



Library Service to Children and Young People

SARA INNIS FENWICK

LIBRARY SERVICE to children as a public responsibility is a development of the twentieth century, but the foundations for those services were being laid throughout the 1800s. The development was not one of steady progress. The early attempts on the part of well-meaning men and women to provide children with books were often sporadic and abortive. Nevertheless, all such efforts were directed quite consistently toward a goal of providing books for youth that would foster their education as effective and useful citizens. With a variety of interpretations and in many different settings, this goal has continued throughout the past 150 years.

A survey of the development of library service to children can no more be treated neatly within the dates 1876-1976 than can any other aspect of library services; neither can children's library service be regarded as a separate and distinct phenomenon. Children were members of every community in which libraries of a variety of forms—association, subscription, circulating, and eventually free public and school—were established, and it is reasonable to assume that in many library situations there were children knocking at the doors, sitting in the reading rooms, and benefiting from books borrowed by adult relatives. The rapidity with which children made their needs known, and the characteristics of the response by the community, were largely dependent on the geographical, social and economic setting of the community. The timing of the development of children's services was influenced by the changing status of children in the family, and in community relationships.

The change in the status of children during the nineteenth century was characterized by a gradual awareness of the needs of children as individuals. Essentially, there was recognition that childhood is not merely a chrysalis period during which the child's body grows to

Sara Innis Fenwick is Professor Emeritus, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago.

adulthood, but that it is rather a part of a continuous experience of living in which each state has its unique physical, emotional and spiritual needs. This level of regard for childhood and its needs did not come easily or quickly in the early years of the last century, but gradually flowered as an aspect of the consciousness of a new nation with egalitarian and democratic ideals.

Generally, it can be said that children were themselves the instigators of the development of library services to fit their needs. This they achieved by continued and persistent demands to share in every advance in the design, organization and delivery of service to the general public. From those records that exist, we can perceive the children's presence, but we can also recognize from these meager references that they were always in the background when a new building or new service was inaugurated. This spontaneous pressure of youth on community services can be traced throughout the history of the public library.

This paper will look at selected events that marked the development of library services to children in the last century, marking the time in rather large periods, not because they have unusually definite time boundaries, but because they relate to periods of change in the history of both public libraries and public schools. Such a discussion must begin with a brief survey of what had been happening to children and libraries before the year 1876.

EARLY LIBRARIES FOR CHILDREN, 1800-1876

Social historians look in a general way upon the early years of the last century in this country as a beginning of the emancipation of children from the world of stern Puritan spiritual values and rules of conduct, to the more secularized atmosphere of the newly formed nation. The recently enunciated statement concerning the rights of all free men did not yet include children, but there was a growing interest in the needs of children and a concern not only for the spiritual, but for the moral, intellectual and aesthetic development of children. This was a favorable climate for writing books appealing to children's interests as well as providing them with knowledge and moral guidance. Only a small fraction of the juvenile population in these years was able to benefit from the increased number of books available for children. These years also saw the beginning of the industrialization of this country, and the social and economic changes that would continue and accelerate throughout most of the century.

Service to Children and Young People

Especially in the eastern cities, changes that affected many children were to be found in the growth of cities, the movement from an agricultural society to an urban one, and the beginnings of child labor in factories and mines for many children of poorer families. At a very young age, children were becoming an economic asset to the family as well as to the employer; this condition would continue to spread well into the second half of the century before there was organized concern for the social welfare of children.

At the beginning of the century, there was also a commitment to free education at least to a level of basic literacy, and it was to this end that the provision of opportunities to read assumed an importance to the social conscience of the country. A tool was at hand in the form of the Sunday school. The primary purpose of this institution was to provide educational opportunities for the children of the poor who could not benefit from the private schools attended by most of the children of wealthy families at that time. In this setting the Sunday school library evolved. Such libraries were collections of books made up chiefly of religious publications. The high regard for books and libraries as tools for educating the young and instilling correct moral values was reflected in the proliferation of these small church libraries. Because of the educational purpose of these collections, books were added in subject areas which considerably broadened the collection from the initial religious tracts and denominational publications. The operation of these libraries was similar to the pattern of the association libraries, but for children in many small towns and rural areas they were the greatest source of free books. In this role they served as forerunners of the movements for school and public libraries. Frank K. Walter noted this pattern in an article in which he quotes an 1839 report of the American Sunday School Union: "We have succeeded in circulating nearly or quite eighteen millions of publications. . . . The plan of district school libraries was suggested in our periodicals as early as 1826, and we do not think it arrogant to claim that the influence of Sunday schools and Sunday school libraries is distinctly visible in the present demand for cheap popular libraries for common schools."¹

Children also benefited in this early period from the activities of philanthropic citizens. In fact, most of the early records of establishment of libraries for children trace their origins to the generosity of a wealthy person. Most of these early libraries were located in New England; the small communities there, with long-established town-meeting governments and a long colonial history of concern for an

educated citizenry, made early response to the needs for libraries both more recognizable and more realizable.

The most frequently cited example of the philanthropic children's library was the juvenile library established in 1803 by Caleb Bingham of Salisbury, Connecticut. A Boston bookseller and publisher, Bingham remembered his frustrated youthful desire for the opportunity to read more books; from his successful business assets he gave a collection of 150 titles to be made freely available to the nine-to-sixteen-year-old children of the community. This collection, known as the Bingham Library for Youth, was well received and in 1810 the town meeting voted to allocate \$100 for the purchase of suitable titles. This is probably the first example of an American municipal governing body contributing financial assistance to public library service.²

There were other instances of libraries for children established by men interested in the reading of youth and who had the financial means to make a contribution to their community. They existed for varying lengths of time, and some were absorbed into the general town libraries. Others simply wore out, and the lack of continuing funds or interested citizens to continue support put an end to their existence as libraries.

After the very early, sporadic juvenile libraries—like Salisbury, usually the result of one man's interest and concern—the general pattern of separate public library facilities for children did not develop. Such libraries—with separate building, staff and budget, and basically independent—were a fairly common development in some other countries until quite recent times, but in the United States this has not been a tradition. There have been, and still are, a few notable examples, but they have usually been well integrated with the adult library services to provide a total library program. The later influence of the Carnegie buildings in the many small and medium-sized municipalities, closely following the accelerated movement toward the special reading rooms for children may have influenced the development of services to fit the available facilities. In any case, the general procedure was to house all services in a single building with a greater degree of access to the total collection for all users.

Evidence that children were in fact, if not in plan, early public library users is in the records of the Peterborough, New Hampshire library. According to Shera, this library was remarkably like a modern public library in its relations with the municipal government.³ The town took advantage of a fund redistributed from an abortive special state educational fund. In 1833, Peterborough voted to bring the

Service to Children and Young People

fund total to \$150 to purchase books for a town library. Added to this collection was a juvenile library, an existing subscription library of 200 books. As described in the records, "Most of these Books having been in use for several years, are considerable worn, and the number is not sufficient to accommodate the young persons in Town, as is very desirable."⁴ Records of the founder of that juvenile library indicate his desire to promote free public library service for the whole community as early as 1828.

During this same period a number of educational leaders believed that the development of an educated citizenry depended not only on literacy but also upon the opportunity to read, and they strongly urged lawmakers to translate the educational purposes of library collections for children into legislation at the state level. The result was the enactment of school district laws in a number of states from approximately 1830 to 1850. The first was a law passed by the New York legislature permitting school districts to levy a tax with matching funds to be provided. Massachusetts enacted a similar law in 1837, but few districts in either state availed themselves of the laws. By 1876 nineteen additional states had provided legislation with similar results. The school district laws of this period could not be termed successful in contributing to the development of adequate library services. Over a period of time the failure to provide for annual appropriations, or for any caretaker function, resulted in worn and dwindling collections, many of which disappeared or were absorbed by other libraries. These libraries were in no sense a foundation for the school library to come; they were actually public libraries for adults. School district libraries, operating under school district legislation, were to make a new appearance in a number of states some decades later.

It might have been expected that the school library would appear very much earlier on the library scene than it did, given the emphasis on education in the library movement as a whole. Furthermore, the examples of children's libraries that erupted in the early decades of the nineteenth century, isolated as they were, cannot be considered as laying any recognizable foundations for the eventual development of the public and school libraries that were to come in the twentieth century. The source of our interest, beyond the "first instance" of a collector's fascination, is in the visible signs of the new interest in children's welfare and in the growing concern to make reading experiences available to them.

CHILDREN'S LIBRARY NEEDS RECOGNIZED BY THE
NEWLY IDENTIFIED PROFESSION, 1876-1900

The centennial year of our nation's founding has become the birthday of the library profession to such an extent that we lean heavily upon that date as the beginning of all worthwhile activity. Certainly, the events of that year marked the beginning of a professionalization and a national visibility for librarians, with the organization of the American Library Association, the beginning of a publication to discuss the issues before the profession and to report opinion, and a national report, *Public Libraries in the United States of America*,⁵ from the U.S. Bureau of Education. There was, of course, no work with children to report; in fact, there was no mention of children's service in the report itself, since restrictions on use of libraries by children were the general rule. There was, however, a special section of the publication titled "Public Libraries and the Young." In this section, William I. Fletcher raised questions about the public library's responsibility to the young. He was particularly critical of the usual age limitations on children's use of library collections:

The lack of appreciation of youthful demands for culture is one of the saddest chapters in the history of the world's comprehending not the light which comes into it. Our public libraries will fail in an important part of their mission if they shut out from their treasures minds craving the best, and for the best purposes, because, forsooth, the child is too young to read good books.⁶

This report was an important statement, and provoked discussions about the age limitations on library use, as well as on the quality of the books being written for children for many years to come. As any children's librarian recognizes, these are questions that have continued to be asked up to the present.

To concentrate on the specific events of 1876, however, would be to ignore the changes in the political and social life in this country that had nourished some steady progress during the two decades preceding the centennial year. This growth took place in the setting of the expansion of the frontier, and a divisive and debilitating civil war. Sociologists point out that the increase of wealth after the Civil War brought increased industrialization, and with it an increased dependence on child labor. To counteract this, there was an organized effort to improve child welfare, as evidenced in the founding of the first settlement houses in New York City and Chicago; the first

directed playground was established, and juvenile courts were established in four of the largest cities.

Concerning children's experience with books and reading, there was a growth of available free education, increased access to public library reading rooms and Sunday school libraries, and an expanding publication of juvenile books. That these publications were not all of the best quality was evident from contemporary critics of the 1860s and the 1870s. Richard L. Darling, in studying the reviewing of children's books for that period, states: "In the new rush of freedom in children's books many authors, at least in the eyes of their contemporaries, went much too far, so that one of the great outcries of the time was against 'sensationalism' in children's books."⁷ Darling goes on to point out that much of this particular criticism was leveled at one of the most prolific and popular authors of the time, William T. Adams, who wrote adventure stories under the pseudonym Oliver Optic. In this dubious reputation he was joined by Horatio Alger, Jr. Darling notes that the publication *Old and New* reported that in three months of 1870 the most popular boy's books at the Boston Public Library were those written by Oliver Optic and Horatio Alger, Jr.

Fortunately, this new freedom in children's books had by this time produced Louisa May Alcott's first books, Mary Mapes Dodge's *Hans Brinker*, and, from England, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, among a host of others. There was still a multitude of publications in the Sunday school literature genre, but there were also periodicals, notably *The Youth's Companion*, founded in 1827, which continued to be a favorite family magazine; *Our Young Folks*, which made a considerable contribution in its short life from 1865 to 1873, and the appearance of *St. Nicholas* in 1873.

Increased publishing and the rise of serious literary criticism brought questions concerning what children were reading to the attention of librarians, who saw increasing numbers of children using libraries through the help of parents' memberships and school loans. The need for some professional guidance in the selection of juvenile books was beginning to be recognized, and librarians welcomed a list developed by Caroline Hewins in 1882, which became a widely used selection aid. It was a pamphlet of fewer than one hundred pages, classified and annotated; most importantly, the selection represented the best children's books available at that time. This list was revised a number of times; the last edition appeared in 1915.

In the period 1876-1900, other questions relating to children's

services were addressed by the national forum of the American Library Association and the *Library Journal*, questions that were plaguing libraries in all parts of the country by the end of the century. Among them were the question of age restrictions raised by William Fletcher in 1876 as part of the question of an open-shelf reading room, and the question of special facilities for children. Individual library reports and papers and discussions reported from national conferences give continuing evidence of the number of juvenile patrons who were making their presence felt, and who were literally pushing open the doors still closed to them by the majority of librarians, who believed children were best served through book loans to schools.

In 1890, a New York City school principal set up a library for children using an old school collection. Its members paid a dollar and there was often a line of children waiting to get in. Melvil Dewey became interested in the project and urged that this undertaking be given space in the new George Bruce Branch of the New York Circulating Library. This was done, but the move was not a welcome one to the branch library patrons. It was noted that: "A problem was created, as soon as the age limit was abolished and the doors of public libraries were open to the young. They did not come in one by one in a decorous manner; they poured in. Their very numbers forced the doors to open wider and wider, and demanded separate provision for service."⁸ Elizabeth Nesbitt noted another example in the case of the Boston Public Library:

An instance of the problem libraries were meeting is provided by the Boston Public Library which, in 1895, opened a new building to the public. That public included the inevitable large number of children, with the equally inevitable results that the staff had a situation on their hands, since no provision had been made for children. In less than two months, two thousand books for children were placed on open shelves in a room on the second floor.⁹

There is ample evidence that these experiences were common as library administrators tried to deal with the lengthening lines of children, and at the same time not to antagonize their adult users. It was with the leadership of farsighted men like John Cotton Dana and William Brett that the doors began to open to children. Once they were inside the doors, the quality of service to children was not overlooked, as suggested by a report of the Examining Committee of the Boston Public Library in 1895:

Service to Children and Young People

The children's room should be the most important place in the city for the training of those readers without whom the Library is a mere ornament, or at best a convenience for scholars, instead of the nursery of good citizenship which it was meant to be. In the opinion of your committee, no time should be lost in filling the shelves of this room with books, and in providing the most adequate guidance for their use. Advantage should be taken of the newly awakened interest in the Library building which is now bringing many children to it from curiosity, and they should be lured by every legitimate device to stay there for reading.¹⁰

It was even recommended in the same report that the most helpful and inspiring attendant should be on duty here, and that the room be made attractive with globes, maps, magazines, and pictures of great Americans.

The decade 1890-1900 not only marked the advance in opening general reading rooms and circulation desks to children, but was also a time of general progress toward accommodating the unique needs of children, needs that called for special facilities, collections, staff and guidance. A survey of the reports from libraries and conferences brings to the fore the activities of pioneers in the field who are repeatedly cited for leadership, both in the public forum and in practice. Notable leaders include: Minerva Saunders who set aside a room for children in the Pawtucket, Rhode Island, Public Library in 1877, provided small chairs for their comfort, and even issued some books to them; and Caroline Hewins, librarian at the Hartford, Connecticut, Public Library, whose annual reports to the American Library Association beginning in 1882 kept the matter of children's reading before that body. (A most interesting and informative book dealing in a personal way with the reading matter of nineteenth-century children is Hewins's volume *A Mid-Century Child and Her Books*). A third name on the roster of influential leaders is Lutie Stearns of the Milwaukee (Wisconsin) Public Library, who delivered a paper entitled "Report on Reading for the Young" to the 1894 conference of the ALA. She spoke of the need to abolish age limitations and to provide special rooms for children, with designated attendants to provide service. The first general meeting devoted to a discussion of these issues related to children took place at this conference, marking a general acceptance by the profession of children's service in libraries.

SARA INNIS FENWICK
BOOKS FOR USE IN SCHOOLS

While librarians in the last quarter of the nineteenth century were involved in solving the problems of the role of children's services in the public library, they were also devoting attention at the local and national levels to the definition of their responsibility to public school children. Methods and resources used for teaching were gradually changing, affecting the needs of teachers and pupils for library materials. The early textbook-centered education, developed to provide the basic elements of literacy in a mass-education situation, was being gradually modified by progressive teachers to embrace a broader range of learning activities including the use of books appropriate to children's ability and interests. The changes came gradually—in fact, the accumulation was barely perceptible until the first decade of the next century—but educators and librarians were already asking questions about the effectiveness of the teaching of reading in the schools in light of the limited opportunities to use reading skills once acquired.

An editorial in the April, 1898, issue of *Library Journal* described the philosophic change that had been taking place in the public schools: "Within the past year or two the phrase 'the library and the child'—which was itself new not so long ago—has been changed about. It is now 'the child and the library,' and the transposition is suggestive of the increasing emphasis given to that phase of library work that deals with children, either by themselves or in connection with their schools."¹ The latter sentence suggests the issue that was at the center of an increasing volume of professional discussion. The attitude that had characterized the relationships of schools and public libraries, for the past fifty years was that children were best served by making books available in special loans to teachers who could guide the children's use of them. This attitude justified age limitations on children's individual use of public libraries. However, the gradual changes in teaching and subject matter (calling for additional study resources to supplement the textbook) and the emphasis on fostering a love of reading and literature called for more and more books for both teachers and children. Loan privileges became greater, and children were admitted to special reading rooms and eventually given borrowing privileges. The major question, however, was not solved. What should be the relationship of the public school and the public library?

Reports of individual libraries around the turn of the century

Service to Children and Young People

indicate that the public libraries were developing strategies for meeting the demands for books in the schools. Most librarians saw this extension of their resources as legitimate responsibility, and one aspect of their response to an increasing variety of community needs.

Community public libraries met the school demands in a variety of ways. Library collections were increased to provide classroom loans in bulk deliveries. Some of the larger libraries eventually established special departments for service to schools. Cities that at an early date generously placed classroom collections in schools include: Cleveland, Worcester, Providence, Buffalo, Detroit, Milwaukee, and New York. In New York, a special department of the New York Free Circulating Library was opened in 1897; in Buffalo, the public library and the schools worked out a cooperative plan for service in 1898. These were indications of the steps public libraries and schools would be taking in the next decades to implement their interpretations of their respective roles in providing libraries.

At the national level, the desire to involve more teachers and school personnel in the problems associated with school-related library needs induced John Cotton Dana to petition the National Education Association in 1898 with a request for the creation of a library department within the association's structure. The petition was approved and a committee appointed to study the issues involved and make recommendations for future relationships. The report of this committee, entitled *Report of the Committee on the Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools*¹² was presented in 1899. Among other suggestions, it recognized the need for a small, carefully selected library in every grammar school, and it gave some guidelines for forms of cooperation that would make teachers better able to use libraries, and librarians better able to serve the schools. A variety of administrative patterns was already beginning to emerge; concern for the provision of library materials in the schools would continue to be a matter of controversy for years to come.

ORGANIZING THE NEW SERVICES FOR CHILDREN, 1900-1920

The first twenty years of this century must certainly been the most challenging and exciting years in library history for children's librarians. It was a period of experimentation, of developing and organizing new methods of working with both individual children and groups of children. It was the beginning of children's librarians'

influence on bookmaking and publishing, and it brought into the profession a group of professionally trained children's librarians. In 1954, Elizabeth Nesbitt summarized the developments in the profession:

Public library work with children, as an organized specialization, is little more than half a century old. This length of time is not far in excess of the possible professional lifetime of a single librarian. The significance of this point lies in the fact that children's library work, in the last two decades, has been emerging from the impetus and vigor of the pioneer period. Until the thirties this phase of library work had been under the control of the group of children's librarians who, building on the ideas and inspiration of the real pioneers, established children's work on a departmental basis, developed methods, and formulated objectives. Historical perspective, always important, is essential in this postpioneer era if the present is to be truly evaluated and the future predicted with any validity.¹³

Nesbitt gave recognition to the seeds sown by early pioneers in the children's work, and attributed the developments of the following years to their persistence. Among these developments Nesbitt included: (1) establishing children's work on a departmental basis, (2) extending it into the branches, (3) determining criteria for the evaluation of children's literature, (4) developing relationships with community agencies for youth, (5) identifying and producing bibliographical aids, and (6) developing group and individual methods of reading guidance.

Professional education for children's librarians—a new breed in the 1890s—was to provide stimulus for the remarkable vitality of the early twentieth century. As has been the case with most professions, the establishment of recognized training programs not only gave dignity and respect to a segment of the profession but, by achieving some uniformity of philosophy and methods among the practitioners, created a body of knowledge and skills unique to that professional group.

Pratt Institute, with Anne Carroll Moore as instructor, began offering lectures on children's library work in 1896, and in 1900 Frances Jenkins Olcott started the training class for children's librarians at Carnegie Library in Pittsburgh. The following year this class became the training school for children's librarians in response to the

need for them throughout the country. Until 1917 this school trained children's librarians exclusively, and its graduates filled positions and provided leadership in all parts of the country for the next several decades.

During this time, establishment of administrative patterns in libraries caused problems for library administrators. New York Public Library set the pattern for departmental organization of children's work in 1906 with the appointment of Anne Carroll Moore as children's librarian. For many years she provided leadership in the development of staff and services and was an outstanding influence on the quality of children's literature through her guidance in developing criteria for selection, her work with authors and publishers, and her critical writings in national publications.

The administrative patterns being developed for school library services were beginning to receive attention from administrators and educators. There was a growing concern with the volume of reference work that pupils at both secondary and elementary levels were expected to do. The main criticism was that teachers were not trained in the use of libraries, and thus were unable to teach their pupils how to use books and bibliographical aids. Dorothy Broderick cited five articles bearing directly on the problems of reference work with children, all of them published between 1895 and 1901, and all of them in some way critical of teachers' assignments.¹⁴

There was a rapidly increasing use of books, pamphlets, magazines, maps, photographs—any materials which the librarian could produce—by more students in more schools; this was particularly evident in the schools in larger cities that were gradually being affected by a growing emphasis on the subject-centered curriculum. The leading colleges of teacher education conducted research on the basic content of the elementary school curriculum, and individual leaders such as Edward Thorndike, Guy Buswell, Carleton Washburne, William Gray and Charles Judd were working to raise education to the level of a respected science. The schools themselves were changing their organization of the child's learning experiences, influenced by the examples of the Dewey school and its successor, the University of Chicago Laboratory School, the Francis Parker School, the Dalton School and others, all pioneers in the progressive movement away from the textbook study to activity-centered learning. These developments put pressure on schools to provide more and varied learning resources; this need was passed on to the public libraries, which for

some years had been accepting the responsibility and developing the experience and expertise to provide service and books for all the children in the community.

Several forms of administration of services to schools were developing through these years. They generally fell into one of the following patterns: (1) responsibility for all library services in schools and in the public library assumed by the library; (2) responsibility for school service shared by the school administration and the public library administration; and (3) responsibility for the school library service assumed by the school administration, and that for the public library service assumed by the public library administration. In view of the origins of public library service to schools, one might expect that these patterns followed in this order, moving toward the assumption of all services by the school itself; however, this was not always true.

Shared responsibility for services probably did develop more frequently as an outgrowth of the first pattern when the increasing volume of needs for more books and more staff began to overtax the resources of the public library. Forms of cooperation with the administration of services to schools took a variety of dimensions. The most common ones were probably the bulk loans to classroom libraries, which began very early in the relationship of schools and public libraries and continued well into the second half of the twentieth century. A more complex pattern of shared services, usually of shorter duration yet fairly common, was the schools provision of space and funds for books, and aid in book purchasing, preparation and cataloging, and special reference and guidance. The characteristics of the guidance services were dependent, of course, on the staff in the children's department at the public library; these might range from periodic visits to the school to examine the books and talk with the teachers, to a regular schedule of the children's librarian at the school, during which time the library collection was made available and the librarian issued books to the children and the teachers, essentially conducting a public library extension center. Not infrequently the result of this pattern of service was that the school library became a branch of the public library, providing service to the adult community as well as to the children.

The shared library service pattern developed to its most formal, governmental form under school district laws enacted in a number of states, especially in the Midwest. Under this legislation public libraries and public schools were under the same governing board, sometimes

Service to Children and Young People

a board of education, sometimes a library board appointed by the board of education. Whatever the allocation of responsibility, all general policies, budgets and appropriations, and major capital outlay plans were channeled through the board of education. In states where these school district laws continued in force for many years, the assumption of all responsibility for school library services by the board of education was likely to be delayed.

The article by Dorothy Broderick referred to earlier points out problems of school/library relationships at this early stage in library history (problems which continued into the new century) to underscore the article's title, "PLUS ÇA CHANGE: Classic Patterns in Public /School Library Relations":

Clearly, many roadblocks still found in the library and education worlds which preclude genuine cooperation between the two have roots going back almost 100 years. Public librarians wanted teachers and pupils to know how to use books and libraries—but it was the public library they were to use. Educators were quite willing to expand the curriculum and broaden the approach to learning, but without assuming responsibility for providing the materials needed for changes.¹⁵

The high school library had a different history, and had just begun to demonstrate its strength in the educational scene in the 1890s. In those years the libraries in most secondary schools were likely to be miscellaneous collections of reference and textbooks, in addition to the literary classics read in English classes. In the following twenty years the secondary school libraries were less frequently under the direct administration of the public library, but they were selected as the site for many public library branches, particularly where there was a school district public library. In this arrangement they served the school as a school library, and at the same time were operated as a public library with continuous access for both student and adult users. Furthermore, such libraries were staffed with employees of the public library. One of the frequent criticisms of the library services in this setting was the fact that librarians were trained as public librarians and employed by the public library. For the majority of secondary schools, however, even in these early years, there was a library, if not always a librarian, and there was a minimum of reference books available to students.

The problems and opportunities of new administrative patterns were challenging, but the great contributions of this period were in

the methods for promoting reading and in the reading guidance programs. The decades of the latter part of the nineteenth century and the first of the twentieth have been called by many literary historians "the golden age of children's literature in the English language." Such a statement is acceptable when one examines the number of long-lived titles written during those years. By the turn of the century, however the potential market in inexpensive series books had also been recognized, and the growing flood of these formula-written books was evident. It was not accidental, then, that the children's librarians of this period were concerned with the quality of the books children were reading. They responded to this concern by setting high standards of literary quality for their book selection, and by producing lists of worthwhile and appealing books to attract young readers. The motivation for many of the reading guidance techniques was the desire to bring the best books to the attention of children. Long before there were actually children's librarians, those interested in the quality of young people's books had allies in the reviewers of many of the serious literary magazines of the period; reviews of books that crowned the "golden age" were usually to be found in *Atlantic Monthly*, *Harpers New Monthly Magazine*, *The Nation*, and others of that era. Beginning in 1918, Anne Carroll Moore contributed reviews and articles on children's books to *The Bookman*, and she set a high standard of comparative reviewing and criticism. Publishers developed a respect for the library market for juveniles, and sought editors of children's books.

The librarians working with children were accorded full professional standing in the American Library Association in 1900 with the organization of a Section for Children's Librarians, which provided a regular channel for exchange of ideas, goals and practices, as well as an official voice at the national level. Articles in the *Library Journal* and Alice Hazeltine's volume in the series of Classics of American Librarianship, *Library Work with Children*,¹⁶ are good sources of accounts of the activities and programs initiated by children's librarians. These essays and papers record the names of librarians who exerted leadership at this time to gain recognition for children's library service and the contribution they believed good literature could make to the lives of children. People to whom tribute is due for achievements during this period and years following include: Anne Carroll Moore, whose contributions have been noted; Louise Seaman Bechtel, appointed by Macmillan to head the first juvenile department in a major publishing house; Frances Jenkins Olcott at Carnegie Library in

Service to Children and Young People

Pittsburgh; Caroline Burnite Walker and Effie L. Power in the Cleveland Public Library; Alice Jordan at the Boston Public Library; Mary Dousman at the Milwaukee Public Library; and Clara Whitehill Hunt of the Brooklyn Public Library. This list is by no means complete.

It is appropriate to note an event resulting from the emphasis on literature of high quality. Franklyn Mathiews, who had been campaigning for better reading for boys as Chief Scout Librarian for the Boy Scouts of America, and Frederic Melcher, chairman of the American Booksellers Association, organized a committee to promote a Children's Book Week in 1919. Encouraged by the interest evident in the cooperative endeavors of publishers, booksellers, and librarians, Melcher proposed that a medal be awarded each year for the most distinguished children's book, the award to be made by the children's librarians section of the ALA. The first John Newbery medal was given in 1922 and has been awarded annually since. In 1938 the Caldecott medal was initiated by Melcher and awarded each year for the best illustrations in a picture book for children.

DEVELOPMENT OF LIBRARY SERVICE TO CHILDREN,
1920-1950

If the first two decades of this century could be described as those of pioneering, innovation and enthusiasm, the following decades might properly be termed years of consolidation, standardization and broadening horizons. Again, it is not at all precise to use years, or even decades, for the beginnings and endings of periods marking the development of movements that were already national in scope, but at the same time peculiar to each individual community. The period covered in this section is an unrealistic one in many ways. It spans the two decades following World War I, years of efforts to identify an international role, and more actively to form one nation from the increased flow of immigrants to this country, a nationwide Great Depression, World War II and the first years of recovery from a multitude of wartime dislocations. More importantly for children, this time span represents a complete generation in general terms, or the period when two generations of children born within its limits are using—or not using—children's library services. These years also saw the entry of a new generation of professional leadership. Some consolidation and a measure of standardization during these were made possible by the vision and sound judgment on which the

foundations of children's library service were built in the pioneer period.

This is not to say that great gains were not made during the years 1920-50; they will be reviewed briefly. However, in the areas of library-related reading guidance, individual and group activities, library instruction, cooperation between schools and public and community-related library services, most of the techniques used by the children's librarians had been developed in the preceding twenty years; the next thirty years and more were spent in trying to maintain, extend and modify them.

During this period, library reports testify to the continued level of good service in the face of greater numbers of children (particularly in the city branch libraries), greater demands for school assignments, and greatly reduced budgets of the 1930s. Across the country, the circulation of public library books to children averaged 40-45 percent of the total circulation, and this was a fairly constant figure over many years. While figures for circulation are poor measures of service at best, and these figures are particularly suspect (for early years of the period there was very little uniformity in the recording of school classroom loans), nevertheless, long lines of children in busy city branches and at bookmobile stops showed evidence of use by children.

An often quoted and well-deserved tribute to the children's rooms in the public libraries in the United States was written by the French scholar and critic, Paul Hazard:

Here is an innovation that does honor to the sensibility of a people, and it is an American innovation: the libraries reserved for children. Those light and gay rooms, decorated with flowers and suitable furniture; those rooms where children feel perfectly at ease, free to come and go; to hunt for a book in the catalogue, to find it on the shelves, to carry it to their armchair, and to plunge into the reading of it. They are better than a drawing room or a club. They are a home. . . . All respect is shown to the child. He is not asked if he is rich or poor, Catholic, Presbyterian or Quaker. He has complete freedom. From the hundreds of thousands of books within reach of his hand, he takes the one that pleases him. He may remain ten minutes or several hours.¹⁷

Guidance techniques considered important by all professionally trained public librarians working with children were: (1) the individual contacts with children on the floor of the children's room, book-

Service to Children and Young People

mobile, school or hospital; (2) the selection of the best books to maintain a collection of good quality and suited to the interests of the children in the community; and (3) the provision of booklists, displays, book-talks and story hours to introduce books to children. Subject headings in the library catalogs were frequently of concern to the children's librarians, as well as a need to provide more instruction in the use of the several catalogs, bibliographies and indexes. The need for this aspect of guidance had been recognized for many years, yet with only a moderate achievement; a variety of printed aids continued to appear, but most failed to establish the motivational factor that would make them meaningful to children. Progress in this area was not significant until the curriculum reforms of the 1950s and 1960s, which helped to relate the inquiry activities of the curricular learning experiences to the library's system of organizing its materials.

Storytelling to children above the nursery-school and kindergarten levels—storytelling that was a sharing of a literary experience by an adult who gave life to the language of a selection of literature—was kept alive by children's librarians in public libraries during the early decades of this century. Outside libraries, the art of storytelling had almost disappeared during this period except for the very young child. While no longer a part of the life at the modern fireside, or in the classrooms where the emphasis on silent reading was paramount, children were lining up at the doors of public libraries one day each week to hear stories. Older children brought younger brothers and sisters to listen, and these were occasions when the storyteller had a wide-ranging repertoire of stories prepared to hold the attention of the youngest and the oldest. Children's librarians believed so strongly in the value of recreating literature for their audiences that they were willing to commit a large part of their personal as well as professional time to the preparation of such programs.

One must acknowledge some obstacles that in the later years of this period—and more obviously in the next decade with the advent of television in the home—worked to eclipse temporarily and to change permanently the storytelling programs in public libraries. When the audiences of older children began to decrease with changing school, neighborhood, and family lives and the inroads of television viewing in after-school hours, not all children's librarians took the opportunity to take storytelling out of the library to the schools and other centers where children were. There was also a reluctance to accept and to train volunteers and community aides who were able to contact

more audiences in new settings. All of these directions were adopted by some librarians to give vitality to the programs. These efforts also served to justify to administrators the time put into storytelling programs; administrators saw only that this program demanded a large part of the staff attention for proper support. (One state, in a tentative formulation of quantitative standards, proposed the figure of one full day's staff time to support a regular weekly storytelling program if the preparation were to be largely done on the job.) Most public library administrators had not been educated to the values of the story hour beyond its usefulness for publicity pictures in the press or annual reports.

The storytelling program that became very successful in the third decade of this period was the picture-book hour or preschool story hour. While this program became a popular event in the later years of this period, it reached its peak in the 1950s and 1960s and demonstrates the resurgence of interest in storytelling when the lack of experience in hearing oral literature and literary language as living communication awakened the interest of educators, and a reevaluation of the contribution of storytelling was begun.

One major development in service for youth in the public library which originated in the first decade of this thirty-year period was the establishment of special rooms and book collections for teen-age patrons. It is interesting to reflect that the first children's libraries, and the first special reading room privileges in the libraries of the early 1800s, were actually serving primarily youths from twelve to sixteen years old, and what they most often were allowed to read were the adult classics and family magazines such as *Youth's Companion*. As service for children developed and the needs of secondary school pupils for materials beyond their textbooks increased, however, there was a professional concern that the period between the reading guidance of childhood and that of adulthood very often left the adolescent youth without such help. The continuing concept of the public library as the pinnacle of the educational pyramid of ongoing education was breaking down because of the failure of the library to provide the bridge between the children's room and the wide and open ranges of the adult department.

The first special rooms for the teen-age readers were established in the 1920s. In 1925 the Cleveland Public Library opened the Stevenson Room in its new building, under the guidance and supervision of Jean Roos. The New York Public Library formed the Young Peoples' Book Committee to read, discuss and evaluate books for teen-ageers.

Service to Children and Young People

Under the leadership of Margaret Scoggin, the Nathan Strauss Room became a center for young people in the New York area. In 1930 the Young People's Reading Round Table was formed as an organized group in the American Library Association.

A somewhat different pattern of collection organization was adopted by the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore. In the Popular Library, a section of shelves was set aside for an introductory collection of books of interest to teen-age readers, and a reader's advisor for young people had a desk there. Margaret Alexander served in this role for many years and developed a program of service to young adults that had special strengths in work with schools, book-talks to groups throughout the city, and booklists developed by committees of young adult librarians, school librarians and teachers. Medium-sized libraries found that the pattern of an alcove or a few introductory shelves with a reader's advisor desk nearby was a feasible response to the needs of the audience, and the Enoch Pratt Free Library's pattern of organization seemed to transfer most successfully to libraries where the population served was under 500,000.

The interest in the physical location and the characteristics of the facilities for young people's services often took precedence over the concern for adequately trained personnel in the planning of library buildings. As a result, buildings were equipped with special rooms and attractive furnishings but lacked staff and a range of books—not only adult literature, but also reference and nonfiction titles related to schools assignments. Inevitably, many rooms were given up as failures, while the need for an informed, sympathetic librarian who was trained to recognize and respond to the needs of adolescents persisted in every department of the library.

It was some years before the majority of the profession saw the specialization in work with youth in the adolescent years as a facet of the work with adults rather than the responsibility of the children's department. The young people's librarians, however, continued to: (1) develop their expertise in the identification of books at all levels, and later, films, recordings and other media that were of interest and importance to their users; and (2) to develop techniques that were particularly successful in capturing the interest of the teen-age patron—e.g., booktalks, film discussions, record programs, forums on contemporary problems, and other group activities both in and out of the library. Over the years opinion vacillated as to which age group should receive the attention of the young people's librarian. The needs of communities varied, however, and services were planned in

accordance with those needs. It should be noted that this specialization has attracted and continues to attract some of the most idealistic (while also realistic) members of the profession, who have produced some of the most imaginative and responsive programs in the modern public library.

The area of children's and youth library services that underwent the most visible change and influential growth during these years was that of the school library. The period began with the first national statement of quantitative standards for high school libraries adopted by the professional and educational associations in 1918. This report was begun with the work of a Library Committee of the North Central Association and the Secondary Schools Department of the National Education Association, and was based upon a status survey of high school libraries. To respond to the shortcomings in book collections, facilities for study, and minimum staff, this report, "Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes," was designed as a quantitative statement and served for the next fifteen years as the standard of a secondary school library's adequacy.

These standards were supplemented by the *Evaluated Criteria*,¹⁸ first published in 1939 by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and revised in 1950, 1960 and 1969. These standards for evaluating the quality of educational services of the school library were incorporated in criteria for the entire school, and proved to be a useful vehicle for planning improvements in all dimensions of library organization and service related to the instructional program. In the mid 1940s the American Library Association recognized the importance of planning for library services of all types in the post-war period; included in the series of reports issued was one for school libraries, *School Libraries For Today and Tomorrow*.¹⁹ These standards were a combination of the quantitative and qualitative measures, stressing services to pupils and teachers as well as facilities, resources, budgets and staff. Although the standards adopted by the professional association of librarians did not have the power of enforcement of examiners of the state and regional accrediting associations, these standards nevertheless had considerable influence on the continued upgrading of the official evaluation tools.

The above steps in development of secondary school libraries were not matched by similar steps for the elementary schools, largely because the state authority (while it could withhold some funds from schools that did not meet a minimum degree of quality) did not have

Service to Children and Young People

the enforcement strength of the secondary school accrediting associations. However, a report was presented to the National Education Association in 1925 making recommendations for elementary school libraries; it emphasized responsibilities to provide books and to provide instruction in using libraries. In the following decades most of the state departments of education adopted some recommendations in the form of minimum standards for elementary school libraries. The number of centralized libraries in schools at this level continued to be small—barely over 25 percent in the country.

A variety of influences operated to slow the development of centralized libraries. These included the commitment of a majority of elementary-level educators to the concept of the self-contained classroom which, it was felt, could be best supported by a classroom library; not to be overlooked, however, was the influence of the long-established public library service to the schools. To discontinue this service in favor of a school-provided library would be a much more costly investment. Nevertheless, the movement had begun, and would gather momentum in the following decades.

An institute on "Youth, Communication and Libraries" was held in 1947 at the University of Chicago; the proceedings were published two years later. A number of these papers have become classics in the bibliography of children's library services, some of them because of new material presented, and others for issues they raised and the prophetic challenges they presented. In the final paper, Frances Henne identified the period as one of unrest for librarians working with children and young people, and she called for critical evaluation and rigorous planning:

We must in our thinking and planning break away from the barriers of administrative organization, we must recognize the basic reality that we are all concerned with youth and communication, and we must formulate our plans in accordance with that principle. The frontiers thus represent what is best for youth in library service; and immediate planning considers only how it can be effected, regardless of traditional patterns of thought or action to which we have been accustomed.²⁰

In examining the potential resources for library services in a community, Henne referred specifically to the possibility of locating all library services to children in the elementary school, and recommended objective study and evaluation by all librarians and other groups concerned in working with children in order to determine the

situation most beneficial to children. The question that had been discussed in a variety of contexts since the 1890s was thus raised again: What should be the relationship of the public library to the public schools?

In the thirty years from 1920 to 1950 the professional association of children's librarians became a strong force for leadership and development of service to youth, both in the library world and for representing libraries to other professional organizations working with youth in the United States and abroad. In 1941 the organizations of children's librarians, young people's librarians, and school librarians within the ALA joined to form the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People. Mildred Batchelder, who had joined the staff of ALA Headquarters in 1936, and had been School and Children's Library Specialist, became executive secretary of the new division. When the American Association of School Librarians was formed as a separate division in 1951, Batchelder continued as executive secretary of the Children's Service Division and the Young Adult Services Division. Her long period of distinguished and stimulating service gave recognition to the role of the library services to children among the national organizations concerned with children's welfare.

During these years the division periodical, *Top of the News*, first appeared in October 1942 and became a useful publication, carrying not only news of activities of children's services and activities with young people in all library settings, but also of developments in the field of children's literature and other materials.

YEARS OF CHANGE IN LIBRARY SERVICE FOR CHILDREN: 1950-1975

All library services to children were affected by the impact of major changes in the schools over the next twenty-five years. The school library at both elementary and secondary levels underwent an evolutionary development that greatly changed its aspect. A reevaluation of the curricula that changed subject matter and shifted grade placement followed a critical examination of the educational enterprise. At the same time, the school building and the school calendar were altered to provide for more flexibility in the effective use of teaching staff. New technological developments had made available an array of new teaching resources and equipment; team teaching, independent study and ungraded grouping became familiar descriptors of school programming. School libraries were called upon to provide services

and resources to support the changing instructional programs and, in many cases, to assume new roles within the school staff.

The initial impact of these changes was felt as might have been anticipated, in the area of teaching and learning resources. The majority of schools were unable to meet the first waves of requests for materials to support new study topics, reference materials for individual research projects, rare and expensive source materials and, above all, a variety of audiovisual media. It was this new pressure for a variety of learning resources and facilities that prompted the school library to become a media center—not only in resources and services, but in name as well. This change was not immediate, but was a gradual evolution from a book-centered library to a media center with trained staff. Staff responsibilities were differentiated to accommodate skills and modes of learning with the whole range of communication media, which by this date included television, programmed and computerized learning, videotaping, design and production of learning materials, as well as the familiar film, filmstrip, recordings, books, maps, and so on.

The impact of new educational trends was reflected in reformulation of standards, and the greater frequency of publication of school library standards is an indication of the rate of accommodation to change. The 1945 standards, published in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*, provided a planning and evaluation tool until 1960, when the American Association of School Librarians published *Standards for School Library Programs*.²¹ This proved to be a distinct departure from earlier formulations. It was designed to provide for the development of a program encompassing all the factors in the environment that make the resources of the library accessible to students and teachers. This statement of standards was directed toward a program of good, not minimum, quality, and was developed to be applicable to both elementary and secondary schools.

By 1969 a new statement of standards was needed to recognize the metamorphosis of the school library to media center, and to deal with the new responsibilities implied in that designation. The publication *Standards for School Media Programs* was issued jointly by the American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education Association (NEA), and demonstrated the concern of both organizations to develop standards of excellence of media programs in schools.²² Almost immediately after the publication of this document, a committee of the two organizations began work on a replacement which was published in 1975.²³

For more than a decade following the publication of the 1960 standards, the improvement of school library programs was facilitated by three foundation grants: \$100,000 from the Council on Library Resources for an eighteen-month School Library Development Project to implement the new standards, and two five-year grants, each of more than one million dollars, from the Knapp Foundation. The first of the Knapp Foundation grants was for the Knapp School Library Project, designed by the American Association of School Librarians to demonstrate good library services supported by adequate resources and staff; the second was for the School Library Manpower Project for training school library media personnel. Directors for these programs were Mary Frances Kennon for the School Library Development Project, Peggy Sullivan for the Knapp School Library Project, and Robert Case with Anna Mary Lowery for the School Library Manpower Project. The reports of the two Knapp projects are useful additions to the professional literature shelves.²⁴

Services for children have been most directly affected in this period by the infusion of federal funds, but that effect was most pronounced on the school libraries. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 provided for the purchase of a few selected areas of materials, and school libraries began building up neglected areas of their collections. With the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, school libraries were able to build collections and provide for their cataloging under Title II; Title I provided for materials for the special needs of disadvantaged students. The addition of school library specialists at the state department of education in a number of states was made possible under this same act. Almost every school in the nation has benefited in one way or another from these funds.

The periodic uncertainty about their renewal, and the shifts in priority and location of authority for administration and evaluation in the U.S. Office of Education have been a continuing concern, and hours of time have been spent by school librarians and association officers testifying to Congressional committees. On the local level the problems have been in use of restricted funds and in deadlines for expenditure that have been consistently inadequate. A strengthening of consultant staff at state and district levels has been one method of dealing with these problems. Adoption by more school systems of central purchasing and preparation and commercially prepared cataloging data has been one result of increased funding, and the larger systems have developed computerized handling of acquisition records and bookkeeping. This advance has paved the way for computer

Service to Children and Young People

processing of circulation records in the larger libraries, and the experimentation with bibliography generation.

Because of the many organizational changes that have brought more funds (and therefore, more materials, more trained and auxiliary staff, more consultant help, more facilities and equipment), the services for students in all schools have been extended and enriched. In many schools the library has become a media center in every dimension of the term—a learning center for students, a resources center for teachers, a study center, a viewing and listening center, a communications center, and a variety of other designations that attempt to interpret to the school population what a library means to teaching and learning in today's schools.

Service at the elementary level has become more highly individualized as students study and become active in and out of the media center, involving the media specialist in their planning. Book-talks and discussions, reading, listening and viewing guidance, help in satisfying personal quests as well as classroom projects through a variety of media are not new techniques, but they are much more the usual program in the elementary school than they were ten or twenty years ago.

Whereas the twenty-five year period previous to 1950 in the public library was one of following, adapting and improving rather than innovating services, the immediate past twenty-five years have seen some new techniques and priorities developed. This has happened largely in response to population shifts, with economic and social dislocations that brought a mounting percentage of the population into standard metropolitan statistical areas—70 percent according to the 1970 census—with a distribution that showed central cities largely occupied by the poor and educationally disadvantaged, while the suburbs became the living area for the more economically advantaged families who can support schools and libraries. It became evident that public library services designed over the years to serve children motivated to read by home experience and encouragement to learn—the children who would use libraries and would read books despite obstacles—were neither likely to attract nor satisfy children living in the overcrowded inner-city slums, where poverty, language problems and racial tensions were barriers to communication.

The lack of reading skills was tackled by many volunteer groups, working with the advice of the schools which usually lacked the teaching time to give adequate help to the many individual problems. The libraries came rather late into active participation in most cities,

but there was an effort by every library to supply materials, to make them available to tutorial teachers and aids, often to provide a space for after-school tutoring sessions, and to give in-service training in the use of available resources. Children's librarians did not usually feel prepared to do the actual teaching and, probably because of the pattern of library education for children's librarians, the majority of them knew very little about how children learned to read—unless they happened to have prepared for teaching before entering the library profession.

The formal reading improvement programs, however, were only one frontier of service to children who had been for many years the "unserved." Library sub-branches, circulation and study centers were set up in storefront buildings where the environment was less forbidding to people who had never entered libraries, and the children responded to these moves in many cities. Book collections were selected to appeal to ethnic and racial minority groups; art objects and exhibits were chosen to help the children to feel pride in their culture. Special-interest clubs, photography and writing groups, film programs and drama clubs were organized. In very recent years the emphasis has been on the community information center and the crisis center.

As stated earlier, these have been years of innovation and experimentation, and a variety of techniques have been tried; some have succeeded, while some failed. Some programs have not succeeded because they were brought into a community by outsiders rather than evolving with the active participation of the community. "Identifying the needs of the community" has been a goal on the lips of librarians, but it has been difficult to achieve from outside the community. Children have always been the first to respond because their needs are more obvious and they are more curious and open to suggestion. Librarians who have been working with youth in the cities in recent years have been vocal about the failure of their library school preparation for understanding not only child growth and development and adolescent psychology, but the value systems, cultural conflicts, and family and neighborhood structures that prevail in minority communities. Both library school and on-the-job training programs have planned work experiences to prepare future librarians better.

The sharing of literature through storytelling as a part of the library's program has experienced something of a revival in this period. More library schools are teaching courses in storytelling, or oral interpretation of literature. More libraries are maintaining

Service to Children and Young People

storytelling programs but most public libraries have discontinued the story hour for all but young children. It is the preschool story hour that has flourished, and is a strong family contact. A popular version in the neighborhood libraries is the early evening pajama story hour. Moreover, librarians are using storytelling techniques to give book-talks more frequently; they are taking stories out of the library into classrooms, school auditoriums, club rooms, camps, playgrounds, and gatherings of all ages. They are training neighborhood aides and volunteers to tell stories. In areas of minority population concentration they are using storytellers who can speak the native language of the people. In every case, they are finding that the live storyteller offers a dramatic personal experience different in quality and appeal from the mass-media viewing and listening that occupies so much of every child's life.

Relations between schools and public libraries reached a critical point in the late 1950s and early 1960s. New curricular programs presupposed student access to a wide range of material and subjects before federal funds were made available to improve school library collections. The influx of secondary students into the public library for after-school hours of reference work, study and use of materials unavailable in the school libraries became known as "the student explosion." Surveys of public library users in these years showed that often more than one-half of the users in the majority of libraries were high school students. Useful lessons were learned at this period: (1) the realization that librarians need to anticipate demographic, economic and social changes in communities; (2) the recognition that children and youth are not sensitive to jurisdictional boundaries between institutions if they can locate the materials they need and that they will use every library in a community indiscriminately in their search for information; and (3) that librarians do not know enough about the school-related or the personal information needs of youth.

A study in progress is "The Philadelphia Project" by John Benford.²⁵ This study began with a survey of school-related needs for materials and an analysis of students' patterns of library use. An "action library" was established following the analysis of the data collected from teachers and students to demonstrate a library situation that would put into practice some of the recommendations based upon joint planning of public and school librarians. The action library is a learning resource center planned to be free of the usual administrative structure and operation of both school and public libraries in order to explore new relationships with the community.

Full reporting on the success of this undertaking has not yet been available.

The need for research, pilot projects and experimentation with new patterns of organization and administration was recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York. In their response to the report of the Commissioner of Education's Committee on Library Development in 1970, they recommended appropriation of state funds to make such exploration possible since school libraries in the state had been urged to assume major responsibility for all library services to children.²⁶ The demonstration projects and subsequent evaluation have not been made possible yet, and there are few instances in the country where some data might be gathered to test the feasibility of the recommendation; the idea, although not new to the professional discussion arena, carries new appeal to administrators presently concerned with trimming the budget.

An important achievement for children's library service in 1963 was the appointment at the Library of Congress of a specialist in children's literature; this office has been occupied by Virginia Haviland. The presence of a specialist in this field at the national library has provided for greatly improved communications and a stimulus for both bibliographical and international activities of importance.

A LOOK AT THE FUTURE

If there is to be a dominant theme of library service for children during the next few years, it will be one of breaking barriers: between library personnel and children and the adults who work with them, between libraries of all types, between media in its many forms, and between media and the nonlibrary user—especially the nonuser who needs information to sustain life and spirit. There is evidence of these and many other barriers disappearing with the energy, enthusiasm and dedication of able, imaginative librarians and media specialists today.

There is currently discussion on the topic of total community service, the term that has characterized the task forces working on new standards for public library service. For children, such service might ensure joint planning of the agencies providing library services—primarily school and public libraries—at a level beyond the superficial and temporary cooperation of the past.

Barriers are falling within libraries, particularly in public libraries

Service to Children and Young People

where age limitations have been dropped with the recognition of the child's right of access to materials.

As obstacles are removed, children attain a degree of intellectual freedom which librarians hope to continue to enhance. Limitations on information, ideas, and imaginative and aesthetic experiences can be threatened consciously or unconsciously by the librarian's selection and guidance. The same threat can come from well-meaning individuals who would ask the librarian to apply special criteria directed toward the concerns of a particular group—religious, racial or otherwise identified. The future will necessitate a keen awareness of threats to intellectual freedom and a commitment to honesty of expression.

References

1. Walter, Frank K. "A Poor but Respectable Relation—the Sunday School Library," *Library Quarterly* 12:734, July 1942.
2. Shera, Jesse H. *Foundations of the Public Library*. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1949, p. 158.
3. *Ibid.*, pp. 162-66.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 165.
5. U.S. Bureau of Education. *Public Libraries in the United States of America. Special Report. pt. 1*. Washington, D.C., U.S.G.P.O., 1876.
6. Fletcher, William I. "Public Libraries and the Young." In U.S. Bureau of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 412.
7. Darling, Richard L. *The Rise of Children's Book Reviewing in America, 1865-1881*. New York, R.R. Bowker, 1968, p. 32.
8. Long, Harriet G. *Public Library Service to Children: Foundation and Development*. Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Press, 1969, p. 92.
9. Meigs, Cornelia, et al., eds. *A Critical History of Children's Literature*. Rev. ed. New York, Macmillan, 1969, p. 386.
10. Public Library of the City of Boston. *Annual Report of the Trustees, 1895* (City Document No. 18). Boston, Rockwell and Churchill, 1896, p. 49.
11. [Editorial], *Library Journal* 23:135, April 1898.
12. National Education Association. *Report of the Committee on the Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools*. Washington, D.C., NEA, 1899.
13. Nesbitt, Elizabeth. "Library Service to Children," *Library Trends* 3:118, Oct. 1954.
14. Broderick, Dorothy M. "PLUS ÇA CHANGE: Classic Patterns in Public/School Library Relations," *Library Journal* 92:1995-97, May 15, 1967.
15. *Ibid.*, p. 1997.
16. Hazeltine, Alice J. *Library Work with Children*. New York, H.W. Wilson, 1917.
17. Hazard, Paul. *Books, Children & Men*. Marguerite Mitchell, trans. Boston, Horn Book, 1944, pp. 88-89.
18. Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria*.

- Washington, D.C, Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1939.
19. American Library Association. Committee on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. Chicago, ALA, 1945.
 20. Henne, Frances, et al., eds. *Youth, Communication and Libraries*. Chicago, ALA, 1949, p. 212.
 21. American Association of School Librarians. School Library Standards Committee. *Standards for School Library Programs*. Chicago, ALA, 1960.
 22. ———, and Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the NEA. *Standards for School Media Programs*. Chicago, ALA, 1969.
 23. American Association of School Librarians, et al. *Media Programs: District and School*. Chicago, ALA, 1975.
 24. Sullivan, Peggy, ed. *Realization: The Final Report of the Knapp School Libraries Project*. Chicago, ALA, 1968; and Case, Robert N., et al. *Curriculum Alternatives; Experiments in School Library Media Education*. Chicago, ALA, 1974.
 25. Benford, John Q. "The Philadelphia Project," *Library Journal* 96:2041-47, June 15, 1971.
 26. New York State Education Department. *Library Service: A Statement of Policy and Proposed Action by the Regents of the University of the State of New York* (Position Paper No. 8). Albany, State Education Department, 1970, p. 20.