and RIE differ in scope and purpose, they both use the identical controlled vocabulary for indexing by subject. The Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors now in its 11th edition, is revised periodically to include new subject terms and to exclude or modify subject terms that have become outdated. The ERIC Thesaurus lists broader, narrower, and related subject headings and also lists the number of postings for each term in the database and the year when the term was first established as a descriptor.

The ERIC database was one of the first to be computer searchable. This feature allows citations to documents and articles to be retrieved which are indexed under two or more descriptors, providing only those citations which are relevant to the searcher's interest. Searchers need to be aware, however, that a document or article can be indexed under all the "right" descriptors but may not be relevant to their particular topic.

The advantages of computer searching are several: (1) response time is nearly instantaneous and is limited only by the complexity of the search; (2) searches can be made by fields other than subject, e.g., author, institution, or document type; (3) the searcher can interact with the computer to broaden the search if it proves too narrow, i.e., too few citations are retrieved, or vice versa; and (4) searching is possible by key words or terms in the abstract (or any other designated field) and is not limited to the controlled vocabulary terms (Pocket Guide to ERIC, 1989). The last advantage is particularly useful when the searcher is looking for documents and articles containing new terms that are not, as yet, ERIC descriptors.

ERIC openly advertises for contributions from scholars, researchers, and practitioners for opinion papers, speeches, handbooks, curriculum materials, conference papers, and statistical compilations. It is the most important resource tool in education for both journal literature and grey literature.

In addition to its products and services, ERIC also provides numerous channels for information to the education and library communities. The individual clearinghouses regularly sponsor workshops for librarians and education media specialists.

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATION LIBRARIES

The history of the development of education libraries in the U.S. mirrors the history of teacher education, higher education administration and educational research (Forman, 1972). Most education libraries are associated with an academic institution and may be a separate branch library or a collection in a centralized library. The best known of the former is the Teachers College Library at Columbia University, whose current holdings include half a million volumes and special collections of early English children's books, chapbooks, and U.S. and foreign elementary and secondary school textbooks. Another outstanding education library is the Monroe C. Gutman Library of the Graduate School of Education at Harvard University. Its holdings consist of 150,000 volumes, with special collections in 18th and 19th century textbooks and educational software. The most outstanding non-academic education library in the United States is the Education Research Library, created in 1973 from libraries of the former U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and other library collections. It serves primarily government and legislative officials but is also open to the general public. Its holdings consist of 200,000 volumes, plus an historical textbook collection of 50,000

items. The Education Research Library also houses the archives of the former U.S. Office of Education and the National Institute of Education. Its Information Services Program has an information office to assist librarians and education practitioners with questions about education statistics.

Education librarians have numerous channels for communication with each other through several library organizations. The Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) is particularly important for three reasons: (1) It is recognized as a national organization of academic and research libraries and librarians and is the largest division of the American Library Association (ALA); (2) It has published several standards for various types of college and university libraries; (3) The ultimate recognition and publication of standards for education libraries is appropriate to this organization.

ACRL had its origins in the early meetings of ALA in the late 1880s and became ALA's first self-governing division in 1940. It has grown rapidly and now has over 10,000 members, representing college, university and two-year college libraries from all states and has 14 sections of subject specialization interest. ACRL is important to academic librarians as a means of communicating with each other through its sponsorship of numerous discussion groups, institutes, workshops, and programs. In addition

it publishes several major publications: College and Research Libraries, a scholarly journal of empirical research in academic librarianship, which began in 1939 and has an annual circulation of 13,000; College and Research Libraries News, the official newsletter of the Association which announces continuing education opportunities for academic librarians, job listings, and informal accounts of innovative programs for its members; and Choice, a monthly book selection journal for college libraries, which updates Books for College Libraries, published by ALA and released in a 4th edition in 1988. ACRL also publishes numerous other monographs and serials on all aspects of college and research library administration, collection management, bibliographic instruction, research and resources, special collections, and statistics (Virgo & Schwedes, 1983).

The Education and Behavioral Sciences Section (EBSS) of ACRL publishes the semi-annual EBSS Newsletter, which began in 1986. It presents information on programs of interest to education and behavioral sciences librarians, reports ACRL meetings, news from ERIC, and reviews of new books in education.

Another source of information sharing is Education Libraries, published by the Education Division of the Special Libraries Association (SLA). SLA was founded in 1909 and is an international association of information

professionals who work in special libraries serving business, research, government, universities, newspapers, museums, and institutions that use or produce specialized information. Education Libraries began in 1976, is published 3 times a year and has a circulation of 400. Each issue focuses on a primary theme, such as collection development or resource sharing, but it also includes book reviews in education, news from ERIC, and other items of interest to education librarians.

A new information sharing group has recently been formed within the American Educational Research Association (AERA). This special interest group named Information Technology and Library Resources will focus on library instruction, resources, and information technology for AERA's members.

An example of education librarians sharing concerns with education faculty is the program organized by Charles Thurston, under the auspices of the Society of Professors of Education (SPE) and in cooperation with the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), presented in San Antonio, Texas in 1984. Papers presented at the meeting focused on the necessity for collaboration between librarians and the education faculty in their shared concerns for improving the quality of the library and helping students to become better library users (Bagley, 1985).

The library professional in charge of the education library or collection in an academic library usually has unique collections to manage, in addition to the general education books and serials. The curriculum materials center, which may also be known as the learning resource center, instructional aids center, or any combination of several similar terms, depending on local usage, is often located within the academic library building. It consists of the resources necessary for education students to become familiar with materials for future classroom use, and may include K-12 textbooks and curriculum guides, audio-visual materials, picture and poster files, computers and AV equipment, and the children's literature collection. Literature on the subject of curriculum materials centers supports their administration and location within the academic library, but also recognizes that many different patterns exist (Clark, 1982). At Oregon State University, for example, textbooks, curriculum guides, and children's literature are located in the main library in a special collection, but the computer and audio-visual components are located and administered as part of the College of Education. The University of Oregon library and College of Education have a similar arrangement, but at Portland State University and Western Oregon State College in Monmouth, the curriculum materials center occupies space within the

College of Education and is administered by a professional librarian who is one of the education faculty. In these last two examples, the children's literature collection is monitored by a librarian in the college or university's library. The Directory of Curriculum Materials Centers, published by ACRL in its second edition in 1985, provides a clear picture of the diversity and complexity of these special education collections.

Although many excellent resource tools are available, accessing education information still remains a complex area (Woodbury, 1982). Education libraries serve patrons with a wide diversity of needs: (1) members of the local community who work with school boards or parent-teacher organizations who want to learn how other communities are helping their schools; (2) secondary school students and their parents who need information on colleges, scholarships, and the educational requirements of specific occupations and professions; (3) educational practitioners who, in their roles of teachers and administrators, need to keep abreast of the latest developments in curriculum planning, technology, and educational management; (4) policy makers in education, from the local to the national levels, who must have access to statistical data on current conditions in the schools, as well as future trends which will influence educational policy; (5) scholars in education in all its specialties and

subfields, who need to access the multitudinous sources of education literature for their research interests (Rice, 1989), and (6) undergraduate and graduate students in education who need resource materials for term papers and research reports.

The interdisciplinary nature of education becomes apparent in the classification schemes used by college and university libraries in the United States. Metz (1983) pointed out that classification schemes reflect the inherent nature of a discipline's literature and that these schemes provide maps which determine where that literature will be shelved. In the Library of Congress classification, most materials fall in the Ls, but those on the teaching of particular subjects are classified according to that subject, e.g., the teaching of mathematics is classed in mathematics (QA), rather than education. The interdisciplinary nature of education is also apparent in libraries which use the Dewey Decimal Classification, where the majority of educational materials class in 370, but reading is classed in 028, for example (Rice, 1989, p. 177).

Since a book cannot have more than one call number, multiple subjects are allowed for by subject headings in the card or online catalog. It is therefore essential that library users consult the subject heading source used by the library, most often the latest edition of the

Library of Congress Subject Headings, to determine the appropriate subject headings for their search. A recent work on library research (Fink, 1989) examined the processes and politics in research methodology, particularly in language usage, of which researchers need to be aware.

A standard source for education research is Woodbury's A Guide to Sources of Educational Information (1982). A more recent work is Buttlar's Education: A Guide to Reference and Information Sources (1989). Another recent source is The Educator's Desk Reference (1989), which includes information on many subjects in education, as well as standard reference tools.

CHAPTER V

STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION LIBRARIES

Library standards have developed over many years and have existed nearly as long as libraries. Qureshi (1980) identifies two types of standards:

(a) formal standards, which have been adopted and propagated by a competent authority; and (b) informal standards, which are the cumulative product of experience, but which have not received the imprimatur of authority (p. 470).

Relative to the need for education library standards, Morrill (1981) attempted to determine what effect, if any, the library has had historically in American teachers colleges and normal schools. He noted issues facing teacher education which are still current, such as whether it should emphasize the academic subject of education or the practical and clinical aspect. He asked:

If we assert that some sort of specialized training, above and beyond a liberal arts education, is necessary for the preparation of good teachers, what form should that specialized training take? Academic study of curriculum, of pedagogical techniques, of child psychology, and of school-society relations? Practical training, involving practice teaching and methods course work, in a laboratory or clinical setting? (p. 65)

Morrill noted that our difficulty today in planning for effective education library service is due to the great diversity of teacher education programs which developed in the late 19th century. During this period of expansion,

departments and schools of education in American colleges and universities were established, in addition to the numerous teachers colleges and institutes, to meet the demand for more teachers, which developed in response to the greater opportunities for schooling among the population. The 26th Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers Colleges (AATC) stated:

No set of exact standards...would be equally desirable for all teachers college libraries. Library facilities must be adjusted to the specific purposes and services of the institution and so will vary quantitatively and qualitatively as the purposes vary. If the programs of teachers colleges vary in any significant way, then their library collections will vary significantly in number and content (1947, p. 130).

Rockman (1981) wrote that standards for education libraries were long overdue, and emphasized their value as a guide or appraisal measure, particularly for the library component of teacher education accreditation. She described the work of a committee to identify appropriate standards and speculated that an announcement of the availability of the standards was forthcoming. The "Committee on Standards for Education Library Services" of the Education and Behavioral Sciences Section (EBSS) of ACRL was presented the following charge:

To explore possibilities for developing standards or guidelines for education library services for teacher education and educational research; to explore how such standards or guidelines might relate to ACRL-sponsored college and university library standards; to explore

how quality education library programs might become more clearly a part of the regional, state, and professional accreditation processes for institutions of higher education; and to make appropriate recommendations to the EBSS Executive Committee (p. 61).

Unfortunately, the work of the Committee did not come to fruition, due mainly to the opinion of some members of ACRL that the ACRL Standards for College Libraries and the Standards for University Libraries were sufficient and that subject-specific standards were not necessary. It is not known at this time if the issue of standards for education libraries will be addressed at a future date. (I. Rockman, personal communication, April 2, 1990). In her article, Rockman outlined several criteria as a useful starting point for focusing on standards for education libraries covering library services, collection, personnel, facilities, budget, and administration and governance (p. 61-62).

Williams (1983) believes that library standards are not necessary, because of the great diversity in institutions of higher education. He emphasized that evaluation needs to be an ongoing process, not only for accreditation purposes, but also for an objective appraisal of the institution's health and well-being. He wrote:

...if one supports the idea that diversity is one of the major strengths among colleges and universities in the United States, then tightened controls

may not be considered desirable or even useful. The accrediting agencies see themselves more as agents of change than enforcers of standards, and, in a more mature state, that may be precisely what most institutions of higher education need them to be (p. 171).

In 1988 the Committee on Standards for Education Library Services presented a paper for the annual program of the Education and Behavioral Sciences Section entitled "Getting Started: Preparing for Accreditation: Suggestions from Librarians Who Have Been There..." The paper presented an outline which was recommended for use in preliminary preparation for an accreditation visit in a wide range of settings. It was intended to be useful to both the accreditation team and the librarian who was preparing for the accreditation visit. The outline was presented in the form of questions, and covered budget, collections, facilities, personnel, policy and administration, services, as well as general questions for the accreditation team members (I. Rockman, personal communication, April 2, 1990).

Garten (1989) presented guidelines for the evaluation of library resources for a teacher education program as part of a model and implementation package for the evaluation of teacher preparation programs which were developed by the staff at the Center for Teacher Education Evaluation at Tennessee Technological University (Ayers & Berney, 1989). From the perspective of an education

librarian, however, it contained numerous errors, particularly in the appendix which included a list of "Basic Resources for Support of Teacher Education Programs."

If standards and guidelines for education libraries are ever to be recognized and accepted, they must come from the library professionals who are familiar with the subject area. However, it must also be recognized that the diversity of opinion concerning the need for education library standards may well prevent their formation and adoption.

Because of the lack of specific standards for education libraries, the education librarian may wish to explore one or more of the evaluation methods discussed in the following chapter. Although not intended as a guide for the purpose of accreditation, these methods can provide quantitative and qualitative data to include in the library's report to the accreditation team.

CHAPTER VI

EVALUATION MEASURES FOR EDUCATION LIBRARIES

Background

Several years ago a professor of economics at New York University asked this question about academic libraries: "Can we measure their holdings and acquisitions?" (Machlup, 1976). The question was asked, not by a librarian, but by a scholar interested in the economics and politics of the acquisition of library materials. He sought answers to such theoretical questions as:

whether one hundred books [represent]
twice as much knowledge as fifty books, and
whether fifteen journals [convey] thrice as
much information as five journals (p. 303).

The evaluation question also interests librarians and accreditation teams who must synthesize various opinions and facts into a judgment concerning the adequacy of the library in the accreditation process. The last two decades have brought numerous changes in the environment of academic libraries, including declining budgets, new academic programs, escalating publishing costs, automation, and regional and national networking for resource sharing.

Self-evaluations are frequently undertaken as preparation for the visit of an accreditation team, to determine how well the collection is meeting its

objectives and serving its users, and what needs to be done to deal with deficiencies. Because acquisition of all needed materials is not possible, library selectors must choose from materials which are relevant to today's users and to tomorrow's users, as well.

Mosher (1979) described how selection in academic libraries changed from being primarily a faculty concern to being a library concern. He pointed out that during the 1960s the publishing output grew rapidly, just as faculty were becoming increasingly aware of their need to publish to satisfy tenure and promotion requirements. The value of library book selectors, particularly those with strong subject backgrounds, came to be recognized and most faculty members were relieved to turn the major responsibility for selection over to the library. Speaking in terms of the library's responsibility, Mosher stated:

...librarianship is a profession that requires a capacity for discrimination and judgment. The acquisition, storage, and provision of access to thousands or millions of items requires that librarians be capable of making many judgments and discriminations each day...and it is the librarian's business to ascertain on the basis of the institution's nature, mission and goals, the collection development policy statement, and on the nature of the information needed, what evaluative techniques will be most helpful and meaningful (p.23).

This shift in responsibility has been mutually advantageous in that it has relieved the workload of teaching

faculty and elevated academic librarians to full faculty status in most colleges and universities (ACRL Academic Status Committee, 1987).

Evaluation may be defined as a branch of research to determine how well a program performs; it may be defined by its role in decision-making, as a data-gathering process to determine which strategy might achieve a desired result; or it may be defined as a management tool to assist in the effective allocation of resources. All these viewpoints emphasize that evaluation is a practical exercise to assist with solving problems and making decisions (Lancaster, 1988). Although evaluation will also differ according to the type of library in which it is being undertaken, it will still be a means to obtain specific information (Magrill, 1985). As Wortman (1989) stated in Collection Management: Background and Principles:

Every collection has its unique character. We hope the character of our own collection has developed appropriately over its history to serve its primary users and fulfill our library's mission, and we want to continue to develop and maintain its quality and effectiveness. Evaluation and analysis become, then, integral parts of our collection management program through which we try to ensure that the quality of our work maintains the quality of our collection (p. 122).

A subject collection policy statement is central to the process of collection evaluation. This statement

should reflect the current collecting level, i.e., whether the collection is supporting an undergraduate or graduate level program; it should also reflect the curricular and research programs and the types and academic levels of materials to be acquired; it should reflect the language, chronological periods, and geographical materials to be acquired and the degree of overlap or cross-disciplinary use of the collection; and, finally, it should reflect any cooperative agreements with other libraries which might affect the collecting level (Hall, 1985).

Evaluation may be quantitative, such as recording the number of circulations of a particular library collection over a given period of time; or qualitative, as when the collection is compared with an appropriate library standard. Evaluation may also be collection-centered, which focuses on the perceived value of a collection, or it may be use-centered, which focuses on the library users. Advantages and disadvantages exist for each of these evaluative measures, which are outlined in greater detail in a recent publication of the American Library Association (Lockett, 1989). This chapter presents a few of the appropriate measures for an education library.

Collection-centered Measures

List Checking

Collection-centered measures focus on whether or not the library has acquired the materials it should have acquired or intended to acquire. The most common method of assessing a collection is with the use of lists. List checking involves comparing the holdings of a library against standard recognized lists of books, journals, or other materials. The value of checklists was reinforced by the Committee on Standards for College Libraries when it made the following recommendation in "Standards for College Libraries 1986:"

The library collection should be continually evaluated against standard bibliographies and evolving institutional requirements for purposes both of adding new titles and identifying for withdrawal those titles which have outlived their usefulness (p 192).

The education librarian should know what percentage of journals, owned by the library, are indexed in the two major education indexes, Education Index and CIJE. These figures need to be kept current as new additions are added to the library or to the indexes. Libraries supporting graduate programs in education should also have current figures on the library's journal holdings represented in three of the most important indexes in the social sciences: Psychological Abstracts, Social Science Citation

Index, and Sociological Abstracts. No guidelines or standards exist which suggest the minimum number of journals, represented in these major indexes, which the library should have to be considered adequate.

Woodbury's Guide to Sources of Educational Information (1982) has been a standard reference guide to print and nonprint reference tools for students, practitioners, and researchers in education and can serve as a checklist for education libraries. A more recent publication, Buttler's Education: A Guide to Reference and Information Sources (1989) includes over 900 titles. It lists basic reference sources for the social sciences, as well as for education, and describes reference sources for area specializations such as bilingual and multicultural education, and international and comparative education.

The third edition of Books for College Libraries (BCL) (1988) lists a core collection of 50,000 titles which are considered by ACRL as being essential for an undergraduate library. Approximately 1,120 titles are listed in the volume for social sciences, which includes titles for education and psychology. The titles included were chosen in a two-stage selection process involving college faculty members and academic reference librarians. The majority of contributors are also reviewers for Choice, the monthly book review journal published by ACRL which serves to update BCL (pp. viii-ix).

Another recognized standard for list checking is Guide to Reference Books (Sheehy, 1986), now in its tenth edition. It is comprehensive in scope, including nearly 300 English and foreign titles, with annotations, in education. Only large research libraries in education could be expected to own all the sources cited.

Bibliographies and reading lists from faculty members, as well as bibliographies from published articles such as those in Encyclopedia of Educational Research, can be used for list checking, to see how well the collection provides for particular subject areas. Other sources of lists can be found in the literature, such as one entitled, "Reports on U.S. Reform Since 'A Nation at Risk'" (Education Week, 1988) and a bibliographic essay in Choice entitled, "Educational Wastelands Revisited" (Russo, 1988).

For children's literature, Quimby and Kimmel's Building a Children's Literature Collection (1983) provides a suggested basic reference collection for academic libraries and a suggested basic collection of children's books. Another excellent source, somewhat outdated, is Information Sources in Children's Literature (1978), a reference guide for children's librarians, elementary school teachers, and students of children's literature.

Checking appropriate lists is considered a valid tool for collection assessment, and can be used alone or in combination with other techniques (Evans, 1987). A caveat

of list checking, however, is the credibility of all titles on a single list of essential books in education. An example is the several editions and forms of The Gourman Report, which is listed in Books for College Libraries (1988), Buttlar (1989), and Woodbury (1982). Gourman and his methods were studied extensively by Webster (1986) who stated, "Gourman's books, individually and as a group, are virtually without merit" (p. 323).

Hall (1985), Lancaster (1977), and Lockett (1989) have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the checklist method of evaluation. At this time, no one source has been identified as serving as a core list of essential books in education.

Examining the Collection Directly

Another method for collection evaluation involves examining the collection directly, whereby a person or team familiar with the literature of the subject physically examines materials on the shelves. Although this technique has some advantages, such as identifying materials for weeding, replacement, or restoration, it may not produce quantifiable results. Another disadvantage is that all the materials may not be on the shelves, which necessitates examination of the shelf list or circulation records, also. Because this method is most useful in small libraries, such as a teachers college library, or a

discrete collection, such as an education collection in a large university library, it can be an appropriate evaluation tool, particularly when used in combination with other evaluation measures (Lockett, 1989, p. 7).

Conspectus Approach

The conspectus approach to collection evaluation has received extensive coverage in library literature. It is described as a "breakdown of subject fields in such a way as to allow distributed collection responsibilities for as many fields as possible" (Gwinn & Mosher, 1984). Several major libraries, through a felt need to share in the building of research collections, developed the conspectus concept to facilitate resource sharing. A description of the project and research methodology can be found in the Manual for the North American Inventory of Research Library Collections (Reed-Scott, 1985).

Suggested internal uses of this approach include one which is particularly appropriate for accreditation:

The [Research Library Group (RLG)] Conspectus can respond directly to library-wide or subject-specific standards of accreditation agencies by indicating whether subtopics within the target fields are being collected at an introductory (level 2), undergraduate and graduate course work (level 3) or research (level 4) level. The Conspectus can of course also provide comparative data for the accrediting team's use. (Ferguson et al., 1987).

Since 1985, many academic, special, and public libraries in Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington have contributed information about their collections to the Pacific Northwest Conspectus Database (Forcier, 1988). The Pacific Northwest Collection Assessment Manual (1988), now in its second edition, is a compilation of instruments used for the Pacific Northwest Conspectus. It provides general information about the conspectus approach and can also be used by libraries considering collection analysis. Although worksheets were adapted from the RLG Conspectus (Reed-Scott, 1985), it differs somewhat in that it provides for 10 collecting levels and includes provision for those libraries which use the Dewey Decimal Classification. The Pacific Northwest Conspectus also differs from the RLG Conspectus in that it provides for three levels of collection intensity (Forcier, p. 43).

In 1985 Oregon State University's Kerr Library began a collection analysis project which utilized the Pacific Northwest Conspectus. The education collection was one of five subject collections which were evaluated during the project. Although data from this project was recovered too late to be included in the librarian's report to NCATE in 1985, several specific needs were identified, along with recommendations for meeting these needs. The conspectus method clearly illustrated that much of the education collection was outdated and cluttered with

marginal materials of little value. A pilot project to weed these marginal materials was undertaken shortly after the analysis project was completed (Osheroff & Knittel, in press).

The Directory of Collection Assessment Peer Consultants (1988) lists librarians in the Pacific Northwest, including those at Oregon State University's Kerr Library, who have been trained in the conspectus assessment process. These librarians are willing to provide peer assistance in their subject specialties and type of library.

The conspectus method of collection evaluation has been criticized, primarily due to the subjective nature of assigning numeric values to describe the collection (Henige, 1987). Validation studies are currently being developed by the Research Libraries Group (RLG) and the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) to test the validity of conspectus values (Lockett, 1989, p. 15).

Use-centered Measures

Use-centered measures focus on the users to determine who they are and if they are able to find the materials they need. Lancaster (1988) noted that a defect of many library use assessments assume that users' time is free, when patrons could be spending their time elsewhere and, perhaps, in more productive ways (pp.10-11).

Circulation Statistics

Studies of circulation statistics can provide information concerning areas where duplicate titles are needed, where low-usage materials might be sent to storage, and where adjustment of collection development practices needs to be made. Automation of libraries' circulation procedures provides many opportunities for quantitative data and can correlate type of user and types of materials which the user borrows (Lockett, pp. 9-10).

In-house Use Studies

In-house use studies aim to determine use of library materials within the library and to augment circulation statistics. This method is particularly appropriate for measuring the use of journals and other library materials which do not circulate. Hall (1985) outlined this procedure and methods for analyzing and interpreting data.

Shelf Availability Studies

Shelf availability studies focus on whether or not the user can locate materials which the library is presumed to own. Users can be interviewed or asked to complete a short questionnaire when they enter the building. Failure to find the desired materials may include an incomplete call number, an item not on the shelf, an item not shelved

correctly, an item checked out, or the user's inability to understand how materials are arranged (Lockett, p. 12).

Document Delivery Tests

Related to shelf availability studies are document delivery tests in which the library staff attempt to locate certain items and record how long it takes to find them. These studies also include the element of citation analysis in that the library can determine not only if particular materials are in the collection but also how long it takes to locate them (Lockett, p. 14).

Analysis of Interlibrary Loan Statistics

Analysis of interlibrary loan statistics is another use-centered measure which provides an indication of users' unmet needs. This information is important to the librarian who does selection, for it helps to identify books and journals needed to fill gaps in the collection.

User Surveys

Unmet users' needs can also be determined by surveying users for their opinions on how well the library is performing in providing materials. Hall (1985) provided several examples of surveys useful for faculty, graduate students, and other users.

Citation Analysis

Citation analysis is a simulated use study in which the number of times a document is cited in indexes or other publications is counted and compared with other documents. The assumption is that items which are heavily cited will be used more frequently than others. Citation studies may be based on use of the literature by many scholars or based on use of the literature by the library's patrons (Lockett, p. 13).

The citation analysis research reported by Buzzard and New (1983) focused on doctoral dissertations completed at the University of California, Irvine. The hypothesis tested in this study was that the UCI Library collection included 90 percent of the materials required by UCI Ydoctoral candidates for their research. User studies report in the literature that, regardless of size, libraries have acquired an average of 90 percent of the materials requested by users. Buzzard and New tested a sample of dissertations from the three broad disciplines of the humanities, social sciences, and sciences and found that the 90 percent rule applied when the data from all three areas were averaged. However, when the data was subdivided by broad field, they found that the samples in the social sciences fell below the 90 percent level and that the samples in the sciences rose above it (p. 473).

Application of Library Standards

No identifiable standards have been established for education libraries by either the education profession or the library profession. However, ACRL's Standards for College Libraries (1986) can be an appropriate measure for teachers college libraries and other institutions defined in the Classification of Institutions of Higher Education by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as Liberal Arts Colleges I and II and Comprehensive Universities and Colleges I and II (1987).

ACRL's Standards for University Libraries: Evaluation of Performance (1989) is described as "a model procedure for determining measurable expectations" (p. 679). The standards are designed to help the library and university administration determine priorities and evaluate the library's performance in terms of the university's mission. The Standards state:

Basic to this document is the proposition that each university library system is unique and therefore should determine its own criteria for performance and evaluation. ...University libraries must become skilled in the process of examining and redefining as necessary their missions, establishing coherent goals whose attainment may be measured, continually and effectively assessing the needs of users, and identifying and applying those measures that will reveal the extent to which it has been successful in fulfilling its mission (p. 689).

In addition to the evaluation methods presented above, new tools are being developed to aid in the evaluation of collections. One such tool is called the OCLC/AMIGOS Collection Analysis CD-ROM. Based on the nationwide library database, Online Computer Library Center (OCLC), a library can compare its holdings, title by title, with those of peer libraries. One caveat, however, is that state university presses are not included, which automatically excludes books published by major state university presses such as the State Universities of California and the State University of New York. This omission occurred because state university press publications are coded as government documents in the Library of Congress, and the OCLC/ AMIGO Collection Analysis CD-ROM excluded government documents in its database (J. C. Calhoun, personal communication, April 2, 1990). Although it is too early to determine the value of this CD-ROM, it may prove to be an important supplemental tool for collection development and resource sharing.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Institutions which support teacher education programs undergo periodic evaluation by accrediting agencies to ensure that the program meets or surpasses the criteria for accreditation. Accreditation is not unique to teacher education. All professions employ one or more methods to ensure that new members have met the requirements for membership, which may include examinations, internship, or graduation from a college or university approved by an accrediting body of members of the profession.

Accreditation of teacher education programs usually includes a library component which requires a college or university librarian to present evidence of library support for the program. Accrediting agencies, such as NCATE and Oregon TSPC, lack specific guidelines for the library portion of accreditation. NCATE, for example, specifies that financial support should be adequate for "books in education, periodicals listed in Education Index, films and filmstrips, computer hardware and software, and other similar sources" (NCATE, 1990, p. 59). The NCATE Standards do not mention the ERIC indexes and microfiche collection of ERIC documents which are essential for accessing the literature of education; the NCATE Standards do not specify whether 50 books in

education or 90 percent of the education books listed in Books for College Libraries (BCL) is considered adequate.

The lack of specific library standards and guidelines by accrediting agencies has been both criticized and defended in the literature on the subject. Educators and librarians in favor of strict standards believe that they would enhance the library and give greater credibility to its services and collections; those opposed to standards for education libraries believe that each teachers college and teacher education program is unique and that the library should reflect the parent institution's individuality.

This issue may never be resolved until an appropriate library organization of education librarians takes the necessary action to implement change in the library component of teacher education accreditation. As resource sharing, document delivery, and the electronic transfer of information become more commonplace, standards will need to reflect the increased service aspect of librarianship. No one can predict with any certainty what new information technologies will be developed in the future or what teacher education students will be required to learn. Collection development will still be important, but will be concerned with many more information sources than books, serials, microforms, and CD-ROMs.

Recent and ongoing developments in computer technology

will continue to influence education and libraries. Finn predicts that the textbooks of the future will be smaller in size and have less significance in the average classroom ("Textbooks," 1989). The McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, however, recently announced a procedure for producing textbooks which could be custom-designed for teachers. The technique would allow educators to choose from an array of materials in a computerized database and is already being tested in a supplement to a college level textbook in accounting. McGraw-Hill expects to expand its system to include pre-college textbooks, as well ("McGraw-Hill Technique," 1989).

Weber (1990) expects to see technological developments, by the end of the decade, for books and other texts to be read from inexpensive, hand-held computers and reproduced nearby on photographic-quality color printers.

The Adonis project, a consortium of European publishers, plans to begin distribution to subscribers next year of a weekly issue of a CD-ROM carrying the stored images of pages from the current issues of more than 400 scientific journals. Each page of the journals can be reproduced with the same appearance as the originals. Researchers on the Adonis project are currently working on the design of an index that will allow users not merely to reconstruct its contents but also to allow them to select the items likely to be of

interest in their research (Maddox, 1990).

The future implications of the Adonis project and other technological developments in the publishing industry are difficult for educators and librarians to comprehend at the present time. It will become even more imperative, however, that education libraries and teacher education programs continue to work together.

CHAPTER VIII

RECOMMENDATIONS

Efforts should be continued to formalize standards for education libraries and collections which support teacher education programs. Such standards would benefit agencies which are involved in accreditation and would also benefit college and universities. These should be based on the college and university standards already published and recognized by ACRL. As a first step, a core collection of library materials, both print and non-print, need to be identified. Further empirical research also needs to be undertaken to determine collection strengths and weaknesses. The most promising evaluation technique at the present time appears to be the conspectus approach; further research on eliminating subjective bias would be a valuable addition to library literature on evaluation.

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