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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, HOW SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS SUPPORT READING AND INFORMATION LITERACY SKILLS INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS, by MELINDA MORIN, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty. The Dean of the College of Education concurs.

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ABSTRACT

HOW SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS
SUPPORT READING AND INFORMATION
LITERACY SKILLS INSTRUCTION FOR
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS
by
Melinda Morin

This study explored the school library media programs in four schools. The percentage of English language learners (ELLs) enrolled in each of these schools was among the highest on their respective levels in their school districts. Moreover, the percentage of ELLs in these schools who met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts on the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT) in the spring of 2010 was more than the Annual Measureable Objective (AMO) of 73.3% or slightly less. The participants were the school library media specialists who administered the school library media programs in these schools. This was a qualitative study. During an inductive thematic analysis, the data coalesced into four themes that corresponded with the research questions: instruction, collaboration, media/technology, and interpersonal communication. These findings were derived from the data.

1. The participants used both conventional and technology-based instructional strategies to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for all of their students, including the ELLs.
2. The school library media collections included first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic materials, Hi-Lo reading materials and other digital resources; however, the materials varied in age, suitability, and condition.

3. The school library media specialists collaborated informally with the other members of the instructional team.
4. The school library media specialists undertook other practices that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs on a discretionary basis.

HOW SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA SPECIALISTS SUPPORT READING AND INFORMATION LITERACY SKILLS INSTRUCTION FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by
Melinda Morin

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

List of Tables iv

Abbreviations v

Chapter

1 THE PROBLEM 1

Statement of the Problem 6

Purpose 9

Guiding Questions 10

Theoretical Framework 11

Significance 15

2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 19

The Legal Basis for Providing Language Services to ELLs 19

Instructional Strategies and Frameworks for Teaching ELLs in the Classroom 23

How School Library Media Programs Impact Student Performance 37

Professional Literature That Informs School Library Media Specialists about Meeting the Needs of ELLs 41

The Importance of Collaboration 61

3 METHODOLOGY 63

Site Selection 65

Procedures 71

Data Collection 72

Data Analysis 77

Study Limitations 79

4 RESULTS 81

The Schools 81

The Themes 100

5 DISCUSSION 130

The Research Questions.....130
Findings.....131
Implications for Practice.....139
Suggestions for Further Research.....142
References.....146
Appendixes.....161

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

1 Difference in the Percentage of ELLs and Their English-speaking Peers who Achieved Scores Below Basic in Mathematics and Reading on the NAEP in 2005 and 2009 7

2 Schools Selected as Study Sites 67

3 Plan and Focus for Data Collection 72

4 Data Collection Matrix: Type of Information by Source 75

5 Guiding Questions and Data Collection Strategies 76

ABBREVIATIONS

AASL	American Association of School Librarians
AECT	Association for Educational Communications and Technology
AMO	Annual Measureable Objective
AYP	Adequate Yearly Progress
CREDE	Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence
ELL	English Language Learner
ELP	English Language Proficiency
ESOL	English to Speakers of Other Languages
GADOE	Georgia Department of Education
GPS	Georgia Performance Standards
LEA	Local Education Agency
LEP	Limited English Proficient
LSL	Improving Literacy Through School Libraries
NAEP	National Assessment of Educational Progress
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
NLP	National Literacy Panel
OCR	Office of Civil Rights
OPAC	Online Public Access Catalog
SIOP	Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol
SRE	Scaffolded Reading Experiences
USDHEW	United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
USDOE	United States Department of Education
WIDA	World Class Instructional Design and Assessment
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

The populations of the United States and Georgia grew more ethnically and linguistically diverse during the last decade. In 2000, the Hispanic population accounted for 12.5% of the population of the United States and 5.3% of the population of Georgia (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000a & b). By 2008, the Hispanic population had grown to 15.4% of the population of the United States and 8% of the population of Georgia (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011). Moreover, Fry and Gonzales (2008) named Georgia a "new" Hispanic state in *One-in Five and Growing Fast: A Profile of Hispanic Public School Students*.

Language minority students and their families are not new to Georgia. The percentage of children in Georgia between the ages of five and seventeen who spoke a language other than English at home and spoke English with difficulty increased from 12% in 2007, to 13.3% in 2008 (U. S. Department of Education, 2009f, 2010a). Eighty percent of these children spoke Spanish, 9.5 % spoke languages from Asia or the Pacific Islands, 7.6% spoke Indo-European languages, and 3% spoke other languages (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a). During the 2008-09 school year, 4.9% of the students enrolled in Georgia schools were classified as limited English proficient (LEP) (USDOE, 2010b).

Following the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, the states were required to implement statewide accountability systems for all public schools, including state-mandated annual assessments aligned with rigorous state standards in mathematics and reading for all students in grades three through eight and annual statewide progress

objectives (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). The state-mandated assessment administered annually to students in Georgia in the third through the eighth grade is the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT). Adequate yearly progress (AYP) is measured annually based on student participation, student achievement on the state-mandated assessments, and other indicators. Annual measureable objectives (AMOs) are the minimum levels of improvement calculated by each state, based on student performance on the state-mandated assessments, that must be achieved within legally specified time frames by schools and school districts in order to ensure that the goal of 100% proficiency is met by the 2013-2014 school year (Georgia Department of Education, 2009a). Under the terms of the NCLB Act of 2001, English language learners (ELLs) are one of the student groups whose scores are disaggregated in order to hold schools accountable for reducing existing achievement gaps between them and other students. In order to achieve AYP, each school as a whole and each grouping of students that meets the minimum requirement for a group must meet or exceed the State's AMO, the percentage of students required to achieve a score that meets or exceeds the standard in reading and English/language arts and mathematics (GADOE, 2009).

Every two years, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is administered to students in the fourth and the eighth grades to assess their achievement in mathematics, reading, science, U.S. history, and writing (U.S. Department of Education, 2009c). Fry (2007) described the NAEP as "…the most authoritative source of standardized testing data for public school students across the country" (p. i). Prior to the 2007 reauthorization of the NCLB Act of 2001, Fry undertook an analysis of the data from the 2005 administration of the NAEP in order to determine how much progress

would be required for all student groups to achieve grade level proficiency in mathematics and reading by 2014.

An achievement level of *basic* indicates "partial mastery of prerequisite knowledge and skills that are fundamental for proficient work at each grade [level] assessed" (U.S. Department of Education, 2009e). The results from the 2005 administration of the NAEP revealed that 46% of the fourth grade ELLs scored below basic in mathematics compared with 17% of their English-speaking peers, and 71% of the eighth grade ELLs scored below basic in mathematics compared with 29% of their English-speaking peers (USDOE, 2009a) Likewise, 73% of the fourth grade ELLs scored below basic in reading compared with 33% of their English-speaking peers, and 71% of the eighth grade ELLs scored below basic in reading compared with 25% of their English-speaking peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2009b). Based on the data from the 2005 administration of the NAEP, Fry (2007) noted that the scores of ELLs were consistently lower than those of their English-speaking peers and the achievement gaps widened between the fourth and the eighth grade. According to Fry, "The ELL-to-white performance gaps based on state assessments largely mirror the gaps based on state NAEP" (p. 14).

Fry (2007) suggested that the widening achievement gaps that occur between the fourth and the eighth grade may be partly due to changes occurring in the ELL population. Higher achieving ELLs are removed from the ELL population when they become proficient in English, and newly arrived immigrants enter the ELL population when they enroll in United States schools.

Background of the Problem

Demographic shifts have had an impact on education and library services. As a member of the instructional team, the school library media specialist shares responsibility with the other team members for ensuring that all students achieve their academic goals. *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning*, a joint publication of the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) and the Association for Educational Communications and Technology (AECT), articulates the mission and the goals for the school library media program. The mission of the school library media program, "to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information," is accomplished by achieving the following goals:

1. Providing physical and intellectual access to materials in all formats
2. Providing instruction to foster competence and stimulate interest in reading, viewing, and using information and ideas
3. Working with other educators to design learning strategies to meet the needs of individual students (AASL & AECT, 1998, p. 6).

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) also provides detailed descriptions of each of the school library media specialist's four specific responsibilities as a teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator. As teachers, school library media specialists are responsible for meeting the learning and information needs of the school learning community. As instructional partners, school library media specialists are responsible for collaborating with other members of the instructional team to examine curriculum content, learning outcomes, and student information needs and match them with information resources in a

variety of formats. As information specialists, school library media specialists are responsible for applying their expertise to the evaluation and acquisition of information resources, raising the awareness of other members of the learning community concerning issues that involve information, and modeling the strategies involved in locating, accessing, and evaluating information inside and outside of the school library media center. As program administrators, school library media specialists are responsible for collaborating with other members of the learning community to formulate policies that will guide the school library media program and activities (AASL & AECT, 1998). Moreover, *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998) provides school library media specialists with concise standards and principles they can use to develop effective student-centered programs that promote information literacy, independent learning, and social responsibility.

Lance (1994) described research he conducted with Wellborn and Hamilton-Pennell in "The Impact of School Library Media Centers on Academic Achievement," an article published in the spring 1994 issue of *School Library Media Quarterly*. The research used existing data about school library media centers, their schools, and the communities in which they were located to "develop and test a model describing the relationship of library media centers and their programs to student achievement" (para. 3). According to Lance, the study revealed that students were more likely to achieve higher average scores on reading tests in schools with better-funded school library media centers, large collections of materials in a variety of formats, and adequate staffing, including state-endorsed school library media specialists who assumed an active instructional role. Lance, Rodney, and Hamilton-Pennell (2000) found that increases in

students' reading scores corresponded with increases in the size of the school library media program, when the size of the program was measured in terms of the total hours the staff worked; the size of the collection; online access to library media center resources, licensed databases, and the Internet via networked computers; and collaboration between school library media specialists and classroom teachers. Furthermore, Lance et al. (2000) related the increases in the students' reading scores to the principles of leadership, collaboration, and technology that are integral to the school library media specialist's role, and maintained that other conditions in the school or community could not moderate the relationship.

Since 2000, Lance and other groups of researchers have conducted 18 additional studies. These studies confirmed that student achievement increased in schools with school library media programs that were adequately staffed, including a state certified, full-time school library media specialist who collaborated with classroom teachers to locate resources and provide information literacy instruction; had large and varied collections of materials in print and electronic formats; and flexible scheduling (Scholastic, 2008).

The Statement of the Problem

When the NAEP was administered in 2009, the national composite scores achieved by ELLs remained consistently lower than those achieved by their English-speaking peers. In the fourth grade, 43% of the ELLs scored below basic in mathematics compared with 16% of their English-speaking peers, and 71% of the ELLs scored below basic in reading compared with 30% of their English-speaking peers (USDOE, 2009a & b). However, the percentage of eighth grade ELLs who scored below basic in

mathematics increased from 46%, when they were fourth grade students in 2005, to 72%; and the percentage of eighth grade ELLs who scored below basic in reading increased from 73% to 74% during the same period (USDOE, 2009a & b). In contrast, the percentage of their eighth grade English-speaking peers who scored below basic in mathematics increased from 17%, when they were fourth grade students in 2005, to 25%; and the percentage of their eighth grade English-speaking peers who scored below basic in reading decreased from 33% to 22% (USDOE, 2009a & b) (See Table 1).

The scores achieved by the fourth grade ELLs in Georgia in 2009 were similar to the national composite scores reported for the fourth grade ELLs. In the fourth grade, 41% of the Georgia ELLs scored below basic in mathematics compared with 21% of their English-speaking peers, and 78% of the Georgia ELLs scored below basic in reading compared with 36% of their English-speaking peers (USDOE, 2009a & b).

Table 1. *Difference in the Percentage of ELLs and their English-speaking peers who Achieved Scores Below Basic in Mathematics and Reading on the NAEP in 2005 and 2009.*

	ELLs	English-speaking peers	Gap
2005 Fourth Grade Mathematics	46%	17%	29%
2009 Eighth Grade Mathematics	72%	25%	47%
2005 Fourth Grade Reading	73%	33%	40%
2009 Eighth Grade Reading	74%	22%	52%

There are no scores available for the eighth grade ELLs in Georgia in either mathematics or reading for 2009, because the data did not meet reporting standards (USDOE, 2009a &b). The national, composite scores that were reported for the eighth grade ELLs indicated that 72% of them scored below basic in mathematics and 74% of them scored below basic in reading. If these scores are any indication of how the eighth grade ELLs in Georgia might have performed on the NAEP in 2009, too many of them would still have lacked the fundamental knowledge and skills required to achieve a score of basic in mathematics and reading. All Georgia educators, including administrators, classroom teachers, school library media specialists, and special area teachers, will have to work together if these students are to achieve grade level proficiency in both mathematics and reading by 2014.

A search of the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database through the Georgia State University Library revealed fifteen dissertations related to the provision of library services to language minority populations. The search was conducted using the following search terms: English to speakers of other languages, English language learners, language minority students, and limited English proficient students, libraries, library science, library services, media centers, media specialist, school library media centers, and school library media programs. The dissertations focused on students in preschool through graduate school who were engaged in a variety of activities: literacy programs, conducting searches for information, using library resources in multiple formats, and improving their English language proficiency. Additional topics included the impact of a majority limited English proficient Latino enrollment on the role of the elementary school media specialist; mid-life women in a library literacy program; and the

effect of Hispanic population proportion on public library services to the Spanish-speaking. However, there was no evidence of any dissertations that focused on how school library media specialists in elementary and middle schools support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade. In order to accomplish this purpose, one elementary school and one middle school in each of two school districts were selected to participate in the proposed study. These schools were among the those in their school districts with the highest concentrations of ELLs on their respective levels; moreover, the percentages of ELLs in these schools who met and exceeded the standard for the reading and English/language arts sections of the Georgia CRCT when it was administered in 2010 were either more than the AMO of 73.3% or slightly less, indicating that these students achieved some degree of success in these subjects which are also the ones most likely to be affected by the quality of the school library media program. I observed how the school library media specialists carried out their responsibilities as teachers, instructional partners, information specialists, and program administrators. Following observations during which the school library media specialist taught a class, I collected copies of instructional materials (e.g., lesson plans, handouts, and worksheets). The school library media specialists were also interviewed as a means of obtaining their perspectives on their school library media programs, and an analysis of the school library media collection was conducted using the

online public access catalog in order to determine the kinds of resources accessible to ELLs.

Guiding Questions

The research questions that guided this study focused on how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

1. What types of instructional strategies, including technology-based strategies, do the school library media specialists use to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?
2. What types of assistive resources are included in the school library media collections that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs (e.g., first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks and other digital resources)?
3. How do the school library media specialists collaborate with the other members of the instructional team (e.g., individually, grade level planning, vertical planning, leadership team)?
4. What, if any, other practices have been implemented by the school library media specialists that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?

Theoretical Framework

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) is a resource that school library media specialists can use to build an effective student-centered school library media program designed to help students become "independent, information-literate, lifelong learners" (p. ix). Part One of *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* presents the philosophy behind the school library media program, the mission and the goals of the school library media program, the school library media specialist's specific responsibilities, and information literacy standards that describe what an information literate student should know and be able to do.

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) references both contemporary learning and information theories. Language used in the chapters titled "The Vision," and "Learning and Teaching" indicates that the contemporary learning theory includes elements of constructivism, a learning theory pioneered by Vygotsky among others. Learning is defined as "the active building of knowledge through dynamic interaction with information and experience" (p. 2); and the description of the information search process features language that portrays learners as actively engaged in the construction of meaning through interaction with information sources in order to create products that effectively communicate that meaning. The information search process is further identified as authentic learning, which is student-centered and facilitated by the school library media specialist. In order to promote this kind of learning, school library media specialists are urged to adopt "a new conception of the context of education" (p. 2) that includes the formation of all-inclusive learning communities. Furthermore, Principle 8 in "Learning and Teaching" focuses on the

responsibility of the school library media specialist to foster individual and collaborative inquiry-based learning by providing students with intellectual and physical access to resources.

Lu and Jeng (2006/2007) identified the social theory of constructivism as one of the main constructivist theories. Social constructivism is based on the work of Vygotsky who emphasized the role of the socio-cultural environment in the construction of knowledge by the subject in collaboration with others (Lu & Jeng).

In *Mind in Society*, Vygotsky (1978) explored the relationship between learning and development. He was particularly interested in the changes that occur in this relationship when children reach school age. According to Vygotsky, learning and development are interrelated beginning on the first day of life. However, the child is introduced to the concept of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) upon entering school. In order to ascertain the child's developmental level, it is necessary to determine both "the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p.86). What a child can accomplish without assistance represents those functions that have fully matured in the child; but what a child accomplishes with some assistance is indicative of functions that are in the process of maturation. The interval between the two developmental levels is the ZPD, which serves as an indicator and facilitator of the child's potential for mental development.

Vygotsky (1978) used language acquisition as a paradigm for the relationship between learning and development. Initially, language functions as a means of communication between the child and other people, but once it is converted to internal speech, it organizes the child's thought and becomes an internal function. Learning stimulates "internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (p. 90). Learning is not synonymous with development; however, it activates developmental processes that "would be impossible apart from learning" (p. 90). The developmental process lags behind the learning process, according to Vygotsky, which results in zones of proximal development. Vygotsky regarded the emergence of "higher mental functions that reflect the social origin of the child's interaction with his environment" (p. 89) as an indication of cultural development.

According to Levykh (2008), Vygotsky's notion of the ZPD best represents the relationship between the social origins of children's cultural development and educational practice. The ZPD is a reflection of Vygotsky's belief that "learning can lead development under certain conditions that are created by educators" (p. 90). The conditions to which Levykh alluded include providing students with an environment conducive to learning and learning activities that are specifically designed to provide a framework to guide their construction (as cited in Kozulin, 1998). Levykh also described the ZPD as "a cultural process of assistance through cooperation and collaboration…[that] uses cultural tools, signs, and symbols to mediate the process of learning" (p.90). The assistance students receive activates internal development

processes, and "once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.90).

One of the ways in which school library media specialists fulfill their mission "to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information" (AASL & AECT, 1998), is to facilitate the information search process. As teachers and instructional partners, they provide intellectual access to information through information literacy skills instruction and learning activities; and as information specialists and program administrators, they provide physical access to information as well as an environment conducive to learning. When they foster individual and collaborative inquiry-based learning, they are cooperating and collaborating with students and staff in a "cultural process of assistance…[that] uses cultural tools, signs, and symbols to mediate the process of learning" (Levykh, 2008, p. 90).

Au (1998) stated that "a social constructivist perspective on the literacy achievement of students of diverse backgrounds can be strengthened by moving from a mainstream orientation to an orientation toward diversity, giving greater consideration to issues of ethnicity, primary language, and social class" (p. 298). Social constructivism, according to Au, views interaction within the social group as the basis for constructing knowledge. The emergence of higher mental functions (e.g., literacy practices) indicates cultural development that occurs as a result of a process of assistance that uses cultural tools (e.g., language and writing systems) to mediate learning. However, Au asserted that a mainstream constructivist orientation does not adequately consider the effects of differences in ethnicity, primary language, and social class on school literacy learning by students of diverse backgrounds, and proposed a conceptual framework based on a set of

propositions. These propositions reflect the diverse constructivist orientation and specify strategies for improving the literacy learning of students of diverse backgrounds: 1) provide learning activities that encourage students to take ownership of literacy; 2) acknowledge the value and importance of the students' home language(s) and promote biliteracy; 3) use instructional materials that portray diverse cultures authentically and multicultural literature by authors of diverse backgrounds; 4) implement culturally responsive instructional practices; and 5) establish connections with the community and the students' families in order to make use of their funds of knowledge (Au, 1998).

As a resource for school library media specialists, *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998) has informed their practice for more than a decade. In the text, there are multiple references to a contemporary educational theory that incorporates elements of social constructivism derived from the work of Vygotsky. Due to the apparent influence of social constructivism on the practice of school library media specialists, social constructivism will provide the theoretical framework that will guide the proposed study. Likewise, the propositions set forth by Au (1998) will be given due consideration.

The Significance of the Study

The impact studies conducted by Lance et al. (1993, 2000) and other groups of researchers identified specific characteristics of school library media programs that had a positive impact on student achievement. This study produced information that may increase understanding of how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade, and

may enable other school library media specialists who serve ELLs to improve their practice.

Definition of Terms

Adequate yearly progress (AYP) is "an annual measure of student participation and achievement on the statewide assessments and other academic indicators" (GADOE, 2006).

An authentic learning activity is an activity that requires ELLs to apply the skills they are learning to solve a realistic problem, such as locating information they can use to complete a written assignment.

Best-practices are effective, research-based, instructional practices.

English language learner (ELL) denotes a student who has indicated a first or home language other than English on the Home Language Survey and achieves a score indicating a proficiency level of less than 5.0 on the WIDA-ACCESS Proficiency Test (W-APT), the official screening instrument used in Georgia (GADOE, 2005-2008).

ESOL is an acronym that represents English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Information literacy is defined in *Information Power* as "the ability to find and use information" (AASL & AECT, 1998, p. 1).

LEA is an acronym that represents local education agency. Local education agencies include school districts and schools.

Learning community is described in *Information Power* as extending beyond the limitations of the school population to encompass "local, regional, state, national, and international communities" (AASL & AECT, 1998, p. 2). However, the term learning

community in this study refers to the school population, including students, classroom teachers, and administrators, unless otherwise indicated.

Limited-English proficient (LEP) denotes national origin-minority group children whose inability to speak or understand English excludes them from effective participation in the educational program (USDOE, 2000).

PebbleGo is an online subscription service available from Capstone Digital that comprises four databases: “Biographies”, “PebbleGo Animals”, “PebbleGo Earth and Space”, and “Social Studies.”

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) is an instructional model developed by Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2000) that provides a framework for planning and delivering instruction designed to enhance ELLs’ comprehension of the regular curriculum content and support their acquisition of academic English.

Title I School is a school that receives federal funding for the purpose of educating students who are identified as disadvantaged (NCLB, 2001).

Chapter Summary

The first chapter provided the background of the problem, the statement of the problem, the theoretical framework that guided this study, the purpose of this study and defined the terminology. In the second chapter, the literature review addresses the following areas of research: 1) legislation and judicial decisions that furnish the legal basis for providing language services to ELLs; 2) instructional strategies and frameworks for teaching ELLs in the classroom; 3) research studies that associate school library media programs with students’ academic performance; 4) professional literature that informs school library media specialists about meeting the needs of ELLs through school

library media programs; and 5) the importance of collaboration between school library media specialists and classroom teachers.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The school library media program is required to support learning for all the members of the learning community regardless of their differences or exceptionalities. This study focused on how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

In this chapter, the literature review addresses the following areas of research: 1) legislation and judicial decisions that furnish the legal basis for providing language services to ELLs; 2) instructional strategies and frameworks for teaching ELLs in the classroom; 3) research studies that associate school library media programs with students' academic performance; 4) professional literature that informs school library media specialists about meeting the needs of ELLs through school library media programs; and 5) the importance of collaboration between school library media specialists and classroom teachers.

The Legal Basis for Providing Language Services to ELLs

During the previous century, legislation designed to ensure that national origin-minority students have an equal opportunity to receive an education was enacted into law. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act was enacted in 1964 to prohibit programs receiving federal financial assistance from engaging in discriminatory practices based on color, race, or national origin. Furthermore, the regulatory requirements of Title VI were interpreted to prohibit the denial of equal access to education to students based on their

limited English proficiency (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, 2000, "Title VI Requirements," para. 3).

In 1970, school districts with more than 5% national origin-minority group children were charged with the responsibility to "rectify the language deficiency" (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1970, p. 1) and make their educational programs accessible to national origin-minority group children whose inability to communicate in the English language excluded them from effective participation. Furthermore, the Supreme Court decision in *Lau v. Nichols*, a class action lawsuit brought against the San Francisco Unified School District by the families of non-English speaking Chinese students, stated, "That there is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education" (USDOE, OCR, 2000, "OCR Title VI Policy on Language Minority Students," para. 5).

The purpose of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was "to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments" (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001). One of the measures for accomplishing this purpose involved meeting the needs of specific groups of children, including limited English proficient (LEP) children. Title III, Part A of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (The English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act) describes the federal financial assistance available to the states and the means by which state and local education agencies (LEAs)

and schools are held accountable for improvements in their LEP students' English language proficiency and their core academic content knowledge. Educational programs developed to provide language instruction under the provisions of this Act were expected to assist LEP and immigrant students to become proficient in English and enable them to master the same academic content and student achievement standards as their English-speaking peers (No Child Left Behind Act of 2001).

The educational language instruction program implemented in Georgia to assist ELLs is English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). The state of Georgia funds the ESOL program for eligible ELLs in grades K-12 whose first language is other than English or whose limited proficiency in English effectively limits their participation in the educational program. Under ESOL and Title III, students are held accountable for progress towards proficiency in English and providing sufficient evidence of their proficiency to exit the ESOL program (Georgia Department of Education, 2005-2008).

Georgia is one of 19 states that are currently members of the World Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) Consortium. With funding from a United States Department of Education enhanced assessment grant, WIDA consortium members developed the English language proficiency (ELP) standards, which were first published in 2004. ACCESS for ELLs ™ is an English language proficiency test that assesses student performance in relation to the ELP standards. The ELP standards have been integrated with the Georgia Performance Standards in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies, providing the ESOL program with a standards-based curriculum that focuses on communicating information, ideas, and concepts in the

academic content areas, as well as social communication in English in the school setting (GADOE, 2005-2008).

ELLs are required to participate in annual state assessments (Program for limited-English-proficient students of 1981). ELLs who have been enrolled in U.S. public schools for less than one year may receive a one-time deferment from a content area assessment other than mathematics or science if their proficiency in English indicates that participation in the assessment would not be in their best educational interest. However, any ESOL student receiving a one-time deferment must participate in the state adopted language proficiency assessment, and participation in the ACCESS test may be used to satisfy the participation component of adequate yearly progress (AYP) for these ESOL students (C. Domaleski, personal communication, April 9, 2008).

Summary. During the last century, a succession of legislation and judicial decisions prohibited discrimination in education on the basis of color, race, national origin, or limited English proficiency. The stated purpose of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was to provide all children with an equal opportunity to receive a quality education based on challenging state academic achievement standards and state assessments. Title III, Part A of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 detailed the provisions that allowed states and local education agencies to obtain funding for the development of educational language instruction programs for LEP students as well as the means by which they would be held accountable. The educational language instruction program in Georgia is the ESOL program. Georgia's membership in the WIDA consortium has led to the integration of the ELP standards with the Georgia Performance Standards and the development of a standards-based curriculum for the

ESOL program that focuses on communicating information, ideas, and concepts in the academic content areas as well as social communication in English in the school setting

Instructional Strategies and Frameworks for Teaching ELLs in the Classroom

Instructional Strategies. Elley and Mangubhai (1983) conducted an experiment with Fijian primary school children to test their hypothesis that repeated exposure to high-interest picture books in the target language supports second language acquisition. In all South Pacific countries, the language spoken at home is different from the language spoken at school (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). Students from rural primary schools in Classes 4 and 5 were randomly assigned to one of three treatments: the shared book experience, sustained silent reading, and the Tate oral English syllabus, a traditional, audio-lingual method of English instruction. Over a period of four to five weeks, each of the classes implementing either the shared book experience or sustained silent reading received 250 books. The interactive role assumed by the teacher during the shared book experience differentiated this treatment from either sustained silent reading or the control group. During the shared book experience, the teacher previewed the book with the students, invited them to make predictions about the story, and discussed new words with them before reading the book. Each book was read three times to the students over a period of a few days, after which the students participated in follow-up activities. The students were invited to read along, make and confirm predictions, and discuss the story during the second or third reading. Neither the sustained silent reading teachers, who also read the books aloud to the students, nor the control group, which maintained its use of the Tate oral English syllabus, engaged in follow-up activities with the students.

Reading comprehension tests were administered to all the students in Classes 4 and 5 at the participating schools both at the beginning of the experiment and after an interval of 8.5 months (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983). During the 8.5 months, both the shared book experience and the sustained silent reading groups gained 15 months of growth in reading comprehension compared with the control group, which gained only 6.5 months. One year later, the authors conducted a follow-up study to measure the persistence of the effects. The shared book experience and the sustained silent reading groups again demonstrated more growth in the English language than the control group. Elley and Mangubhai credited the books' appeal as the source of motivation for the students to read in English and attributed the differences in the performances of the three groups to classroom activities that took place during the 2-year experiment.

Elley (1989) conducted two further experiments in New Zealand to measure schoolchildren's acquisition of new vocabulary from listening to stories read aloud. The first experiment replicated a previous experiment Elley and Mangubhai had conducted on the island of Fiji, but with a larger sample. In this experiment, a story was read aloud three times to 168 seven-year-old schoolchildren in seven classrooms by seven participating teachers, their classroom teachers, and once more by the participating teachers at 3-day intervals over a period of 7 days. None of the teachers explained the meanings of new words to the students, but during the third reading, the students were encouraged to make predictions and discuss the story. One week prior to the first reading, a multiple choice vocabulary test was administered to the students to measure their comprehension of the approximately 20 new words contained in the story. Half of the target vocabulary words were represented in the test as pictures from which the

students could select the one that best matched the meaning of the word, and the other half of the words were tested using synonym test items (Elley, 1989). When the test was administered again, the schoolchildren achieved "a mean increase of 15.4% overall" (Elley, 1989, p. 178).

One of the purposes Elley (1989) gave for the second experiment was, "to confirm the phenomenon of incidental vocabulary learning found in Experiment 1 with two different storybooks" (p. 180). This study involved two experimental groups and one control group. The two experimental groups were composed of six classes of 8-year-olds taught by six veteran teachers in six schools. The control group included 51 students from two schools. Two contrasting stories were selected to be read aloud to the students, and two treatments were devised that would allow for a comparison between reading the stories aloud either with or without explaining the unfamiliar words. Treatment 1 entailed reading the story aloud and explaining the target words by using a phrase with a similar meaning, dramatizing the word, or using a picture to convey the meaning. Treatment 2 consisted of reading the story without elaboration. Both stories received different treatments and the experimental groups heard both stories, while the control group did not hear either story.

One week after the stories were read, a multiple choice vocabulary test was administered to all three groups; and 3 months later, delayed posttests were administered to them (Elley, 1989). The results for the control group that did not hear either story indicated a vocabulary gain of less than 2%, while the results for the group that heard the first story without an explanation of the target words indicated a mean vocabulary gain of 14.8%. The overall vocabulary gain for the group that heard the same story with an

explanation of the target words was 39.9% (Elley, 1989). The results for the second story indicated an overall vocabulary gain for the group that heard the story without an explanation of the target words of 4.4%, and a vocabulary gain of 17.1% for the group that heard the same story with an explanation of the target words (Elley, 1989). Based on the findings from both experiments, Elley concluded that schoolchildren can acquire new vocabulary incidentally from having picture books read aloud to them, and when teachers explain new vocabulary words as they are encountered in the text, their vocabulary gains can more than double. Moreover, children with less vocabulary knowledge at the beginning can gain "at least as much from the readings as the other students and…the learning is relatively permanent" (Elley, 1989, p. 184).

Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, and Vaughn (2004) described a similar strategy for reading aloud to first-grade ELLs with reading difficulties that improved both their vocabulary and reading comprehension. Both fiction and nonfiction books can be used; however, the authors recommended selecting books on a reading level one or two grade levels above the students' grade level. They also emphasized the advantages of selecting books that are interesting to the students and grouping the books thematically. When books with a common theme/topic are read together, the students have more opportunities to encounter the vocabulary in related contexts and increase their content knowledge (Hickman et al., 2004).

The books are divided into passages of 200-250 words according to the natural flow of the story (Hickman et al., 2004). Limiting the length of the passages allows the teacher to concentrate on the meanings of fewer new vocabulary words during each read-aloud session and encourages the students to maintain their knowledge of the content as

well as the vocabulary of the story during the time required to complete it. An entire book can be read and discussed in a few days. The day after the last passage has been read and discussed, the entire book is reread and difficult or key vocabulary words are reviewed (Hickman et al., 2004).

In 2006, Diane August and Timothy Shanahan served as the Principal Investigator and the Panel Chair respectively for the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth which published *Developing Literacy in Second Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth*. This report reviewed quantitative and qualitative research studies on the education of language-minority children and their literacy development.

August and Shanahan (2006) reported that language-minority children benefit from instruction in the key components of reading identified by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension, as well as oral English language development. Specific skills associated with oral English proficiency (e.g., vocabulary knowledge, listening comprehension, and syntactic skills) are related to reading comprehension and writing skills. The most successful literacy programs, according to August and Shanahan, align literacy instruction with instructional support for oral language development in English.

Although learning patterns in the reviewed studies suggest a similarity between the sequencing of instruction for language minority students and native English speakers, emphasizing word-level skills earlier and reading comprehension later, August and

Shanahan (2006) recommended that classroom teachers provide language-minority students with intensive instruction in background knowledge and vocabulary throughout.

Gersten, Baker, Shanahan, Linan-Thompson, Collins, and Scarcella (U.S. Department of Education, 2007) authored a practice guide for the Institute of Educational Sciences with the goal of furnishing educators with evidence-based recommendations that address the challenge of providing elementary English learners with effective literacy instruction. Based on research analyzed and reviewed by the What Works Clearinghouse, five recommendations for improving literacy instruction for ELLs were formulated. Two of the recommendations were for "intensive small group reading" and "extensive and varied vocabulary instruction" (p. 7). Gersten et al. recommended that the small-group reading intervention be implemented using an intervention program that provides explicit instruction on the key components of reading for 30 minutes each day with small groups of students who have been grouped homogeneously based on their reading ability. Furthermore, Gersten et al. recommended that explicit daily vocabulary instruction be integrated with reading and English language development as well as emphasized across the curriculum. Gersten et al. further recommended the development of district wide lists of vocabulary words drawn from the core reading program and content area textbooks for use in classroom instruction. Moreover, English learners were to receive explicit instruction on the meanings of words commonly used in conversation, because textbook publishers do not often include them among target vocabulary words.

Bauer and Manyak (2008) described language rich instruction in terms of practical strategies that support the development of ELLs' literacy skills. One strategy involved using demonstrations, visuals, and/or graphic organizers to build students'

background knowledge. Another strategy engaged the students in a relevant hands-on experience prior to listening to a story read aloud. The creation of a word wall featuring English/Spanish cognates was yet another strategy that served a dual purpose, as a helpful resource for the students and as a demonstration of the importance of both languages in the classroom. Furthermore, Bauer and Manyak suggested instructing ELLs to record their ideas in language logs in preparation for their participation in classroom discussions with either the teacher or other students as a means of improving their oral English proficiency.

Goldenberg (2008) summarized the major findings of two reviews of research completed in 2006 by the National Literacy Panel (NLP) and researchers affiliated with the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) in three points:

1. Teaching students to read in their first language promotes higher levels of reading achievement in English.
2. What we know about good instruction and curriculum in general holds true for English learners as well.
3. However, when instructing English learners in English, teachers must modify instruction to take into account students' language limitations (Goldenberg, 2008, p. 14).

Based on a meta-analysis of 17 studies that compared bilingual instruction with second language immersion, the NLP concluded that bilingual instruction in reading, given either sequentially or concurrently, increased the reading achievement of ELLs in the second language compared with ELLs who received reading instruction only in the

second language (Goldenberg, 2008). Goldenberg suggested that *transfer*, a process whereby knowledge and skills learned in one language transfer across languages, is a likely explanation for the positive effects of bilingual instruction. Furthermore, Goldenberg indicated that classroom teachers who are aware of ELLs' academic experience could help them apply prior knowledge learned in their first language to learning in English.

Findings from the NLP review indicated that both ELLs and native English speakers benefit from explicit instruction in the key components of reading and writing (Goldenberg, 2008). When it is part of a comprehensive approach to early literacy instruction, direct instruction in phonological and decoding skills benefits ELLs who are at risk for developing reading problems. Likewise, ELLs learn more words when words are taught directly, encountered in meaningful contexts, and opportunities for repetition and practice are provided. The CREDE report recommended integrating both direct and interactive instructional strategies.

Goldenberg (2008) also supplemented the reviews of research by the NLP and CREDE, with sidebars that included responses to questions and descriptions of instructional modifications. One of the questions Goldenberg addressed concerned teaching English language development. Goldenberg described effective second language instruction as a combination of explicit instruction in "syntax, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and norms of social usage," as well as opportunities for ELLs to interact verbally in "meaningful and motivational situations" (p. 13). However, as the content, language, and vocabulary demands increase, Goldenberg indicated that instructional modifications that make content more accessible for ELLs would likely

become necessary. The following instructional modifications were among several recommended by Goldenberg as helpful for ELLs:

1. Make familiar reading material accessible to students.
2. Before reading material, expose students to the content contained in the text.
3. Clearly explain the meaning of unfamiliar words.
4. Support verbal explanations of word meanings with visuals.
5. Teach words explicitly and provide opportunities for students to encounter the words in multiple contexts across texts.
6. Use the first language strategically with attention to cognates between the students' first language and English.
7. Adjust instruction for students' level of oral English proficiency.
8. Include both content and language objectives as part of every lesson.

Teale (2009) synthesized reviews of research by the NLP, CREDE, Goldenberg, and others to summarize current research on "effective classroom strategies that help English learners succeed in school" (p. 699). He included a summary of Goldenberg's findings (2004, 2006, 2008, Sanders & Goldenberg, 1999) which he categorized as: "(1) things we are basically sure about (you can bank on it), (2) what may be (highly likely), and (3) what we really don't know very much about and on which we need substantially more research (need more information)" (p. 700). In the first category, Teale (2009) placed well designed, student-centered instruction that emphasizes "comprehension, vocabulary, phonological awareness, phonics and word recognition, reading fluency, and writing" (p. 700). He also recommended the following instructional accommodations indicated in the research:

1. Provide extended explanations with redundant information such as gestures, pictures, and other visual cues.
2. Provide extra attention to identifying and clarifying key and difficult vocabulary.
3. Use texts that have a degree of content familiarity.
4. Focus on consolidating text knowledge by having the teacher, other students, and English learners paraphrase and summarize.
5. Provide additional time and practice with reading and writing activities.
6. Provide extended linguistic interactions with peers and teacher.
7. Strategically use knowledge of students' primary language, if teacher is able (pp. 700-701).

Included in the second category were parents and others living in the home who coordinate with the school to read aloud to their children in pre-school and kindergarten, listen to their primary-grade students read, and discuss with their children the books their children are reading (Teale, 2009). The third category included (a) the relationship between culturally compatible literacy instruction and "students' enhanced literacy achievement" (Teale, 2009, p. 702), (b) whether instructional accommodations based on either grade or reading level benefit students the most, and (c) the kinds of home support that would most benefit students.

Instructional Frameworks. Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2000) developed the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) as part of a research project sponsored by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE). According to Short and Echevarria (2004), the SIOP provides a framework for planning

and delivering instruction designed to enhance ELLs' comprehension of the regular curriculum content and support their acquisition of academic English. The SIOP comprises 30 instructional strategies organized into eight components: (a) preparation, (b) building background, (c) comprehensible input, (d) strategies, (e) interaction, (f) practice/application, (g) lesson delivery, and (h) review/assessment. Included in the framework are the following features designed to foster ELLs' academic success, "language objectives in every content lesson, the development of students' background knowledge, and emphasis on academic literacy practice" (Short & Echevarria, 2004, p. 11). Based on their experience with this model, Short and Echevarria suggested the following classroom strategies for teachers to use with ELLs as a means of developing their academic literacy across the curriculum:

1. Identify the language demands of the content course.
2. Plan language objectives for all lessons and make them explicit to students.
3. Emphasize academic vocabulary development.
4. Activate and strengthen background knowledge.
5. Promote oral interaction and extended academic talk.
6. Review vocabulary and content concepts.
7. Give students feedback on language use in class. (pp. 11-13)

In 2001, Guarino, Echevarria, Short, Schick, Forbes, and Rueda (2001) conducted a study to measure the "validity and reliability of the SIOP instrument" (Echevarria, Powers, & Short, 2006, p. 201). The participants in the research were located in one West Coast and two East Coast school districts. In the West Coast district, the ethnic composition of the student population was "45% Hispanic, 20% African American, 18%

Caucasian, and 11% Asian/Pacific Islander" (p. 202). In the two East Coast districts, the ethnic composition of the student population was "41% Caucasian, 32% Hispanic, 17% African American, and 10% Asian/Pacific Islander" in one district and "61% Caucasian, 11% Hispanic, 11% African American, and 14% Asian/Pacific Islander" (p. 202) in the other district. All the student participants were designated as ELL based on their performance on the language proficiency assessment administered by their local school districts, and they were all enrolled in sheltered content classes. In the West Coast district, there were ten intervention teachers located in two middle schools and three comparison teachers located at a third middle school. In the two East Coast districts, nine intervention teachers were located in four middle schools, and one comparison teacher was located in another middle school. Previously, Short and Echevarria (1999) had trained the intervention teachers to implement the SIOP over a period of one to two years. None of the comparison teachers had received SIOP training, although all but one of them were certified to teach ELLs.

The students' academic literacy was measured using an expository writing assessment. A writing prompt similar to a typical writing task in a social studies class was used for both the pretest and the posttest. Although the test was not timed, a majority of the students completed the task within a 40-50 minute class period. An independent rater evaluated all of the pretest and posttest writing samples from the intervention and the comparison classes and scored them using the IMAGE writing rubric. When the scores from the intervention and comparison groups were compared, the findings indicated "that the participants whose teachers were trained in the SIOP made significantly better gains in writing than did the comparison group.

These results led Echevarria et al. (2006) to conclude that using specific instructional strategies consistently and systematically with ELLs within the framework of the SIOP produced significant improvement in their expository writing compared with students whose classroom teachers had not received SIOP training. Although using strategies and techniques derived from sheltered instruction (e.g., clearly enunciated speech spoken at a slower rate, teaching key vocabulary, scaffolding instruction) may make instruction more comprehensible for ELLs; Echevarria et al. cautioned that without a scientifically-validated model to guide teachers as they plan and deliver instruction, instruction "will not be consistent in and across classrooms" (p. 207).

Fitzgerald and Graves (2005) developed scaffolded reading experiences (SREs), a research-based framework for facilitating ELLs' literacy development. The framework includes activities and strategies that can be used with any literary genre before, during, or after reading. Teachers should use these activities, according to Fitzgerald and Graves, to position ELLs in their *zone of proximal development* and enable them to perform tasks that would otherwise be too difficult for them. The zone of proximal development was defined by Vygotsky (1978) as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Fitzgerald and Graves used the term zone of proximal development to indicate that the activities "require students to use functions that are in the process of maturing but have not fully matured" (p. 69).

In one example described by Fitzgerald and Graves (2005), a teacher used multiple SREs sequentially to prepare his class to read a difficult reading selection. The

teacher began by sharing a personal experience to motivate his students, built their background knowledge about a concept central to the reading selection, and pre-taught vocabulary. In another example, Fitzgerald and Graves invited readers to consider how they, as teachers, might use SREs to modify instruction to match the developing language skills of ELLs in the class as well as recent arrivals who are Spanish speaking. Fitzgerald and Graves suggested using visuals to build background knowledge and pre-teaching difficult vocabulary as pre-reading activities. As during-reading activities, they suggested the reader might read aloud followed by having the students read silently. Finally, they suggested pairing a strong English reader with each Latino student to assist the latter in writing a response to a comprehension question and participation in group discussions as post-reading activities.

Summary. Elley and Mangubhai (1983) demonstrated that students could acquire vocabulary words incidentally in a second language from listening to picture books read aloud to them. Hickman, Pollard-Durodola, and Vaughn (2004) implemented a similar strategy for reading aloud to first-grade ELLs with reading difficulties that improved these students' vocabulary and reading comprehension. Current research indicates that ELLs benefit from daily literacy and vocabulary instruction that is integrated with reading and oral English language development (August & Shanahan, 2006). Teale (2009) synthesized information from reports by the NLP, CREDE, Goldenberg, and others to produce a summary of current research that offers "effective classroom strategies that help English learners succeed in school" (p. 699). Strategies he recommended include supporting explanations of word meanings with visual clues, asking students to paraphrase or summarize information in order to consolidate text

knowledge, and offering students extended time for activities that involve verbal interaction, reading, or writing. Strategies that appear frequently in the writing of other researchers include teaching literacy skills, building vocabulary, and engaging ELLs in extended verbal interaction.

The SIOP and SREs are two research-based instructional frameworks developed for use with ELLs. Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2000) developed the SIOP, which includes a framework for planning and delivering instruction in the content areas. Features included in the framework (e.g., language objectives for every content lesson; planned development of the students' background knowledge, and academic literacy practice), are designed to foster ELLs' academic success. SREs, an instructional framework developed by Fitzgerald and Graves (2005) consists of strategies and activities that promote literacy development.

How School Library Media Programs Impact Student Performance

In "The Impact of School Library Media Centers on Academic Achievement," an article published in the spring 1994 issue of *School Library Media Quarterly*, Lance (1994) described the methodology used in the First Colorado Study, which he conducted with Wellborn and Hamilton-Pennell in 1993. The study sample consisted of 221 public elementary and secondary schools selected because they responded to the 1989 survey of school library media centers and measured student achievement with either the Iowa Test of Basic Skills or the Tests of Achievement and Proficiency. Multiple independent variables (percentage of minority students, percentage of free lunch students, and percentage of adults graduated from high school) obtained from the 1980 Census data for each Colorado district with a school in the sample were combined into a single at-risk

factor. Reading test scores were selected to represent student achievement because an analysis of the student achievement data revealed a positive relationship among student scores on reading tests, information-seeking skills, and language usage. Not only did the at-risk factor become one of nine independent variables used in the final analysis of the study, but it was also one of two predictors of reading scores for most of the grade levels under study; the other predictor was the size of the school library media program. Lance et al. concluded that students were more likely to achieve higher average test scores on reading tests in schools with better-funded school library media centers, large and varied collections of materials, and adequate staffing, including state-endorsed school library media specialists who assumed an active instructional role.

The Second Colorado Study conducted by Lance, Rodney, and Hamilton-Pennell (2000) found that increases in students' reading scores corresponded with increases in the size of the library program. Reading scores increased when the size of the library program was measured based on (a) the total number of hours the staff worked; (b) the size of the collection; (c) online access to media center resources, licensed databases, and the Internet via networked computers; and (d) collaboration between school library media specialists and classroom teachers. Furthermore, Lance et al. related the increases in the students' reading scores to the principles of leadership, collaboration, and technology, which are integral to the school library media specialist's role, and they maintained that other conditions in the school or community could not moderate the relationship.

In 2009, Michie and Westat prepared an evaluation of the Improving Literacy Through School Libraries (LSL) program for the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, in which they compared the findings

from *The Evaluation of the Improving Literacy Through School Libraries Program: Final Report*, a previous evaluation that included data from 2004-2005, with the findings from *The Second Evaluation of the Improving Literacy Through School Libraries Program* which included data from 2005-2006 (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, 2009). The LSL program was established under Title I, Part B, Subpart 4 of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 to improve the literacy skills and academic achievement of students by providing them with access to current media, advanced technology, and professionally trained and certified school library media specialists. Applicants for the competitive grants awarded by the LSL program were required to be local education agencies (LEAs) in which 20 percent or more of the students were from families with incomes below the poverty line.

Michie and Westat noted a significant relationship between increasing the size of the book collections and improved test scores. "On average, each additional book per student that libraries obtained was associated with an increase of 0.44 percentage points in student test scores" (USDOE, OPEPD, 2009, p. xix). However, due to missing baseline data for more than 50% of the respondents, Michie and Westat were unable to issue a definitive statement linking the Improving Literacy Through School Libraries program with increases in student test scores.

Between October 2002 and December 2003, Todd (2003) and Kuhlthau conducted the *Student Learning through Ohio School Libraries* research study, which asked students and classroom teachers how *effective* school libraries benefit students. According to Todd and Kuhlthau, prior research by Dr. Keith Curry Lance and other researchers had shown the following characteristics of school library media programs to

be predictors of academic achievement when academic achievement is measured in terms of standardized test scores:

> …credentialed staff and support staff engaged in a curriculum-centered library program; school librarians' involvement in collaborative literacy instruction; provision of high quality collections and information technology infrastructure for information access and use; and motivating students to read (p. 1).

Thirty-nine schools with effective school libraries were selected to participate in this study. Students in Grades 3-12 were given access to a web-based survey that included Likert responses to 48 statements and a single open-ended critical incident question. They were invited to rate the level of helpfulness they had experienced in relation to each of the statements and provide an anecdotal response to the open-ended question. The classroom teachers were given access to another survey that consisted of the same 48 statements, with a change in the *person*, as well as an open-ended question that invited them to provide evidence to support their perception of how the school library helped their students. According to Todd and Kuhlthau, the responses from 99.44% of the student sample (13,050 students) indicated they had received help in their learning from the school library, its program, and/or the school librarian. When he was interviewed by Kenney in 2006, Todd commented, "By getting a picture of how school libraries in a best-practices scenario impact student learning, we have some basis for understanding the dynamics of practice far more richly" (pp. 45-46).

Summary. Findings from the First and the Second Colorado Studies correlated specific characteristics of school library media programs with students' higher average scores on reading tests. Subsequent research confirmed that students achieved higher average test

scores in schools with better-funded school library media centers, large and varied collections of materials, and adequate staffing, including a state-endorsed school library media specialist who assumed an active instructional role. The data from *The Second Evaluation of the Improving Literacy through School Libraries Program* yielded a similar finding. "On average, each additional book per student that libraries obtained was associated with an increase of 0.44 percentage points in student test scores" (USDOE, OPEPD, 2009, p. xix).

The *Student Learning through Ohio School Libraries* research study conducted by Todd and Kuhlthau (2004) asked students and teachers how effective school libraries benefit students. Based on prior research conducted by Lance et al. (1993, 2000), school library media programs with specific characteristics known to be predictors of academic achievement were selected to participate in the study. Responses from 99.44% of the student sample (13,050 students) indicated that they had received help in their learning from the school library, its program, and/or the school librarian.

This study will look at school library media programs located in schools where either more than 73.3% of the ELLs or slightly less met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts on the Georgia CRCT when it was administered in 2010, in an effort to learn how these school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

Professional Literature That Informs School Library Media Specialists about Meeting the Needs of ELLs

As a member of the instructional team, the school library media specialist shares responsibility with the other team members for ensuring that all students achieve their

academic goals. Moreover, the mission of the school library media program is "to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information" (AASL & AECT, 1998, p. 6). The school library media specialist is expected to collaborate with classroom teachers to develop an effective student-centered school library media program that promotes information literacy, independent learning, and social responsibility. While collaborating with classroom teachers, the school library media specialist may assume the role of a teacher, an instructional partner, an information specialist, or a program administrator (AASL & AECT, 1998). The mission of the school library media program and these four specific responsibilities effectively differentiate the professional practice of the school library media specialist from that of the classroom teacher.

A substantial body of professional literature exists that discusses strategies for accommodating the academic and linguistic needs of ELLs in a school setting. Although the majority of this literature appears in professional journals and publications directed at classroom teachers, there is a growing body of literature written by library science and information professionals as well as school library media specialists that focuses on instructional and programming strategies designed to be used by school library media specialists as part of the school library media program.

Latrobe and Laughlin (1992) compiled articles from educators and subject area specialists in a reference book written for school library media specialists. The book is divided into four parts. Part I, the introduction to the book, was written by Latrobe who provided a brief overview of multiculturalism and traced the origins of the multicultural movement in North America back to the pre-colonial era. Latrobe defined multicultural

library media programs as those that "provide equal opportunities for all students, support democratic ideals, and promote cultural pluralism" (p. 1).

Part II (Latrobe & Laughlin, 1992) included chapters devoted to ethnic minorities (e.g., Asian-Pacific Americans, African Americans, Mexican Americans, and Native Americans). Some of the authors who are members of the ethnic minority groups they profiled were able to provide an insider's perspective. One example is Rose Mary Flores Story (1992), the author of the chapter on Mexican Americans, who established her authority by sharing her personal experience as the daughter of a Mexican American father and briefly describing how her ethnicity has had an impact on her life. According to Story, school library media specialists can serve as models for others by interacting with Mexican American students in culturally appropriate ways. In addition, they can acknowledge the Mexican American culture and the other cultures represented in the school throughout the year and oppose the perpetuation of stereotypes. Dyer and Robertson-Kozan (as cited in Story, 1992) offered the following suggestions in order that media specialists serving Spanish-speaking children might be better equipped:

1. Augmenting inadequate Spanish language collections with excellent books and nonprint materials in Spanish and with English materials about the Spanish culture.
2. Going beyond recognition of festivals and known historical facts. Librarians should operate as a vital link between school, community, and family.
3. Providing teachers with adequate references on teaching and learning styles and working with administrators to sensitize the entire faculty to the needs of Hispanic children.

4. Obtaining and distributing a number of excellent bibliographies that review Spanish-language books. Reviewing sources include *Booklist, School Library Journal, The Horn Book Magazine, Wilson Library Bulletin*, and *Journal of Reading*.
5. Searching for representative materials about specific cultural groups such as Mexican Americans (p. 50).

Part III (Latrobe & Laughlin, 1992) explored both the application of educational theory in a multicultural setting and the relationship between the role of the school library media specialist and the curriculums of various academic disciplines (Latrobe & Laughlin, 1992). With a reference to the deficiency needs described in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, Rezabek and Cross (1992) reminded school library media specialists of their responsibility to monitor "the physical, emotional, and social well-being of their patrons" (p. 73). They also described actions school library media specialists can take to help students develop a sense of belonging and increase their chances for academic success. School library media specialists can work to create a positive and supportive climate in the school library media center. By getting to know the students and learning how to pronounce their names correctly, they can foster the students' sense of belonging and self-esteem. School library media specialists can further enhance the students' sense of belonging by introducing student groups to each other, providing them with opportunities for positive interaction, and establishing guidelines for media center activities that help them learn how to accept and respect each other.

Bloom (1956) created taxonomies of educational objectives for the affective, cognitive, and psychomotor domains. According to Rezabek and Cross (1992),

knowledge of Bloom's taxonomies can enable school library media specialists to select materials and activities that will support desired learning outcomes and are appropriate for students from different backgrounds.

The chapter written by Hefner and Lewis (1992) is an example of the chapters in Part III (Latrobe & Laughlin, 1992) that describe the activities of the school library media specialist in relation to the curriculum of an academic discipline, the multicultural language arts/English curriculum. The goal of this multicultural curriculum was to promote an appreciation for other cultures through literature that afforded students the opportunity to experience different cultures vicariously. Hefner and Lewis supplied brief bibliographies of Native American, Asian American, African American, Jewish American, and European American literature with related activities for students in grades K-5 and 6-12.

Part IV (Latrobe & Laughlin, 1992) dealt with the related issues of access to information and censorship. Providing intellectual access to information entails teaching information literacy skills to students and giving them opportunities for guided practice in applying these skills to locate, evaluate, select, synthesize, and use information effectively. Physical access to information is contingent on the size of the collection, adequate staffing, and policies that grant students unrestricted access to information in all formats.

Access to Resources and Services in the School Library Media Program: An Interpretation of the LIBRARY BILL OF RIGHTS, which was adopted by the American Library Association in 1986, extended the principles of the Library Bill of Rights to school library media centers. School library media specialists were made responsible for

(a) information literacy skills instruction; (b) developing collections that are age and grade level appropriate, support the curriculum, and reflect diverse points of view; and (c) establishing policies that grant students unrestricted access to information (ALA, 2009).

Snyder (1992) emphasized that school library media specialists need to be aware that censorship, including censorship that may occur during the selection process, effectively restricts students' access to information. However, they should also be aware of the messages communicated to the students by the materials they select for the collection. When they select materials that represent cultural, ethnic, or linguistic minority groups, school library media specialists should strive to select authentic literature that accurately portrays these groups (Snyder, 1992).

Dame (1993) provided a framework for expanding the scope of school library media programs that included providing materials and services to meet the needs of ELLs. Using professional knowledge gained from her experience as a school library media specialist and relevant research, Dame addressed two key issues: (a) ensuring equal access to information for all students, and (b) teaching all students information literacy skills. As a school library media specialist, Dame observed students who were unable to access information due to their inability to use either library resources or services effectively. Furthermore, Dame acknowledged the existence of linguistic and cultural barriers that hindered ELLs' access to information and made the following recommendations for removing these barriers:

1. Rethink collection development and bibliographic control to ensure that they support equal access to information.

2. Reach out to these students by developing programs and services appropriate to their linguistic competencies, ethnic heritages, and cultural learning modes.
3. Provide bilingual and foreign-language materials in the students' native languages.
4. Develop library selection policies that address funding for and the purchase of ethnic and foreign language materials appropriate to the students in the school.
5. Provide resources to teachers.
6. Develop an awareness of multicultural issues and how professional associations, particularly the American Library Association, address ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity. (pp. 9-10)

When *Information Power* was published in 1988, the position of school library media specialist was redefined and expanded to include collaborating with classroom teachers on integrating the school library media program with the academic curriculum (AASL & AECT, 1988). Dame (1993) interpreted information power to mean that linguistic and culturally diverse students, regardless of their minority status, must be given equal access to the materials and services available in the school library media center. In order to facilitate ELLs' access to library resources, Dame stated that school library media specialists must respond to the curriculum proactively by collaborating with the classroom teachers to develop and co-teach instructional units. Dame also recommended that school library media specialists seek professional development opportunities to become better informed about the needs of ELLs so they could develop "culturally relevant learning resources, design appropriate programs and services for students, and provide access through appropriate bibliographic control" (p. 12).

The following examples are only two of the many activities implemented by Dame (1993) to improve library service for ELLs, provide them with access to sources of information, and encourage them to visit the school library media center regularly. Dame created a welcoming environment by inviting an ESL class and its teacher to the school library media center when there were no other classes present, by giving them a guided tour of the facility and its resources, and by providing a hands-on activity for the students that involved their learning how to use the copier. On another occasion, Dame arranged for an English-dominant class studying Christmas customs around the world to work collaboratively with an ESL class studying Christmas traditions in the United States.

The following strategies are only a few of the many strategies recommended by Dame (1993) for developing ELLs' language skills. ELLs who are beginning to learn English tend to select books that reflect their life experience. For that reason, Dame stated that school library media specialists should include books in the school library media collection that represent diverse cultural and social values, are easily understood, and "reassure students of their worth" (p. 24). Dame further recommended that school library media specialists encourage ELLs to maintain their language skills in their first language by providing them with first language and bilingual reading materials. Furthermore, Dame recommended the following strategies: (a) reading aloud; (b) storytelling; (c) using wordless books to activate prior knowledge, to encourage storytelling, and as writing prompts; (d) choral reading; (e) providing activity centers featuring audio books; and (f) the shared-book experience, which can include a range of extension activities appropriate to the story. Dame also recommended role-playing as an effective way to teach ELLs information literacy skills. While the school library media

specialist acts out various library situations with a volunteer, ELLs can learn library-related vocabulary and observe firsthand how to solve information-related problems.

In recognition of the challenges faced by school librarians who are trying to provide library services to a culturally diverse population, Montiel-Overall (2008) proposed a framework for providing culturally competent services. According to Montiel-Overall, culture is inextricably linked with how humans think and learn, and how humans learn varies across cultures. Therefore, within a cultural competence framework, learning and communicating may occur in several different ways. Providing library services in a multicultural society requires culturally competent professionals.

Becoming culturally competent is a developmental process that prepares the individual to translate "social, cultural, and linguistic information about communities being served into library services" (Montiel-Overall, 2008, p. 5). The first step in the process involves developing an awareness of one's own culture and biases by engaging in a thorough examination of both. The second step involves learning about other cultures through personal interaction, education, travel, or by learning the language. The final step requires the school library media specialist to understand how culture is influenced by environmental factors such as languages spoken and access to technology (Montiel-Overall, 2008).

Cultural proficiency is the highest level of cultural competence. Culturally proficient people are often bilingual and bi-literate, knowledgeable about other cultural groups, and adept at "bridging the gaps among diverse groups" (Montiel-Overall, 2008, p. 6). However, Montiel-Overall indicated that any guidelines for cultural competence among school library media specialists would focus on promoting academic achievement

among students from diverse cultures by involving them and their families in the school community.

Reading. In light of the public debate over American students' poor reading test scores, Kiefer (2001) reflected on the role of school library media specialists in relation to the reading process and the development of lifelong readers. Kiefer cited research about reading aloud to preschool children and how talking with them afterwards about what had been read to them can improve their oral language, increase their vocabulary, and make them more aware of the elements of the story. Because books are important in both the classroom and the school library media center, Kiefer indicated that school library media specialists should be included on curriculum committees. However, in the event they are not included on these committees, Kiefer suggested some other ways that that school library media specialists could assist classroom teachers. One suggestion was for school library media specialists to keep informed about the curriculum units teachers are planning and suggest relevant titles that would support learning in the classroom. Another suggestion was for school library media specialists to collaborate with classroom teachers to organize "the content of the curriculum" and afterwards display materials organized by concepts, genres, or topics for the teachers to check out (Kiefer, 2001, p. 51).

In addition, Kiefer (2001) provided a list of "six fundamental activities or strategies" (pp. 51-52) considered necessary for children to develop into lifelong readers. While Kiefer acknowledged that some of the activities might already be part of school library media programs, the suggestions included many ways school library media specialists could help children achieve the goal of becoming lifelong readers:

1. Every class visit to the library should include a read-aloud…. include books on tape in your library purchases, ….they support children's reading comprehension and can also allow older but less able readers to participate in book discussions with their peers.
2. Children need to learn to choose books for themselves….Librarians can help children understand that readers have many different reasons for choosing books, an understanding that is critical to becoming a sophisticated reader.
3. When selecting books for the library, choose some series books that bring children back for more of the same.
4. Librarians can sponsor book discussion groups that allow children time to get into a book, to live between the covers for a while and get to know the characters, the setting, the events, and themes more deeply.
5. Librarians can help children learn how to preview books and make use of their previous knowledge when they are choosing a new book.
6. Whether a book is fiction or nonfiction, librarians can help children think about criteria for good literature….As children make use of nonfiction books, as well as the Internet and other media to conduct research, librarians can help children learn how to discern fact from opinion, identify the author's point of view, question the author's sources, and develop other critical questions that will guide their research and shape their understanding (Kiefer, 2001, pp. 51-52).

Picture books. Picture books captivate the attention of students of all ages and grade levels with their glossy artwork. Henry and Simpson (2001) explored how certain

features of picture books can also help students develop their literacy skills. When a picture book is read, readers associate the text with the pictures, creating a visual-verbal connection that helps them derive meaning from the text. This skill is particularly important for ELLs and special needs students, according to Henry and Simpson, because it can help them develop self-confidence.

In some situations, specific features of picture books may make them the best literature choice. If time is short, teachers can read a picture book; its brevity allows time for a discussion of the content after the book has been read. When a student is unable or unwilling to read a longer book, a picture book may be the best alternative. The quality of the writing is excellent, according to Henry and Simpson (2001), and it includes both literary elements (e.g., setting, characters, and plot) and literary devices (e.g., alliteration, simile, and metaphor).

Some picture books feature pattern writing (Henry & Simpson, 2001). A good example of pattern writing is *If You Give a Mouse a Cookie* by Laura Numeroff (2000), which is the first in a series of circle stories that end precisely at the point where they began. Picture books can also be used as sources for building students' vocabulary or as models of writing. Even wordless books can be used as writing prompts. Because they explore universal themes or contain multiple levels of meaning, some picture books are more appropriate for older readers. One example is *The Harmonica* by Tony Johnston (2004), which explores the emotions of a young concentration camp inmate who is forced to play his harmonica nightly for the camp commandant.

The artwork in picture books is central to the composition as a whole. Not only does it subtly communicate the mood, but it also enhances the ability of the reader to

derive meaning from the text. Illustrators use a variety of mediums and techniques to exhibit their skills. With the improvement in printing capabilities, publishers are now able to provide more colors and higher resolution graphics than ever before (Henry & Simpson, 2001).

Henry and Simpson (2001) made some suggestions about using picture books for instruction in the content areas. One suggestion was to use *Paul Revere's Ride* by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1990) to introduce the American Revolution in a social studies class. Another suggestion was for students in an English class to use picture books to search for examples of literary elements or literary devices; or attempt to write in a pattern style after listening to a book that exemplifies that style of writing. Yet another suggestion involved pairing picture books with a class novel based on a common theme. After the picture book is used to introduce the theme, the novel can be read together to explore further the ideas the students encounter in their reading.

Hadaway, Vardell, and Young (2002) considered picture books the most appropriate choice for inclusion in ESL classroom libraries. The pictures provide scaffolding for students who are beginning to read pictures and help build their confidence. They suggested that the teacher model fluency for the students by reading aloud to them, then give them an opportunity to select books from the classroom library to read during a scheduled reading time.

Agosto (1997) offered several reasons for including semi-bilingual picture books in the school library media collection. The number of Hispanic students enrolled in schools in the United States has grown significantly over the last few years. Semi-bilingual books offer English-speaking students and Spanish-speaking students the

opportunity to learn conversational words from each other's language. The familiar Spanish words and phrases may encourage Spanish-speaking students to attempt to read a book written primarily in English, and they can use these books to teach English to their Spanish-speaking parents at home. As multicultural books, semi-bilingual books may encourage Spanish-speaking students to feel that they too have something they can share with the rest of the class. Furthermore, these books offer English-speaking students the opportunity to share the experiences of people whose lives are different from their own, learn about their culture, and may inspire empathy among them for children whose second language is English (Agosto, 1997).

Multicultural literature. As a minority parent and as the owner of a bookstore that specializes in books about minority children, Willett (1995) expressed an opinion on the importance of ensuring that children have access to good literature. The minds and hearts of children are vulnerable to the influence of literature and they may not be able to recognize whether the books they read reinforce negative stereotypes. Teachers, librarians, and parents share the responsibility for making sure that the books children read are examples of good literature. Multicultural literature contributes to children's developing an understanding of themselves and the world they live in. When children read and identify with people like themselves, it can help them find their place in history and the world. Encountering people of other races or cultures in multicultural literature offers children an opportunity to gain insight into the lives of people who are different from them. Willett identified two essential themes in multicultural literature, learning about one's own history and heritage, and the history of others. Although books about history may include stories about discrimination, racism, and oppression, the stories may

also reveal how individuals and communities were able to maintain their strength and dignity while overcoming these injustices. Pictures are especially important in picture books because they help us visualize the stories and the characters that inhabit them (Willett, 1995). As more minority artists began to illustrate multicultural children's books, Willett noted that the quality and the credibility of illustrations featuring African American characters improved.

Two additional themes perceived by Willett (1995) as being important to multicultural literature are realism and relationships between the young and the old. Realism, according to Willett, is vital to stories if children and young adults are going to identify with both the characters and the situations they present; and relationships between the young and the old help children understand the important and influential role of elders in the community. When teachers select multicultural books to use with children, Willett advised them to read widely, particularly books written by authors who are members of the specific cultural group. Moreover, one book does not adequately represent either an entire cultural group or the diversity that exists within the group (Willett, 1995).

Ford (2000) suggested using multicultural literature to help minority children adjust to the school environment. When children are enrolled in school, their understanding of the world is rooted in their culture, which can affect how well they adapt to the social change implied by the transition to a school environment. Because children's values and beliefs are likely to be influenced by books, Ford suggested using multicultural literature to help children adjust. Ford also suggested using effective questioning, role-playing, and simulations to teach children how to empathize with

others, one of the primary goals for using multicultural literature. Finally, Ford (2000) advised that children should be taught how to apply critical thinking skills to literature and given opportunities to "question generalizations, identify stereotypes, and analyze what they read" (p. 262).

Reading multicultural literature allows students to see the world through someone else's eyes and enables them to experience universal or unfamiliar situations (Singer, 2003). Multicultural literature may affirm for minority students that people like them are worth knowing about, and white students may learn to appreciate the meaning and value of the lives of people different from them. However, as Singer indicated, the meaning the reader derives from the text can also be influenced by any of the following factors: how the reader approaches the text, how the story is told, and how well the reader can relate to the text.

Mendoza and Reese (2001) described some of the pitfalls associated with selecting multicultural literature. One pitfall is selecting books based solely on positive reviews in professional journals when access to resources that provide critical reviews of multicultural literature is limited. As an example, Mendoza and Reese described a situation in which a popular book by European Americans that was supposed to represent Native Americans contained inaccurate and misleading texts as well as illustrations. Another pitfall is the assumption that one book can represent the experience of an entire cultural group. Yet another pitfall is the mistaken assumption that high quality multicultural literature that emphasizes accuracy and authenticity is readily available in bookstores and libraries. However, the pitfall described by Mendoza and Reese that is perhaps the most common one is the small amount of time teachers have to locate and

evaluate multicultural literature. Although Mendoza and Reese acknowledged that mistakes will be made, they encouraged teachers to learn from their mistakes and continue their efforts to learn how to recognize and use good multicultural literature in the classroom.

Information literacy skills. *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998) describes information literacy as both "the ability to find and use information" and "the keystone of lifelong learning" (p. 1). Using information literacy skills enables people to locate, evaluate, and use information ethically to solve an information-related problem or to pursue personal interests. Although the classroom teacher retains ultimate responsibility for teaching information literacy skills in Georgia (GADOE, 2008), school library media specialists are expected to collaborate with classroom teachers to develop effective student-centered school library media programs that promote information literacy, independent learning, and social responsibility.

Over the years, library science and information professionals have developed models for teaching information literacy skills: the Information Search Process (Kuhlthau, 1991), the Big6™ model (Eisenberg & Berkowitz, 1990), the Pitts/Stripling model (Stripling, 1995), the I-Search model (Macrorie, 1988), and many more. However, it is likely that using any one of these models with ELLs would require the provision of instructional accommodations to meet their academic and linguistic needs.

An instructional model for teaching ELLs. Responding to concerns expressed by professional colleagues about language as an obstacle to ELLs' using the library and its resources, Conteh-Morgan (2002) suggested that librarians might consider applying

second language acquisition theories and instructional practices derived from them to assist ELLs. The library instruction model described by Conteh-Morgan implemented instructional practices derived from the innatist theory and the interactivist theory.

Conteh-Morgan's (2002) summary of the innatist theory discussed Chomsky's (1965) notion that all humans possess an innate ability to acquire the grammar of language in the course of their cognitive development and credited Chomsky with recognizing the difference between linguistic competence, an acquired knowledge of grammar, and performance, the application of that knowledge to communication. According to Conteh-Morgan, Krashen's (1982) model of second language acquisition, the monitor model, was based on Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence. Krashen's model included two hypotheses: *comprehensible input* and the *affective filter*. Krashen defined comprehensible input as communication that includes language structures slightly above the student's level of proficiency and the affective filter in terms of the effects motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety have on second language acquisition. Both comprehensible input and a low affective filter are necessary for second language acquisition (Conteh-Morgan, 2002).

Conteh-Morgan's (2002) summary of the interactionist theory focused on developing language proficiency through communicative interaction. Instruction based on interactionist theory emphasizes the use of authentic materials and learning through meaningful interaction. Examples of instructional practices derived from the interactionist theory might include collaborative grouping or having students generate personal responses to literature.

Conteh-Morgan's (2002) instructional model references Krashen's (1982) monitor model and takes into consideration five factors that affect language acquisition: (a) social context, (b) learner characteristics, (c) learning conditions, (d) learning process, and (e) learning outcomes. Based on an association of Krashen's hypothesis of the affective filter with the social context in which learning occurs, Conteh-Morgan asserted that a nonthreatening social context in the classroom would likely be conducive to lowering ELLs' affective filters, thereby permitting them to acquire new information more efficiently from comprehensible input. Furthermore, Conteh-Morgan indicated that an awareness of learner characteristics, their preferred learning styles, and planning instruction that accommodates a variety of learning styles might also contribute to the creation of a classroom environment conducive to learning.

One example of a learner-centered activity described by Conteh-Morgan involved placing students in collaborative groups to conduct searches for information on the same topic using different strategies. As they conducted the searches, the students discussed the results within their groups and applied critical thinking skills to the location, evaluation, and selection of relevant results to include in their reports to the class. The process of planning and presenting their results further stimulated their development of oral English proficiency. This type of activity can also be used as an informal assessment of how well students understand the search process. While students are conducting a directed search, the librarian can observe how effectively they are able to use a particular resource; or by asking them to evaluate their results in terms of specific criteria (i.e., such as the number of relevant results), the librarian can determine whether elements of the lesson need to be reviewed or re-taught.

Instructional activities. McPherson (2007) provided two examples of activities designed to foster literacy in the content area by teaching ELLs about the vocabulary associated with knowledge structures. During the first activity, the students brainstormed and afterwards identified and grouped words and expressions on a chart based on whether the words indicated the beginning, middle, or end of a sequence. A subsequent discussion about the words helped the students understand how language conventions can be used to sequence information. McPherson suggested working with the students to develop a master list of sequential vocabulary drawn from "literature, textbooks, and classroom discussions" (p. 66).

The second activity focused on teaching classification structures using a Venn diagram to compare and contrast data on the same topic from two different sources (McPherson, 2007). The school library media specialist could write words directly in the spaces of the Venn diagram indicating whether the information in those spaces related to only one source or was shared by both. Moreover, McPherson suggested working with the students to generate another list of words and expressions used to classify information as a follow-up activity. According to McPherson, posting these lists in locations that are highly visible and accessible to the students can provide them with useful references when they are writing.

Summary. The professional literature reviewed in this section informs school library media specialists about meeting the academic and linguistic needs of ELLs through the school library media program. A reference book compiled by Latrobe and Laughlin (1992), a similarly comprehensive volume by Dame (1993), and a selection of

articles from professional journals on topics directly related to the provision of library services are included in the literature.

Professional literature offers guidance to school library media specialists who are charged with developing, implementing, and administering complex, multidimensional programs that provide services designed to meet the academic and linguistic needs of increasingly diverse learning communities. Providing support for reading and information literacy skills instruction is a vital part of the school library media program. In this chapter, professional literature that focuses on reading is emphasized because different types of literature can be used effectively to scaffold learning for ELLs as they strive to master the English language and the content of the curriculum. Information literacy skills are also important because they enable students to locate and use information ethically. Conteh-Morgan (2002) developed a library instruction model based on Chomsky's and Krashen's research. In a model lesson which she described, the students learned how to locate, access, and evaluate information, while developing their oral English proficiency through small group discussions of their findings prior to making their presentations to the whole class.

The Importance of Collaboration

Establishing and maintaining a collaborative relationship between the school library media specialist and the classroom teachers is essential for the growth and development of the school library media program. In Georgia, school library media specialists are certified personnel who act in a supporting role. They are expected to collaborate with classroom teachers to develop effective student-centered school library media programs that promote information literacy, independent learning, and social

responsibility; however, the classroom teacher retains ultimate responsibility for teaching information literacy skills (Georgia Department of Education, 2010).

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) describes collaboration as integral to the school library media specialist's role and the school library media program. When the school library media specialist and the classroom teacher collaborate with each other, they increase their potential to design innovative instruction that integrates information literacy skills with the academic curriculum. This practice enables students to "develop a holistic perspective" (Montiel-Overall, 2006, p. 29) that views research as a means of discovering new information about the subjects they are studying.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed legislation and judicial decisions that furnish the legal basis for providing language services to ELLs. Furthermore, professional literature that offers teachers instructional frameworks and strategies they can use to teach ELLs in the classroom; research studies that reveal how school library media programs impact students' academic performance; and professional literature that describes how some of the academic and linguistic needs of ELLs can be met through school library media programs were discussed. The importance of establishing and maintaining a collaborative relationship between the school library media specialist and the classroom teachers was also addressed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction and Overview

Under the terms of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, public schools were charged with the task of ensuring that all students in the third through the eighth grade would be grade level proficient in reading and mathematics by 2014. Prior to the reauthorization of the NCLB Act of 2001, Fry (2007) analyzed the scores achieved by ELLs and other student groups during the 2005 administration of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). He noted that the scores of the ELLs were consistently lower than their English-speaking peers, and that the achievement gaps widened between the fourth and the eighth grade.

Prior research conducted by Lance, Wellborn, and Hamilton-Pennell (1993) and Lance, Rodney, and Hamilton-Pennell (2000) indicated that students achieved higher average scores on reading tests in schools with library media programs that had adequate staffing, large collections of materials in a variety of formats, and a state-endorsed school library media specialist who assumed an active instructional role. The purpose of this study was to explore how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

Unlike quantitative research, which seeks findings that are generalizable, qualitative research seeks to understand the unique features of individual cases (Stake, 1995). Some of the reasons Creswell (1998) suggests for choosing a qualitative approach to research include the following: 1) the topic warrants exploration, but the variables are

not easily defined; 2) the research question focuses on "how" rather than "why;" and 3) there is an opportunity to study the participants in their natural setting. Furthermore, Creswell (2003) indicates that a topic merits a qualitative approach when little research has been done on it, but it "needs to be understood" (p. 22).

How school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade is a topic that warrants exploration, because the results from the NAEP administered in 2005 and 2009 revealed that the achievement gaps between ELLs and their English-speaking peers widened during the years between the fourth and the eighth grade; however, the variables are not easily defined. Delivering instruction in the library media center can involve one or more teachers, the school library media specialist and the teacher whose class is receiving instruction. Moreover, the number of variables present in the regular classroom increases when instruction is delivered in the school library media center due to the transition from the familiar, controlled environment of the classroom to a different and often larger area where other people are present.

The research questions that guided the study reflect its purpose, which was to explore how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade:

1. What types of instructional strategies, including technology-based strategies, do the school library media specialists use to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?
2. What types of assistive resources are included in the school library media collections that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for

ELLs (e.g., first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks and other digital resources)?

3. How do the school library media specialists collaborate with the other members of the instructional team (e.g., individually, grade level planning, vertical planning, leadership team)?
4. What, if any, other practices have been implemented by the school library media specialists that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?

Understanding how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade is important and "needs to be understood" (Creswell, 2003, p. 22). There are schools where ELLs achieve scores on the annual state-mandated assessment that meet and exceed the standard, and knowing how the school library media specialists in these schools support reading and information literacy skills instruction may enable other school library media specialists to improve their practice.

Site Selection

Stake (1995) states that in choosing a case to study, "…the first criterion should be to maximize what we can learn" (p.4); however, he adds that we should select cases, which are easily accessible and offer identifiable prospective informants when we can, because time and access are often limited. A "Report Card" and an "AYP Overview Report" for every public school in the state of Georgia was accessible on the Georgia Department of Education website. Demographic data was obtained from the "Report

Card" and the results from the 2010 administration of the Georgia CRCT were posted in the "AYP Overview Report." From the data posted on these sites, it was possible to identify schools where high concentrations of ELLs were enrolled as well as the percentage of ELLs in those schools who met and exceeded the standard in reading and English/language arts on the Georgia CRCT when it was administered in 2010. After a thorough examination of the data for all the elementary and middle schools in three large school districts in Georgia, one elementary school and one middle school in each of two different school districts (See Table 2) were selected that met the following criteria.

1. During the 2010 administration of the Georgia CRCT, more than seven percent of the students enrolled in the school were classified as ELLs.
2. The percentage of ELLs enrolled in the school who met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts on the Georgia CRCT when it was administered in 2010 was either more than the AMO of 73.3% or slightly less.

These schools were among the schools in their districts with the highest concentrations of ELLs on their respective levels; moreover, the percentages of ELLs at these schools who met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts indicated that these students achieved a measure of success in these subjects which are also the ones most likely to be affected by the quality of the school library media program.

Table 2.

Schools Selected as Study Sites

School Districts	Schools	ELL Enrollments	Percentage of ELLs who met and exceeded the standard for Reading and English/language arts on the 2010 Georgia CRCT
District 1	Cedar Ridge Elementary School	70.5%	89%
	Chestnut Charter Middle School	7.2%	68.4%
District 2	Maple Street Elementary School	43.7%	94.4%
	Poplar Middle School	9.5%	83.5%

Bounds of Cases

Creswell (1998) defines case study as "an exploration of a 'bounded system' or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context" (p. 61). This study was a multi-site, collective case study involving four school library media programs located in two elementary schools, serving students in grades four and five, and two middle schools, serving students in grades six, seven, and eight. These grade levels were chosen because the results from both the 2005 and 2009 administrations of the NAEP revealed achievement gaps between ELLs and their English-speaking peers that widened between the fourth and the eighth grade (Fry, 2007; USDOE, 2009a & b).

Although each of these school library media programs adhered to the principles articulated in *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998), each existed in the context of a school culture that was different from the others. Furthermore, each of the school library media programs was a product of the collaborative relationship established by the school library media specialist with the local school library media/technology committee and the other members of the instructional team in that school. Therefore, each of the school library media programs constituted a case.

Research Setting

Four of the participants were located in three schools in two large school districts; however, the fifth had been reassigned to the district administrative complex following a promotion to the position of district media coordinator. In the first school district, one participant was located in an elementary school and two participants were located in a middle school. In the second school district, one participant was located in an elementary school. The fifth participant was the person who had been assigned to the middle school prior to her promotion. The school library media centers were large, well-lighted rooms with adequate seating for a class and some additional students as well. They featured large collections of materials in a variety of formats, interactive boards, and student computer work stations. Furthermore, the participants were all certified school library media specialists with years of experience in the field. Cedar Ridge Elementary School and Chestnut Charter Middle School were both located in the first school district. The school library media specialist at Cedar Ridge Elementary School was Mrs. Jones, a veteran media specialist with 18 years of experience who earned both a master's degree

and a specialist's degree in library and information studies. There were two school library media specialists assigned to Chestnut Charter Middle School, Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith. Mr. Schuster had three years of experience as a library media clerk before becoming a school library media specialist, and he had been the school library media specialist at Chestnut Charter Middle School for six years. Mrs. Smith was also a library media clerk for two years before becoming a school library media specialist. She was previously assigned to an elementary school for four years as a school library media specialist, and this was her first year at Chestnut Charter Middle School. Both Maple Street Elementary School and Poplar Middle School were located in the second school district. The school library media specialist at Maple Street Elementary School was Mrs. Wilson; who had 10 years of experience as a school library media specialist. After leaving the private sector, she earned a master's degree in instructional technology. Later on she earned a specialist's degree in education. Mrs. Williams was the school library media specialist at Poplar Middle School. At the time of her promotion to the position of district media coordinator, she had eight years of experience in the field.

Since the purpose of this study was to learn how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade, most of the research took place inside of the school library media centers at the respective schools; however, two of the observations took place in a classroom at one of the middle schools.

The Researcher's Role

Qualitative research emphasizes building an understanding of a particular human experience that incorporates the perspectives of the participants. Acting as a data

collection instrument, I collected data in multiple formats (e.g., audio, text, electronic data file) in a natural setting. Following an inductive thematic analysis of the data, I produced a detailed narrative report based on my interpretation of the information and the themes that included a rich, thick description of how the focal school library media specialists supported reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

Due to the potential for either ethical or personal issues to be introduced into the research process during the association of the researcher with the participants, Creswell (2003) recommends that researchers disclose information about their past experiences, biases, values, and personal interests in the research topic. I have served as a school library media specialist in a public high school and elementary schools for 30 years. At the time of the study, I was assigned to an elementary theme school where 41.37% of the students were classified as ELLs; however, many of the students were either immigrants or first or second-generation residents of the United States who often spoke a language other than English at home.

As a member of the instructional team, I believe that the school library media specialist has a vital role to play, whether acting as a teacher, an instructional partner, an information specialist, or a library media program administrator, in supporting the efforts of all students to become proficient in reading and information literacy skills. Therefore, I had a vested interest in learning about the focal school library media programs and the best practices the school library media specialists were using to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs.

Procedures

I submitted a research proposal to the Research and Program Evaluation Department of one of the two school districts where the selected schools are located, and my Dissertation Advisory Committee chairperson submitted a request on my behalf to the second school district's Research and Evaluation Department. After I received permission from the first school district in early July 2011, I contacted the principals of the selected schools to obtain a Local Site Research Authorization Form from each of them. I obtained authorization from the elementary principal in mid-July 2011; however, I did not receive authorization from the middle school principal until mid-August 2011. In the meantime, I received permission from the second school district in early August 2011; and I made an appointment to meet with each of the principals in the second school district to formally seek the selected schools' participation in this study. I obtained an authorization from the elementary principal in late August 2011 and from the middle school principal in early September. Then I submitted the research proposal to the Georgia State University Institutional Review Board for approval to conduct a study involving human subjects. I received permission in early November 2011. After the Georgia State University Institutional Review Board approved this study, I contacted each of the school library media specialists to explain the purpose of this study, respond to any questions they had about it, obtained signed letters of informed consent from each of them, and made arrangements for interviews, observations, and a collection analysis (See Table 3).

Table 3.

Plan and Focus for Data Collection

Date	Focus
May, 2011 – June, 2011	Submit research applications to both school districts' administrations
July, 2011 – November, 2001	Obtain approval from the school districts' administrations. Obtain permission from the principals of the school sites. Submit a research proposal to the Georgia State University IRB. Obtain the approval of the Georgia State University IRB. Obtain signed letters of informed consent from the participants.
December, 2011 - February, 2012	Initial audio recorded interviews at the elementary school and the middle school in the first school district and initial observation at the middle school
November - February, 2012	Initial audio recorded interview and observation at the elementary school and initial audio recorded interview at the former middle school library media specialist's office in the second school district
March - May, 2012	Follow-up interviews and observations at the middle school in the first school system. Follow-up interview and observation at the elementary school and follow-up interview at the former school library media specialist's office.
May, 2012	Final interviews, observations, and collection analyses

Data Collection. The collective data comprised interviews, observations, documents, and collection analyses. One of the purposes for interviewing people is to

understand other people's perspectives, their "descriptions and interpretations" (Stake, 1995, p. 64). My purpose for interviewing the school library media specialists was to learn about their school library media programs from them. The objective for the initial 60-minute interview was to collect background information. Subsequent interviews were conducted to follow-up on information collected during a preceding interview or observation. I used a semi-structured interview protocol (See Appendix A). Questions were formulated that explored how the school library media specialists carried out their responsibilities as teachers, instructional partners, information specialists, and program administrators as well as how the school library media programs may have been adapted to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for the ELLs enrolled in the schools. Following each interview, a transcript was prepared and sent to the interviewee as an email attachment. After the interviewee verified the accuracy of the transcript, the data from the transcript was summarized and key concepts drawn from the summarized data were entered into matrices which facilitated within-case and cross-case analyses.

I conducted one 60-minute interview with the elementary school library media specialist in the first school district. Prior to the second scheduled interview, she experienced the sudden and unexpected loss of her media clerk which caused her to withdraw temporarily from the study. A few weeks later, she was involved in an automobile accident from which she sustained serious personal injuries that kept her out of school for the rest of the year. I interviewed each of the middle school library media specialists in the first school district three times for 60 minutes each time. In addition, I observed one of them on two different occasions while he taught a sixth grade ESOL class, and his colleague once while she taught an eighth grade ESOL class. I interviewed

the elementary school library media specialist in the second school district twice for 60 minutes each time, and observed her on two different occasions while she taught two different fourth grade classes. Since the middle school library media specialist in the second school district had been promoted to the position of district media coordinator, I met with her in her office at the district administrative facility and interviewed her twice for 60 minutes each time. I also visited her former school and obtained permission from the current school library media specialist to conduct the collection analysis on the premises. (See Table 4).

The data I collected allowed me to build a rich, thick description of the school library media centers and the school library media programs. Each of the observations was scheduled so I could observe the school library media specialist either teaching or co-teaching a class of ESOL students or a class that included ELLs. I was particularly interested in observing how the school library media specialists administered the library media program, interacted with the classroom teachers and the students, and managed the day-to-day activities. Detailed field notes were recorded on the observation protocols (See Appendix C), which were designed to include "both descriptive and reflective notes" (Creswell, 1998, p. 125). Information derived from these notes, which were made during or shortly after the observations, was reviewed and compared with the information from the interviews, documents, and the collection analyses.

Todd (2007) described three types of evidence, evidence for practice, evidence in practice, and evidence of practice. Evidence in practice refers to materials that are used in the course of daily practice. I collected evidence in practice that illustrates how the school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction

Table 4.

Data Collection Matrix: Type of Information by Source

Information Source	Interviews	Observations	Documents
Mrs. Jones	Yes	No	Yes
Mr. Schuster	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mrs. Smith	Yes	Yes	No
Mrs. Wilson	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mrs. Williams	Yes	No	No

for ELLs (e.g., lesson plans, handouts, and worksheets). Lesson plans often include information about the standards and content objectives being taught as well as language objectives and any accommodations for ELLs. Handouts are only useful to students when they can read them and comprehend their meaning. The extent to which handouts and/or worksheets are written in language that is comprehensible for ELLs determines their effectiveness. Each of these forms of evidence in practice had the potential to increase my understanding of how the school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs.

Online searches of the public access catalog were used to analyze the school library media collections in order to determine the accessibility of first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower

reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks and other digital resources. Following an inductive thematic analysis of the data collected from the interviews, observations, document analyses, and collection analyses, responses to the guiding questions of this study were generated based on my interpretation of the data and the themes that emerged from the data. (See Table 5).

Table 5.

Guiding Questions and Data Collection Strategies

Guiding Questions	Data Collection Strategies
1. What types of instructional strategies, including technology-based strategies, do the school library media specialists use to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?	Observations, interviews, and documents
2. What types of assistive resources are included in the school library media collections that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs (e.g. first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, etc.?	Observations, interviews, collection analyses
3. How do the school library media specialists collaborate with the other members of the instructional team (e.g., individually, grade level planning, vertical planning, leadership team)?	Observations, interviews, and documents
4. What, if any, other practices have been implemented by the school library media specialists that support reading and information literacy skills instruction?	Observations, interviews, and documents

Data Analysis. The data collected from each school was analyzed shortly after it was collected. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed and copies of the transcripts were submitted electronically to the interviewees for verification prior to being analyzed. After the transcripts had been verified, they were attached to the interview protocols, which included reflective notes made at the time of the interview or shortly thereafter. Field notes from the observations were typed and attached to the observation protocols. I also collected documents (e.g., school library media center handbooks, lesson plans) from the participants in order to increase my knowledge about the context of the school library media programs, which the participants administered. These documents were filed with the interview transcripts and the observation protocols.

The raw data was reduced using a procedure described by Boyatzis (1998). Each school library media program constituted a unit of analysis, and each interview, observation, and document was a unit of coding. I reread and summarized each item of data included in the interviews. Then I used the summarized data to prepare outlines of the interviews. As I reread the first few outlines, I began to notice recurrent themes. Initially, I identified seven potential themes: staffing, interpersonal communication, collaboration, instruction, initiative, status of the school library media program, and diversity. I noted the themes, compared them with the data from the other outlines and the notes I had made during or shortly after the observations. Based on the comparison of the seven potential themes with the other data and the notes, I discarded four of them: staffing, initiative, status of the school library media program, and diversity. I retained interpersonal communication, collaboration, and instruction; then, I added media/technology. I reviewed the themes again and rewrote them for clarity. These

themes became codes that were applied to the data from all the sites (See Appendix D). The documents were analyzed in a similar manner; they were reread, examined thoroughly and coded based on perceived themes (Bowen, 2009). The information contained in the documents supplemented the data from the other sources and often confirmed what I was told during interviews or observed. The collection analyses provided complementary data about the composition of the school library media center collections.

Trustworthiness

Creswell (1998) recommends that qualitative researchers engage in at least two of eight procedures he named as indicators of trustworthiness, including clarifying researcher bias, member checks, triangulation, and the use of rich, thick description. Earlier in this chapter, I disclosed my professional background and vested interest in conducting this study. In the course of this study, I spent hours at each of the schools interviewing the school library media specialists, observing their practices, collecting documents, and performing collection analyses. The transcripts were submitted to the interviewees for verification after each of the interviews. All of the materials generated during the process of data collection were cataloged and stored in a secure location, creating an audit trail and ensuring dependability. Moreover, another doctoral student who consented to act as a peer debriefer, met with me periodically to debrief me, and we both kept notes about these sessions. Triangulation was achieved using data from the interviews, observations, documents, and collection analyses. Following an inductive thematic analysis of the data, a rich, thick description of how the focal school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in

the fourth through the eighth grade, based on my interpretation of the themes and the information, was included in the final report.

Confidentiality

The data collected from the interviews, observations, document and collection analyses were housed in a locked file cabinet and on a firewall-protected computer located in my home. An alphanumeric code was used to identify the participants, their schools, and the district where the schools are located. The key to the alphanumeric code was stored separately from the data to protect the participants' privacy. There is no reason to assume that the participants were aware of each other's involvement in this study. Once this study was complete, I erased all of the audio recordings. The transcripts were retained, with the identifiers removed, in order that information from this study might be applied to further research at a later date.

Study Limitations

This study was limited by the geographical location, the small number of schools, and the focus on school library media programs serving ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade. Although the findings will not be generalizable to a different population, the rich, thick descriptions of how the school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade offers the reader an opportunity to determine whether the findings are applicable to other locations with similar populations.

Chapter Summary

This chapter included an introduction and overview of this study, information about the selection of the sites, data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness, confidentiality, and the limitations of this study. The collective data included interviews, observations, document analyses, and collection analyses. An inductive thematic analysis of the data led to the emergence of four themes: instruction, collaboration, media/technology, and interpersonal communication.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESULTS

The results of the study are presented in this chapter. In order to provide a context for the study, the following information is given about each of the schools: a description of the area around school, descriptive data about the students who took the CRCT in 2010, a brief description of the school, the composition of the administrative team, the school library media center, the school library media specialist, and the school library media program, including the policies, procedures, and funding.

The collective data comprised interviews, observations, documents, and collection analyses. Following an inductive thematic analysis, four themes emerged from the collective data: instruction, collaboration, media/technology, and interpersonal communication. After the contextual information, the themes are presented. Each of the schools is subsumed under each of the themes; and examples that illustrate how the themes were represented in each of the schools are subsumed under the names of the schools.

The Schools

Cedar Ridge Elementary School. Cedar Ridge Elementary School was situated on a hill in a transitional middle class neighborhood that was bordered on two sides by a major thoroughfare and an interstate highway. The school opened in 1963, and was renovated during the summer of 2011. Not only was Cedar Ridge Elementary School

designated as a Title I school, but it had also been a Title I Distinguished School since 2009. When the Georgia CRCT was administered in 2010, 212 of the 316 students who took the test were identified as ELLs; and 309 of the students were identified as economically disadvantaged. Nevertheless, 89% of the ELLs who took the test met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts (GADOE, AYP Report, 2010-2011). Hispanic students, whose first language is Spanish, were the dominant cultural and linguistic minority group among the students enrolled in Cedar Ridge Elementary School.

The main entrance to the building was inviting, featuring colorful signs that inform the visitor and tables with neatly organized literature (e.g., pamphlets and fliers). Two halls intersected at the entrance; one led to the lunchroom at the rear of the building and the other traversed the front of the building. Immediately to the right of the entrance was the main office. The administrative team consisted of one principal and two assistant principals, one for pre-kindergarten through the second grade and another for the third grade through the fifth grade.

The School Library Media Center. The school library media center was located a little farther down the front hall on the left side. It occupied a space that was approximately the size of two classrooms and had a door at either end. The walls were lined with bookshelves. Natural light entered the room through two large windows located near the midpoint of the exterior wall. The circulation desk was near the first door. Behind the circulation desk, there were rooms that housed audiovisual materials and equipment, and there were also freestanding bookshelves with sets of encyclopedias. In front of the circulation desk and on the right side of the room, there were two rows of

six computers each arranged back-to-back on computer tables that are parallel to the interior wall. Opposite the computers, there was an open space featuring a brightly colored rug that was bordered on either side by two yellow Adirondack chairs. A little farther on, there were an upholstered couch with matching chairs, a coffee table, and on the right side of the room, a library table with wooden chairs and one free standing unit of bookshelves.

The School Library Media Specialist. Mrs. Jones earned both a master's and a specialist's degree in library and information studies, and she was a veteran with 18 years of experience in the profession. On her first day at Cedar Ridge Elementary School, she discovered that the majority of the students spoke Spanish as their first language. She went to the principal and told her that she didn't speak Spanish, but the principal reassured her and told her that she would do just fine. Then Mrs. Jones began a search for information that would help her teach her new students.

> I bought a book…then I went back and reviewed best practices. Then I started looking at some of the books the former librarian had pulled out, and decided those would be the books we'd put in the collection."

She purchased professional books, conducted online searches for additional resources, and visited websites about teaching English language learners. "By just reading and trying to get my hands on more information about, even going to websites about teaching English language learners…" She also recalled attending a session about ELLs at the International Reading Association Conference during her first year at Cedar Ridge Elementary School. She requested information from the public library about

accessing *Rosetta Stone*, an online foreign language program, to study Spanish. This program was supposed to be available to teachers through the public library; however, the public library did not respond to her requests. "I never heard anything back about how I could get on, how I could use it." When I asked her whether she had taken any professional development classes to prepare her to teach ELLs, she did not recall whether any were offered by the school district.

The School Library Media Program. The policies and procedures of the school library media center were published in the school library media center handbook, which was accessible online and in print. According to the handbook, the purpose of the school library media center was to support the curriculum by offering the faculty, staff, students, and parents a broad selection of materials in a variety of formats. Flexible scheduling ensured maximum access to the school library media center resources. Unlike fixed scheduling, which limits class visits to a specific time of day on a specific day of the week, flexible scheduling allowed classroom teachers to schedule class visits for different days and times, and it also allowed them to send individuals or small groups of students to the school library media center during the school day. During class visits to the school library media center, the students' behavior was their classroom teacher's responsibility.

Students in kindergarten through the second grade could borrow one book for one week, and students in the third grade through the fifth grade could borrow two books for two weeks. Students with overdue, damaged, or lost books could not check out additional books until they had returned the books or paid their fines. In the event that a book was irreparably damaged or lost, the student was liable for the full replacement value. Overdue notices were sent home in English and Spanish. Staff members could

check out an unlimited number of materials for instructional purposes; but they were reminded to return them in a timely manner.

There was very little parent involvement in the school library media center. Mrs. Jones said, "Since I've been here, I've had maybe one percent of the parents come in and actually go to the Spanish section and ask to check out a book; [and] once they found out they could do it, it was like repeat until they move." The only volunteers who worked in the school library media center were community helpers, not parent volunteers. Mrs. Jones explained, "Once again, it's the language barrier. What they [the parents] mostly volunteer for at the school is making copies, doing the bulletin boards, things that don't require a lot of communication."

Chestnut Charter Middle School. Chestnut Charter Middle School's status as a charter school was renewed a few years ago. The administrative team consisted of one principal and four assistant principals, one for each of the seventh, and the eighth grades; and two for the sixth grade, one of whom was also responsible for transportation. The school was located in an upper middle class neighborhood not far from an interstate highway. Its sprawling campus included three brick buildings, two of which were constructed around 2007. When the Georgia CRCT was administered in 2010, 115 of the 1,149 students who took the test were identified as ELLs; and 381 were identified as economically disadvantaged. However, only 68.4% of the ELLs who took the test met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts (GADOE, AYP Report, 2010-2011). Although the students at Chestnut Charter Middle School represented diverse cultures, ethnicities, and languages, it was not a Title I school.

The School Library Media Center. The school library media center was located

in the main building, on the top floor. At the entrance to the school library media center, there was a set of double doors leading to a walkway that passed a workroom and the circulation desk on the right side, and bookcases and a row of computers in carrels on the left side before entering the main room. Natural light streamed through two large semi-circular windows on either side of the room. The offices of the two school library media specialists were located behind the circulation desk; however, tall glass windows set into their office walls provided them with a clear view of both the school library media center and the workroom. Beyond the offices, there was a double row of computers in carrels and several neatly arranged wooden library tables and chairs. Two sets of bookshelves were located beyond the tables and on opposite sides of the walkway. The fiction books were on the left side and the nonfiction books were on the right side. The walkway ended at another set of double doors on the far side of the room.

The School Library Media Specialists. During the previous five years, Mr. Schuster and only a part-time clerk had staffed the school library media center. Now, there were two full-time school library media specialists assigned to Chestnut Charter Middle School, Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith. Both Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith had been employed as library media clerks before becoming state-certified school library media specialists. Mr. Schuster was employed as a library media clerk for three years, then as a middle school library media specialist for six years at Chestnut Charter Middle School. Likewise, Mrs. Smith was employed as a school library media clerk for two years, then as an elementary school library media specialist for an additional four years before coming to Chestnut Charter Middle School in August 2011. Although her primary concerns for the 2011-2012 school year were, "…learning the collection, establishing

credibility, and doing some of the research for the orders," she and Mr. Schuster also spent some of their time on public relations: attending grade level meetings and letting the teachers know they were more accessible now since there were two of them.

The School Library Media Program. When I asked Mr. Schuster how the school library media program that Mrs. Smith and he administered met the diverse needs of the administration, the faculty, the staff, and the students, including the ELLs, he replied,

> I think we are more responsive than we are proactive…we see people from every department and every area of the school all the time; and they're always willing to tell us what they need, what they'd like, and how we can help them. I see us mostly…like a support service…of our overall program; providing materials, if we have expertise, providing that expertise, and training when necessary…

He went on to explain that he and Mrs. Smith were trying to obtain cataloging data for some new technology they had recently received from the administration. When he was asked again about the faculty, he described how the faculty let them know what they want in terms of materials, books, videos, and instructional help as well. "They'll come to us and say, 'Hey, I need this sort of lesson, what can we do together?'" However, when either he or Mrs. Smith delivered a lesson to a class, the classroom teacher facilitated the instruction and the school library media specialist was the primary teacher. If the students were working on a project that was begun in the classroom, the classroom teacher let them know in advance, and whichever one of them was working with that class would take over and deliver his or her part of the instruction.

Mrs. Smith's perspective was similar, "It's basically curriculum driven, based on projects teachers are assigning their students." However, she also pointed out that

sometimes administrators and teachers only borrow equipment or space in the school library media center.

Mr. Schuster described the students as, “a good population of people that like to come to the library.” However, he also acknowledged that there were some students who were reluctant to read. A reading teacher who taught all of the grade levels had mentioned to him that there were some kids in a lot of her classes who were not interested in reading. This prompted Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith to discuss strategies, like book talks, to get them excited about reading.

Annual funding for middle and high school library media centers in this school district was calculated at the rate of $13.03 for each child who was enrolled as a full-time student. Mr. Schuster estimated that there were 18,000 materials in the collection at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year. According to him, the collection, as a whole, had changed little during the last few years, although the science collection had grown. He and Mrs. Smith weeded extensively that year; they removed and discarded more than 60 boxes of obsolete books and materials from the collection. When he was asked about the criteria they use to select new materials for the collection, Mr. Schuster said, “We know if it’s an author who’s been popular in the past, or it’s a subject, or if it’s a format.” He added that he liked to read the *School Library Journal* reviews. When asked whether they correlate their selections with the curriculum, Mr. Schuster said they try to correlate their nonfiction selections with the curriculum; and they try to pick things that are interesting to the students. For example, he expanded the technology section that year by adding more materials, “…on Web 2.0, and blogs, and social media.” Mr. Schuster also credited Mrs. Smith for using knowledge and experience she acquired as an elementary

school library media specialist to expand the collection by adding materials that were developed to meet the needs of students who read on a lower reading level, especially the Hi-Lo books published by Capstone, including series that feature popular characters (e.g., Jake Mannix and David Mortimer Baxter) and nonfiction books about math, science, and grammar.

When Mrs. Smith was asked about their selection criteria, she said that she didn't believe they had anything written yet, but selection criteria would probably evolve as they weed the old books out of the collection. Later in the year, she mentioned that they were able to devote more time this year to thoroughly researching the standards, the curriculum, and the available titles in order to bring the collection up to date.

When students requested books the library didn't have, Mrs. Smith entered the information about the book into Titlewave™; a program that can be used to generate an order for one of the school district's approved vendors. Either of the school library media specialists or the students could place electronic holds on books that were checked out. When the books were returned, emails were sent to the students to notify them that the books were available.

There was a section where the world languages collection, the foreign language books and the bilingual books, were located. There was also a light reading collection, which included picture books and short fiction books like *Captain Underpants*, and there was a large graphic collection. According to Mrs. Smith, "They [the ELLs] really gravitate to that graphic collection." She also suggested that they should do more classes for the ELLs like the one I observed the day Mr. Schuster introduced eBooks to a sixth

grade ESOL class. The eBooks had remained popular with those students, and they continued to use them.

The school library media center handbook described the aim of the staff as providing administrators, teachers, students, and parents with access to the information they need. Students could visit the school library media center throughout the day, from 8:15 a.m. until 4:10 p.m. They had to bring a pass, an assignment, and sign in at the circulation desk when they arrived; furthermore, they were expected to follow the rules that regulated general behavior, checking out materials, computer usage, printing, and photocopying. Students could check out three books at a time for two weeks, but they incurred a fine of $.10 per day for each overdue book, and were liable for the full replacement value of lost or irreparably damaged materials. An email was sent to students who had overdue or lost library books. Previously, a parent letter had been sent home to notify parents about overdue or lost books; and there was still a part-time translator at the school who could translate the letter for parents who were not literate in English if it became necessary.

Teachers could to come to the school library media center from 8:15 a.m. until 4:10 p.m. They could check out materials in all formats and equipment, including a variety of audiovisual equipment and laptop computer labs. They could also request additional resources from district centers. Teachers could schedule class visits to the school library media center in person or online via email, and they were encouraged to plan collaboratively with the school library media specialists to incorporate school library media center resources into their lesson plans.

Parents could come to the school library media center before school, beginning at 8:15 a.m. and after school until 4:10 p.m. They had the same checkout privileges as the students. In addition, a telephone number was provided to parents so they could schedule an appointment with either of the two school library media specialists.

Charter schools often require parents to complete a specified number of volunteer hours at the school. The school library media center handbook encouraged parents to volunteer in the school library media center and offered a brief description of the volunteer opportunities. Although there was school wide community involvement, according to Mrs. Smith, there was little parent involvement in the school library media center. There was one parent volunteer, who came regularly to shelve books, but other than that, there were only occasional drop-ins.

Maple Street Elementary School. Maple Street Elementary School was located in a neighborhood adjacent to a major highway. Not only was the school designated as a Title I school, but it was also a Title I Distinguished School for seven years, beginning in 2003. When the Georgia CRCT was administered in 2010, 325 of the 654 students who took the test were identified as ELLs, and 589 were identified as economically disadvantaged. Nevertheless, 94.4% of the ELLs who took the test met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts (GADOE, AYP Report, 2010-2011). Hispanic students, whose first language is Spanish, were the dominant cultural and linguistic minority group among the students enrolled in Maple Street Elementary School.

The School Library Media Center. The school was constructed in 1970. Just inside the main entrance, there was an attractively decorated reception area where a secretary greeted visitors. The principal's office was on the right side of the entrance. The administrative team consisted of a principal and two assistant principals. On the left side of the entrance, there was a bench for visitors and beyond the bench was the main hall, which led to the lunchroom. The first hall on the right side of the main hall led to the school library media center, a large rectangular room lined with bookshelves and decorated with signs and pictures reminiscent of an old-fashioned train station. There were doors located at the midpoint of each of the four walls, dividing the room into four equal sections. In the first section, there were the circulation desk, book trucks, audio books, the broadcasting studio, and the school library media specialist's office. In the second section, reference and nonfiction books filled the bookshelves on the walls, while more nonfiction books filled additional rows of freestanding bookshelves. Just beyond the freestanding bookshelves, there were tables and chairs arranged in front of a Smart™ board. The third section had bookshelves on the walls and a few scattered tables and chairs. Over the bookshelves, the word "Everybody" was spelled out in 18-inch letters. Finally, in the fourth section there were rows of computers beyond which there were bookshelves on both the walls and freestanding bookshelves that were filled with fiction books and special collections. In addition, there were some rotating bookracks that held graphic biographies and easy nonfiction.

The School Library Media Specialist. Mrs. Wilson was a veteran school library media specialist with 10 years of experience in the field. She left the private sector and earned a master's degree in instructional technology. At a later date, she earned a

specialist in education degree, during which she took three ESOL classes. She was assisted in the school library media center by a full-time circulation clerk, whose primary responsibility was to circulate and shelve materials, and a three-day-a-week bookkeeper who managed all of the school library media center accounts, including the book fair and the yearbook accounts.

The School Library Media Program. According to Mrs. Wilson, there were 27,000 books in the school library media collection during the 2011-2012 school year. The initial budget for the school library media program was $1,500.00, which she received from the school district. She received additional funding from the school district after she submitted a five-year rolling media plan to her supervisors. Mrs. Wilson also said that she had received $30,000.00 of Title I funds at one time from the previous principal; however, the current principal did not allocate Title I funds to the school library media program during the 2011-2012 school year.

When she was asked how she meets the diverse needs of the administration, she replied that she had tried to diversify the collection so it reflected the current school population more and *Rebecca of Sunnybrook Farm* less. Furthermore, she had asked the Scholastic representative to supply the book fairs with titles more appropriate for a population that is both culturally and racially diverse. At the direction of the administration, she also processed 47,000 books this year that were housed in the book rooms and literally thousands more paperback books that were purchased by the literacy coaches at her school, using Title I funds. The paperback books were boxed and distributed to the fifth grade classrooms to be used as classroom libraries. Mrs. Wilson was also responsible for producing two daily broadcasts, one in the morning and one in

the afternoon, that involved student assistants, performers, and an administrator; hosting the annual book fairs; and the production and sales of the yearbook.

In order to meet the diverse needs of the faculty, she made a great effort to buy the books the teachers wanted. There was a group of teachers at her school who were enrolled in one or more programs, and they requested items from her. She considered their requests when she prepared her book orders, reasoning that they were on the front line. Furthermore, Mrs. Wilson tried to find books that were low enough to meet the needs of the reading teacher who was always looking for really low level reading books.

Mrs. Wilson also listened to students' requests. There were students that year who "desperately wanted wrestling books," and she broke down and finally purchased a set.

All purchase orders submitted by the school library media specialist using school district funds were required to be reviewed and approved by the School Library Media Committee, and those funds could only be used to purchase books. However, the school library media center also received a share of the profits generated by the annual book fairs, and those funds could be used to purchase audiovisual materials. When asked about the criteria she used to select new materials for the collection, she predicted that the Common Core Standards would likely influence her selections during the succeeding school year.

The policies and procedures of the Maple Street Elementary School Library Media Center were published in the school library media center handbook. The stated purpose of the school library media center program included the following responsibilities:

1. Provide media resources, facilities, services, and staff to support all areas of

the instructional program

2. Provide a variety of services for students, which develop skills and encourage the pursuit of life-long learning

3. Develop procedures, which allow optimum accessibility and effective utilization of all resources and the flexibility necessary to individualize instruction for students.

Flexible scheduling was used as a means of optimizing access to the school library media center and utilization of its resources and services. Faculty and staff members could come to the school library media center before school, and students could come after the morning broadcast. In the afternoon, students had to leave ten minutes before the bell rang for dismissal.

Students in kindergarten could check out one book for one week, and students in the first grade through the fifth grade could check out two books for two weeks. When books were overdue, a notice was sent home in the student's folder on the following Friday. If a book was irreparably damaged or lost, the student had to pay for the book before he or she was permitted to check out another book. The standard amount assessed for books was $15.00 for a hardback book and $5.00 for a paperback book. Teachers could check out as many books as they needed; however, they were reminded of the need to share the resources.

District policy prohibited parents from checking out books in school library media centers. There were Parent Centers located in Title I schools, where parents could go to check out books and materials.

The role of the school library media specialist was defined in terms of the four areas of responsibility described in *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998): teacher, instructional partner, information specialist, and program administrator. Classroom teachers were encouraged to collaborate with the school library media specialist; however, they were not required to remain with their students during class visits to the school library media center. When a teacher came into the school library media center to schedule a class visit, Mrs. Wilson used that opportunity to discuss with the teacher the content objectives, the capabilities of the students, and what the teacher wanted the students to learn during the visit. She had a menu of lesson plans she had prepared that focused on information literacy skills. Teachers could select a lesson from the menu for the school library media specialist to teach during their classes' visits to the school library media center.

The role of the school library media clerk was described in the school library media center handbook as, "critical to the success of the media program." She was expected to assist students and staff in their selection of media resources and to maintain the online public access catalog (OPAC).

Under "Other Helpful Resources for Teachers," there was supplementary information about the following topics: the professional collection, professional periodicals, book fairs, the rules that regulated students' access to the Internet, and the selection policies that guided the selection of materials for the school library media collection and supplementary materials. A brief note about the Reconsideration Policy, copies of the American Library Association Code of Ethics (1981), and the Association for Educational Communications and Technology Statement on Intellectual Freedom

(1978) completed the handbook. A chart displaying applications of the "fair use" principle to copyrighted materials was distributed to the teachers as a separate handout.

Poplar Middle School. Although Poplar Middle School was visible from the interstate highway, it was screened from the street by stands of trees and a grassy verge. The administrative team consisted of one principal and six assistant principals, one for each of the sixth and the eighth grades, and two for the seventh grade, one for special education/ELLs, and one for Title I. When the Georgia CRCT was administered in 2010, 222 of the 1,105 students who took the test were identified as ELLs, and 1026 were identified as economically disadvantaged. Nevertheless, 84% of the ELLs who took the test met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts (GADOE, AYP Report, 2010-2011). Hispanic students, whose first language is Spanish, made up the dominant cultural and linguistic minority group among the students enrolled in Poplar Middle School.

The School Library Media Center. The entrance to the school library media center was just inside the entrance on one end of the building, where parents came to check their students in/out. It was glass-fronted and on the left side of the entrance, there was a fountain that had been decorated to look like a woodland brook. Inside the entrance and just beyond the periodical shelves on the left, was the circulation desk. At the far end of the circulation desk, there was a computer station where patrons could access the OPAC, district-funded databases, and the Internet. Additional computer stations and bookshelves occupied most of the rest of the room.

The School Library Media Specialist. Mrs. Williams was the school library media specialist who was assigned to Poplar Middle School when the Georgia CRCT was

administered in the spring of 2010. However, she was promoted afterward to the position of district media coordinator. She had been a school library media specialist for eight years at the time of her promotion. When I contacted her about participating in this study, she willingly agreed. According to Mrs. Williams, funding for the school library media center at Poplar Middle School was available from the school district, local school funds, and Title I funds. In November 2011, there were 21,883 copies in the collection, representing 13,718 titles.

The School Library Media Program. While Mrs. Williams was assigned to Poplar Middle School, she had a full-time school library media clerk who worked with her in the school library media center. In addition, there were peer volunteers, eighth grade students who came to the school library media center twice a week during their Connection time. Otherwise, volunteers were few, except for one almost full-time volunteer who came during Mrs. Williams' last year there. The volunteer had worked at the school previously in the In School Suspension (ISS) room and she had a family member who was still employed at the school.

After the morning broadcast, Mrs. Williams taught math as part of Extended Learning Time, a supplementary instructional program. The class was standards-based and followed a very structured curriculum. Afterward, the rest of her day was scheduled with the teachers. She might teach four academic periods a day if she was working with the language arts teachers, or she might work with just the ELL class; it varied. Although, she conferred often with the ESOL teachers; she didn't recall receiving any professional development to prepare her for teaching ELLs.

When Mrs. Williams was asked how she would describe the role of the school library media program in relation to the administration, the instructional program, and the special areas, she replied, “The school library media program is a cohesive connection to all the areas in the school, because they work with all content areas and all grade levels, including special areas.” When she was asked how the school library media program interacts with those areas, she said, “Research is the most obvious part, [but] they also do literacy skills, reading promotions, and depending on the media specialist, they sometimes branch out and actually have lessons in those content areas as well.”

When she was asked how the school library media program supports the administration, she mentioned professional development in both technology and instructional strategies. When she was asked about materials and services for teachers and students, including ELLs, she indicated that there were the materials that support the curriculum and professional development for the teachers; and there were lower level reading materials and bilingual books for the students. Referring to the lower level reading material, she added, “There was a lot of differentiation of reading levels on the same content.” She also stated that audio books were less commonly used in middle school than in elementary school; although they definitely used audio books and even lower level databases at her former school.

When she was asked about her criteria for selecting new materials for the school library media collection, she stated that her first consideration was the curriculum, its content, and whether there were gaps in the collection, things people were asking for that they didn’t have. Also, she mentioned the challenge of staying ahead of changes in the curriculum. She looked at reviews. Teachers’ requests were always important, and she

also relied, in part, on the kids for fiction requests. In addition, she conducted one collection analysis every year.

The Themes

Instruction

Cedar Ridge Elementary School. Mrs. Jones offered story time as a weekly service to the kindergarten through second grade classroom teachers and resource-based instruction to the third grade through fifth grade classroom teachers. Resource-based instruction, which is synonymous with information literacy skills instruction, provided an opportunity for the classroom teacher and the school library media specialist to collaboratively plan instruction that used school library media center resources to reinforce and enhance what was being taught in the classroom.

Flexible scheduling allowed Mrs. Jones to coordinate her schedule with those of the ESOL teacher(s) and the special education teacher(s). When she instructed classes in the school library media center, the classroom teacher, an ESOL teacher and a special education teacher might be in the room with her if there were students in the class who received those services and the special area teachers were scheduled to be with those students at that time. The inclusion model of instruction was used to teach ESOL students at this school. With the cooperation of the special area teachers and flexible scheduling, Mrs. Jones was able to secure their support for their students during her classes.

> Now my idea when I collaborated with the teacher is that a child should not feel isolated. I say take him and put him in a group with the support person there to

> help him interpret what we're doing if it's paper…and then as they work in a group…the support person takes a component and breaks it down further and further. And I tell them, "Do not give me an answer from your table until everybody has participated." And it's the same way when they go from print to electronic [media]. We do it in groups, no one sits at a computer by himself…and when it's time for the ESOL student or the special education student, then the support person is tight there. The other kids step back, and they do the exercise just like everybody else.

Mrs. Jones routinely used a laptop computer and a Promethean board to instruct her classes. In addition to being resource-based, her lessons were aligned with the state performance standards; and they included a technology connection, links to websites that complemented the lesson. Sometimes after the lesson, she would divide the class into small groups and distribute a learning activity to each of the groups that they could complete cooperatively (e.g., looking up information in an encyclopedia, an almanac, or an atlas). If a student experienced difficulty while attempting to complete the work, the support person was there to assist that student by further simplifying the language and breaking the lesson down into smaller components until the student was able to understand and complete the work.

Mrs. Jones and the classroom teacher would confer with each other before deciding whether a lesson should be redelivered to a class; and they would modify the lesson before redelivering it.

> We approach it differently, but the standards, the lesson plan, and the subject

> areas that we address remain the same. We just take the verbal content and we break it down…and then we shorten it too, because we want to make sure they get the bulk of what we're doing. And then what we leave out turns into a homework assignment.

Mrs. Jones used authentic learning activities to reinforce her lessons. One learning activity required the students to look up facts about a foreign country using multiple resources. The class was divided into groups of three students each, and each group was assigned a foreign country. Each student in the group was expected to locate and record one fact about the foreign country from different resources. The first student was directed to look up a fact in an encyclopedia, and the second student was directed to look up a fact in an almanac. Then the students were to go to a computer where two of them would each look up one fact on two different websites, excluding online encyclopedias. The third student was to use the online public access catalog, Destiny, to locate a book about the country. After all of the students in the group completed their tasks, they were allowed to take a seat in the winners' circle. The goal of the exercise was to show the students "…why you have to have multiple resources when you're writing a paper. Because there is no way one resource can give you everything."

Chestnut Charter Middle School. ESOL was taught at this school using the pullout model of instruction. I observed Mr. Schuster when he visited an ESOL classroom last spring to introduce a class of sixth grade ELLs to eBooks, a new format that had recently been added to the school library media collection. In the ESOL classroom, he used a laptop and an LCD projector to project the image of the school library media center homepage onto a wall-mounted screen. The students were hooked

when he told them that they were the first students to see this, and then he walked them through the steps to access a pre-selected book which he knew would appeal to them. First, he demonstrated how to locate the Follett e-Shelf on the school library media center homepage. He logged in and explained to the students how they would log in using their student numbers and the password. Once on the shelf, he showed them the various titles that were available before selecting *Tales from the Brothers Grimm and the Sisters Weird* by Vivian Vande Velde. After opening the book, he pointed out the buttons at the top of the page and described their functions. Then he used the button labeled *TOC* to access the table of contents. There is a different story in each chapter of the book. When he clicked on the chapter title in the table of contents, the first page of the story appeared on the screen. The students welcomed his offer to read the story aloud. While he read, he demonstrated how to turn the pages and occasionally asked comprehension questions. The students responded eagerly. At the end of the story, he explained how to use both the *Note* and the *Dictionary* features as well as how to close the book and return it to the shelf. Afterward, he gave the students a brief oral quiz about the story and once more they responded eagerly. Returning to the Follett e-Shelf screen, he explained how to identify books that can only be accessed by one user at a time and books that can be accessed by unlimited users. Then he gave the students copies of their student identification numbers and released six of them at a time to go to the computers located on one side of the room. He remained in the room to monitor the students and answer their questions.

I observed him again a few weeks later, when he returned to the same classroom to deliver a lesson about the index. This time, he came prepared with a laptop, an LCD

projector, an Elmo document camera, books, and worksheets that he had prepared in advance. He began by questioning the students about the topic, the index, to elicit from them what they already knew about it. In order to clarify a misunderstanding about the index and the table of contents, he asked the students to compare and contrast them. This exercise helped the students recognize how these two parts of a book are different from each other. Then he used a sequence of silly questions to help them understand that only the subjects in a book are included the index. Afterward he divided the class into groups, passed out copies of the same book about soccer to each group, and asked the students where he should look for information about different topics. The groups raced to find the entries so they could be first to tell him the page number where information about the topic could be found. Next he used the Elmo document camera to project the image of one page of an index from a book about the presidents of the United States onto the screen. Each student was given a photocopy of the index and a worksheet. With the students, he reviewed headings, explored subheadings, and explained the significance of page numbers in boldface type. While the students worked, he circulated, monitored their progress, and answered questions. Afterward, he went over the worksheet with the class, and then gave them a four question oral quiz on key concepts to assess what they had learned.

When Mr. Schuster was asked during an interview whether he had had any professional development to prepare him for teaching ELLs, he replied, “No, none on ELL. We deal with them the way we would deal with any other population. You try to identify their needs and address them in a way that’s accessible to them…just the language might be a little more of a barrier.” Nevertheless, his lessons in the classroom

included strategies that were, consistent with the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. Both times he taught the sixth grade ESOL class, the content objectives were clear. He spoke at a level the students could understand, and emphasized key vocabulary words. He used visuals, demonstrated how to perform specific tasks, and provided the students with authentic learning activities. Students had frequent opportunities to interact and discuss what they were learning. He asked comprehension questions at intervals during instruction and gave a brief oral quiz over key concepts at the end of each class.

I observed Mrs. Smith one morning last March, as she reviewed internet search strategies in the school library media center with an eighth grade ESOL class that was studying the holocaust and preparing to write research papers. Using the Promethean board, Mrs. Smith began by asking the students, "Who likes Google?" Several of the students raised their hands. Then she gave a practical demonstration of some of the problems they might encounter with Google (e.g., the volume of random responses, how the relative position of a response in the list might be irrelevant). After a brief discussion about plagiarism, she accessed *Galileo*. She discussed search terms and demonstrated an unsuccessful search, using "yellow stars" as the search term. Next, she selected another resource. This time, she used "symbols in Hitler's Germany" as the search term, which generated a list of several sources that included readability data in the form of Lexile® scores and links to other sources. The class looked at the list of sources and explored a few of them with Mrs. Smith's help. Using the term "Anne Frank," also led to multiple sources, including a graphic biography which the classroom teacher identified as a personal narrative. At this point, the classroom teacher asked Mrs. Smith to demonstrate for the students how to copy links to articles, paste them into a document, and send this

information as an email attachment to her. There was not enough time left in the class period for the students to go to the computers and begin their searches; however, this class returned to the school library media center two more times to continue their search for information to use in writing their research papers.

Mrs. Smith acknowledged during the initial interview that she hadn't learned about best practices for teaching ELLs. Then during a later interview, she said, "The most important thing…is close collaboration with the classroom teacher." To which she added, "You want the strategies to match the kids. And sometimes you know…it's the teacher who determines that strategy or has input into those strategies." During her instruction, she used some strategies that are consistent with the SIOP. The content objective was clear. Mrs. Smith spoke at a level the students could understand and emphasized key vocabulary terms. She used the Promethean board to demonstrate how to access resources, the difference between a commercial resource and an academic resource, and to display and discuss the elements included in a *hit*: the title, the name of the author, the source, the Lexile® score, related links, etc. Finally, she patiently demonstrated for the students how they could assemble the links from different websites, paste them into a document, and send the document as an email attachment to their classroom teacher.

Maple Street Elementary School. Prior to the administration of the Georgia CRCT, I observed Mrs. Wilson as she reviewed the district-approved research process with a fourth grade class in the school library media center. She described research as fun and explained how it helps you when you buy a car, rent or buy a house, or when you are looking for a lost cake recipe. Using the Smart™ board, she went to the school

library media center homepage first. Then she selected *Links*, which led to an instructional matrix. From the matrix she selected a link that led to a Microsoft PowerPoint™ presentation illustrating the five steps in the district-approved research process and the elements in each step. For the first step, Planning, she asked students to suggest a topic for a research paper. The students suggested several topics including wars, Revolutionary War, uniforms, weapons, hospitals, battles. After discussing the merits of various topics, she and the students eventually narrowed the selection to one person, George Washington. The second element in Planning involved selecting resources to use for information. Mrs. Wilson gestured toward the sets of encyclopedias on the shelves and explained to the students that when encyclopedias are published, they are already out of date; but they may be used as sources of information about historical topics or past events. Next, she reminded them that other reference books and library books might also be used as resources. She gestured toward the books on the shelves around the room and told the students that there were 136 books about the Revolutionary War among the 27,000 books on the shelves. Then she mentioned websites, and reminded the students about the district-funded databases. The second step in the process, Drafting, includes taking notes, organizing the notes, and writing the first draft. After suggesting that someone might want to take notes from a book that was borrowed from the public library, she reminded the students to take notes and record the bibliographic information from every resource they use. For the third step, Share, she recommended that the students read their papers aloud to someone who would give them feedback they could use to revise their papers. She told the students that when they reached the fourth step, Final Editing, they should only need to check their grammar,

their spelling, and complete the bibliography. When they reach the fifth and final step, Publish, they present their final draft. She reminded them that this is when they should also think about how they might have made the paper better. She concluded this part of the class with a brief oral quiz, challenging the students to match elements from the steps in the research process with the correct step.

Next, Mrs. Wilson began talking with the students about using the Internet. Although Google is not allowed in this school district, the students appeared to be familiar with the term. She compared Google, which returns information randomly, with the district-funded databases, which she described as returning better information because it has been reviewed by humans. She used a website about penguins as an example to show the students that websites do not always guarantee either accuracy or authenticity. Then she explained the significance of the *URL*, uniform resource locator, and the different domains.

With time remaining in the class period, Mrs. Wilson decided to review "the encyclopedia" (e.g., sets, volumes, alphabetical order, and location of information). She used the Smart™ board to show the students an image of the spines of a set of encyclopedias with the numbers and letters of the alphabet clearly visible. Next she asked the students to correctly identify the volume in which information about different topics could be found. The students raised their hands and waited to be called on to answer.

Once again, she reminded the students that some of the encyclopedias contain information that is no longer accurate. "We've moved on," she said. *Using World Book*

Kids as an example, she told the students that it and other databases like it are updated daily; and encyclopedias that are not automatically updated become outdated. Furthermore, she assured them that the district-funded databases, those the school district pays to access, (e.g., America the Beautiful, Britannica Elementary, PebbleGo™) are updated regularly, even daily.

Mrs. Wilson took three ESOL classes while she was earning her specialist in education degree, and some of the strategies included in her instruction were consistent with the SIOP. The content objective was clear. Mrs. Wilson spoke at a level most of the students could understand and emphasized key vocabulary terms. She used gestures to indicate the location of different types of materials housed in the school library media center and engaged the students in a guided discussion about selecting and narrowing a topic. Using the Smart™ board, she gave a visual presentation of the five steps in the district-approved research process and their elements, which were reviewed during the oral quiz at the end of that part of the instruction. Mrs. Wilson also made references to "Our Favorite Links," reminding the students that they could use the link posted on the school library media center homepage to access this Microsoft PowerPoint™ presentation at any time. During the latter part of the class, she gave a brief oral quiz that reviewed one strategy for locating information in an encyclopedia. Most of the students were engaged and responsive to Mrs. Wilson's questions; however, there were a few inattentive students in the back whom she invited to move closer to the front "to hear better."

As the end of the school year drew near, Mrs. Wilson began to promote the summer reading program sponsored by the county public library every summer. One

morning, I observed her presentation to a class. She began by telling the students that the public library really wanted them to come and visit during the summer. She used exaggerated gestures to demonstrate to the students how their reading levels would drop if they only watched television and played video games all summer. Then she asked, "Who wants to be the smart kid in class next year?" Of course, everybody wanted to be the smart kid in class. She followed this question with, "If you read one hour every day, you could be the smart kid in class." Using the Smart™ board, she displayed the homepage for the county public library. "You can start by getting a library card," she said. She invited the students to guess how many books/videos they could check out at the public library. No one guessed correctly, so she supplied the answer, "Seventy-five, and you can keep them for three weeks." Then she demonstrated how to sign up for the summer reading program by using the link on the county public library homepage to sign up a student volunteer. She reminded the students that if they return items late, there is a late fee of $.20 per item per day, and calculated with them how much it would cost if ten items were late by one day, $2.00. She further suggested that the students make a regular habit of visiting the library once a week to check out books, to which she added, "If Mom reads in Spanish, there are lots of things your mom can get in Spanish." Then she gave the students two more reasons why they might want to visit the county public library, "On a hot summer day, it's cool inside the library and there are computers, but you must have a library card. It's the best deal in town!" Afterward, she described the prizes the students could win with the coupons they would earn for reading books and maintaining a reading log. All of the student participants received a free book; but at the end of the summer, a drawing was held for fabulous prizes (e.g., books, computers, and bicycles).

Following the presentation, the students were dismissed to go to the computers to sign up for the summer reading program. Mrs. Wilson circulated among the students, monitored their progress, and assisted them when they needed help. The students were directed to read selections from the TumbleBook Library™ online, if there was time left before their teacher returned to take them to the classroom.

Mrs. Wilson was able to connect the benefits of participating in the county public library's summer reading program with some of the students' previous experiences. She also spoke at a level and in language that was familiar to them. Based on the students' responses, it appeared that she had sold her audience on the summer reading program.

However, ESOL was taught at Maple Street Elementary School using the pullout model of instruction; ESOL students were taken from their classes to another location in the school. As a result, they didn't always arrive in the school library media center at the same time as their class. Mrs. Wilson complained,

> Almost all of my classes have the ESOL kids come almost 20 minutes into the lesson. That's my biggest bugaboo about this, because we've gone through such great stuff, and everybody's on fire with this, I know learning about…and they don't know where to start, but that's just constantly happening.

She said that she had spoken with the ESOL teachers about the problem, but nothing had changed.

Poplar Middle School. Mrs. Williams didn't recall receiving either formal training or professional development to prepare her to teach ELLs. However, she did some reading in professional journals, observed the students, and adjusted her instruction

when she noticed they were having problems. "Note taking's very difficult for them," she observed. "So we started out learning to take notes by watching a video." The video was about chocolate. After the students watched a short segment of the video, Mrs. Williams modeled how to take notes on the content in that segment, and then they would repeat the process. "Short segments, lots of modeling…" she said. She also watched other teachers, learned from their practices, and conferred often with the ESOL teachers.

The ESOL teacher(s) at Poplar Middle School teamed with the language arts teachers and would accompany their classes when they came to the school library media center. Sometimes, Mrs. Williams worked with the whole group, and at other times she and the ESOL teacher might work together with a small group of ELLs. If she had a pullout group of ELLs, she would design an entirely different lesson for them; and if they were inclusion, she and the teacher would either pair them, do more modeling, or they could use different resources with them that covered the same content but were written on a lower reading level.

The *World Book Encyclopedia* in Spanish and the *Britannica Elementary Encyclopedia* in Spanish were included in the district-funded databases; however, Mrs. Williams and her co-workers discovered that, "a lot of our kids really didn't read Spanish very well." Those students were directed to resources written on a lower reading level in English, while students who had recently arrived in the country and were fluent in Spanish might use the resources written in Spanish.

When Mrs. Williams was asked about implementing technology, she immediately mentioned the computers and specifically the read aloud feature of the *Britannica*

Elementary Encyclopedia in *Galileo,* which simultaneously highlights and reads the text aloud. However, she admitted that she probably used the *World Book* more. Then she described an audio book program she initiated using Playaways. Playaways are small, portable, dedicated audio media players with one set of headphones that contain the recorded text of an entire book. One of the language arts teachers took a collection of books and the matching Playaways to the classroom for the students to read and listen to in class during a designated time. Before they began listening to the Playaways and reading along in the books, reading was difficult for these students. After the program was implemented, their language arts teacher reported to Mrs. Williams that the students, some of whom were ELLs, would run into the room asking, "Are we going to read today?" Although the program was implemented two years prior to Mrs. Williams' promotion, it was only used during the six weeks following the administration of the Georgia CRCT both years. She regretted not having obtained data from the participating students that might have indicated whether the audio book program had an impact on their reading. Two additional tools she used were the Mimio, which "…turns your whiteboard into a Smart™ board," and the Airliner, a smart, wireless slate that transmits what you write on it onto the surface of the whiteboard. The latter also functioned as a classroom management tool because she could use it without turning her back on the class.

Collaboration.

Cedar Ridge Elementary School. Mrs. Jones had a forty-five minute planning period every morning, which she used to check emails, review the schedule for the week, and check district messages. Before making any decision about school library media

program policies that might affect teaching and learning, she consulted with the principal. After they made a decision, it was mentioned in the Design Team meeting. Following the Design Team meeting, the decision was communicated to the members of the School Library Media Committee, who communicated it to the teachers. The teachers who served on the School Library Media Committee also served on the Consolidated School Improvement Plan (CSIP) Reading Committee, which included representatives from each grade level and the special areas. Mrs. Jones did not attend grade level meetings, but she was a member of the Design Team, the School Library Media Committee, and the Reading Committee.

When she arrived at Cedar Ridge Elementary School, Mrs. Jones had to form a School Library Media Committee. She met with the grade level representatives and explained their role and responsibilities as members of the School Library Media Committee. She told them that the most important reason for their being there was to oversee progress toward making changes in the school library media center and to respond to challenges to school library media materials. Then, she told the committee about a two-year plan the principal and she had devised that took 50% of the annual state allotment for the school library media center and divided it among the grade levels and the special area teachers so they could purchase the resources they needed to prepare their students to take the CRCT. The materials purchased by the grade levels and the special areas would remain with them for one year; and the following year, they would return to the general collection in the school library media center. The School Library Media Committee members were to ensure that the grade levels understood that the materials would return to the general collection after one year. Each year, Mrs. Jones emailed

information about selection aids and an order form to the grade levels. Subsequently, materials were selected based on instructional needs.

When she was asked how she collaborates with the other teachers, Mrs. Jones had just spoken with the ESOL teacher in charge of the newcomers, newly arrived students, to remind her that the library has DVDs about the Caldecott Award winning books in both Spanish and English. She explained, "Collaboration rarely takes place in the media center. It's mostly in the hall, wherever I can find a minute to stop someone and talk. That's how collaboration takes place."

Mrs. Jones collaborated with the classroom teachers, the ESOL teachers, and the special education teachers. Moreover, she coordinated her schedule with theirs so the ESOL teachers and the special education teachers could accompany their students when they came to the school library media center for instruction.

> Now, my idea when I collaborated with the teacher is that a child should not feel isolated. I say take him and put him in a group with the support person there to help him interpret what we are doing if it's paper. That's what we do.

When classes came to the school library media center for instruction in information literacy skills, the special area teachers would sit with their students. They would simplify the language and break the lesson down into smaller components until their students could understand the lesson. Then, they would work with their students to complete a learning activity.

A few years ago, Mrs. Jones attended an International Reading Association Conference that focused on reasons for a decline in the number of gifted students. One of

the speakers suggested that a lack of appropriate reading materials was partly to blame. After Mrs. Jones returned from the conference, she met with the Discovery teacher who taught the gifted students; they assembled a collection of books that were placed in the Discovery teacher's classroom to stimulate reading among those students.

Chestnut Charter Middle School. When Mr. Schuster was asked how changes are made in the school library media center's policies and program, he began by saying that he confers with Mrs. Smith about everything. "…every decision that's made in here, the big ones at least, from what we're going to spend our money on, down to which books we're going to discard or rebind." But he thought they would go to the School Library Media Committee with bigger issues, and they took input from them. "They give us great suggestions as to what the faculty wants," he said.

Mrs. Smith said, "…We also utilize the committee to build support for what we want to do." For example, when they wanted to do *TRAILS (Tool for Real-Time Assessment of Information Literacy Skills*) testing with the Sixth Grade, they took it to the committee. Mrs. Smith also wanted the Follett representative to do a presentation about eBooks for the committee, "…Because we really need to get input from the teachers about what kinds of things they would like."

When Mr. Schuster was asked about the role the administration plays in relation to the school library media center's policies and program, he reminded me that both the principal and an assistant principal are members of the School Library Media Committee; and he and Mrs. Smith are members of the Leadership Team. Mr. Schuster indicated that the administration takes a hands-off approach, relying on him and Mrs. Smith to run the

program; but he seemed to think they would step-in if they received a complaint.

The teachers had their grade level and departmental meetings in the afternoon, while the school library media specialists were still supervising students in the school library media center; so there were few opportunities for the school library media specialists to sit down with the teachers and formally collaborate with them on lesson plans. However, as Mr. Schuster pointed out, Mrs. Smith and he saw people from every department and every area of the school all the time, who were willing to tell them what they needed, what they'd like, and how they, Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith, could help them.

> "Informal planning takes place all the time, through email, face-to-face, or someone just drops in and says, 'Hey, I need to work on this lesson for this class.' And we create something, and then we'll email back and forth lesson ideas, material ideas."

Mrs. Smith felt there was, "…a need to increase communication and collaboration with the teachers." One afternoon, she shared this account of an informal planning experience she had with one of the classroom teachers.

While they were talking in the hall, a teacher began telling Mrs. Smith about a poetry unit she was teaching. Then the subject of the conversation changed to picture books. As it happened, Mrs. Smith recalled an article about visual literacy she had read in a professional journal that connected picture books with writing and chapter books. She shared some of what she had read in the article with the teacher. When the teacher resumed telling her about the poetry unit, it occurred to Mrs. Smith that there was a book

in her office the teacher might want to include in the unit, the *Orangutongs* by Jack Prelutsky. One thing led to another. Mrs. Smith offered to check out the book to the teacher and to convey an Elmo document camera to the teacher's classroom where it could be used to project images from the book onto a screen for the students to view.

Maple Street Elementary School. Mrs. Wilson collaborated with the School Library Media Committee every time she purchased books for the school library media center. As the school library media specialist, she was responsible for materials selection, acquisition, and collection development. However, the district policy required that the books on the school library media center purchase orders be reviewed and approved by the School Library Media Committee prior to their submission to a vendor.

Mrs. Wilson collaborated with the classroom teachers when they came to the school library media center to schedule their class visits.

> My book is right in front of my window, and I jump up and we talk about what they want to do. What are their [instructional] objectives, what do you want them to learn, are they capable of this?"

Although they were encouraged to plan collaboratively with the school library media specialist, the classroom teachers were not required to remain with their students during class visits to the school library media center.

Mrs. Wilson cooperated with a small group of classroom teachers who asked her to order books for them.

> I put great effort into buying books the teachers want. I've got probably 10 or 12 teachers that are real verbal about what books they need to scaffold their teaching; and usually, those are the teachers who are currently enrolled in some program. But all the same, I make sure that whatever somebody is deeming that we need, I always get that.

On another occasion, the same group of teachers alerted her to the presence of a new term on a benchmark test. A multiple-choice question about the parts of a book included *appendix* as one of the choices. Mrs. Wilson interpreted the presence of this new term as a harbinger of change and said that she would include it the next time she taught second grade students about the parts of a book. Mrs. Wilson also cooperated with the Reading Teacher, who was always looking for really low level books for her students.

Poplar Middle School. Mrs. Williams worked with both the School Library Media Committee and the Literacy Committee at her former school. Whenever changes were made to the school library media center policies or program, the School Library Media Committee was involved. The changes were, "usually based on some sort of data, circulation statistics, or looking at test scores for areas of deficiency, ELLs needing special materials, or looking at the curriculum." As a member of the School Library Media Committee, the principal was, "always aware of the changes going on, and anything big I would run by her. But overall, she gave me an enormous amount of freedom to try something new."

Mrs. Williams also attended grade level meetings after the benchmark data was released. She and the teachers would review the data. Afterward they would plan

informally, “on the fly,” and she would send emails out. Although she didn’t plan with teachers daily, she thought that she had planned with teachers at least two to three times a week. She also conferred with the ESOL teachers when they came to the school library media center with the language arts teachers.

Sometimes, she co-taught classes with the teachers. “There were classes that I would consider it was more me teaching, and then the teacher facilitating; and there would be ones where we were working together, so it just varied…” When she presented a lesson she had prepared, she would use a rubric to grade the students’ work, return it to them, and they would take it as a class grade.

Media/Technology.

Cedar Ridge Elementary School. Mrs. Jones stated that the collection included 14,853 library materials, representing 12,500 titles. Annual funding for the elementary school library media centers in this school district was calculated at the rate of $15.31 for each child who was enrolled as a full-time student. In addition, Mrs. Jones received $2,000.00 annually from Title I in 2008, 2009, and 2010, as well as $5,000.00 from Reading First in 2010. During the past few years, the materials that were purchased for the school library media center were primarily in English/Spanish. Moreover, there was a section of the library that was dedicated to books and digital media in Spanish and Spanish/English.

> We have a Spanish collection because 81.5% of our students are English language learners. So therefore, there is a dedicated section of the library. The books range from the whole Dewey collection, from biographies through fiction, nonfiction,

> and some DVDs that are in Spanish only…We do have other languages here; but in the media center, we only focus on the Spanish.

A search of the OPAC at Cedar Ridge Elementary School, Destiny, revealed 303 titles in Spanish, including bilingual titles in Spanish/English, and three different Spanish/English dictionaries. In addition, there were dictionaries in Arabic/English, Chinese/English, French/English, Japanese/English, Korean/English, and Vietnamese/English. There were also a few titles in Chinese and in Vietnamese as well as some bilingual titles in Arabic/English, Chinese/English, Japanese/English, Korean/English, and French/English. Furthermore, there were 116 titles described as multicultural literature, 78 nonfiction titles that are written on a lower reading level in English, one Hi-Lo title, and 46 graphic titles. The commercially produced digital resources include 407 DVDs/videocassettes, 11 audio books, 47 Playaways, and multiple databases, including some in Spanish, which were accessible in *Galileo*, a state-sponsored collection of online academic resources. According to Mrs. Jones, she would not purchase instructional materials unless they were bilingual.

Mrs. Jones routinely used a laptop computer and a Promethean board to present her lessons. Using the interactive board, she was able to display the content of the lesson to the students, demonstrate how to perform specific tasks, and access pertinent websites on the Internet. In the school library media center and the classrooms, there were networked computer workstations; and there were also laptop computers in the school library media center that the students could use to access the OPAC, the Internet, *Galileo*, and multiple subscription databases.

Chestnut Charter Middle School. Mr. Schuster estimated there were 18,000 copies in the school library media collection at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year. The OPAC at Chestnut Charter Middle School, Destiny, displayed 164 titles in Spanish, including a one-volume encyclopedia, a 13-volume set of encyclopedias, one Spanish dictionary, nine different Spanish/English dictionaries, and bilingual titles in Spanish/English. There were also dictionaries and a few titles in Arabic, Chinese, French, German, and Korean, as well as some bilingual Arabic/English, Chinese/English, French/English, German/English, Japanese/English, Korean/English, and Vietnamese/English titles. In addition, there were 50 titles that were described as multicultural literature, 56 picture book titles, 33 Hi-Lo titles, 1,298 titles for nonfiction books written on a lower reading level in English, and 22 graphic titles. The commercially produced digital resources included 28 audio books, a classroom set of iPads, a classroom set of Nooks, 67 eBooks, and multiple databases, including some in Spanish, which were accessible in *Galileo*.

Both of the school library media specialists used technology to enhance their instruction. When he visited a classroom, Mr. Schuster used a laptop computer, an LCD projector, and an Elmo document camera to visually present the content of his lessons to the students. While introducing eBooks to a sixth grade ESOL class, he demonstrated how to access, locate, and use eBooks. On another occasion, he projected an index onto a screen to show a sixth grade ESOL class how an index is organized and to point out its special features. Mrs. Smith used the Promethean board in the school library media center to demonstrate three different ways to search for information on the Internet for an eighth grade class of ESOL students.

In addition to the Promethean board, the laptop computers, the LCD projector, and the Elmo document camera, the school library media center had laptop labs, a classroom set of iPads, and Nooks. There were also networked computer workstations in the school library media center and in the classrooms that the students could use to access the OPAC, eBooks, the Internet, and multiple databases, including some in Spanish that were accessible in *Galileo.*

Maple Street Elementary School. According to Mrs. Wilson, there were 27,000 books in the school library media collection at Maple Street Elementary School. A search of the OPAC showed 222 titles in Spanish, including bilingual titles in Spanish/English. There were also two books in Korean as well as a few copies of bilingual titles in Arabic/English, Chinese/English, French/English, Japanese/English, Korean/English, and Vietnamese/English. Mrs. Wilson was only permitted to purchase books in a language other than English or bilingual books as supplementary materials. There were also 211 graphic titles. The commercially produced digital resources included 45 audiovisual materials that offered Spanish as an alternative language and six that offered French, 1,274 audio books, multiple databases, including some in Spanish, which were accessible in *Galileo*, and the district-funded databases, including PebbleGo™ and the TumbleBook Library™.

Mrs. Wilson used a Smart™ board to make visual presentations of her lessons to the students. Moreover, the students could use networked computer workstations in the school library media center to access the OPAC, the Internet, *Galileo*, and a sizeable collection of district-funded databases, which included PebbleGo™ and the TumbleBook Library™. Mrs. Wilson had also constructed an instructional matrix titled “Our Favorite

Links", which was accessible from the school library media center homepage. Except for the headers, the cells in the matrix included links to Microsoft PowerPoint presentations about information literacy skills and to interactive websites about reading and English/language arts, social studies, health, science, and mathematics.

Poplar Middle School. In November 2011, Mrs. Williams checked her office computer and shared with me that there were 21,883 copies representing 13,718 titles in the school library media collection at Poplar Middle School. A later search of the Poplar Middle School OPAC indicated that there were 286 titles, including both Spanish and bilingual titles in Spanish/English. There were also 275 titles for picture books and 27 titles for picture books classified as fiction, indicating that they were written on a higher reading level. In addition, there were 27 Hi-Lo titles, 550 titles for nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, and 10 graphic titles that were also classified as nonfiction. Other assistive resources included 32 Playaways.

Mrs. Williams used both a Mimio, which she described as being able to turn the white board into a Smart™ board, and an Airliner, a smart, wireless slate that transmitted what she wrote on it onto the surface of the white board. In the school library media center, she and the students could access the OPAC, the Internet, 106 eBooks, *Galileo*, and an extensive collection of district-funded databases, including some in Spanish, on networked computer workstations.

Interpersonal Communication.

Cedar Ridge Elementary School. Mrs. Jones communicated with the other members of the faculty and staff through the School Library Media Center Handbook,

meetings with the principal, the Design Team, the School Library Media Committee, and the Reading Committee. She also approached teachers in the hall, in the classroom, wherever she could "find a minute to stop someone and talk."

The School Library Media Center Handbook was accessible both online on the school website and in print from the school library media center. It stated that the purpose of the school library media center was, "…to support the curriculum by offering print and non-print materials in various formats to students, staff members, and parents." In addition, there were descriptive paragraphs that covered the school library media center policies concerning flexible access, circulation, and Internet access, as well as services that were available to the teachers (e.g., story time, resource-based instruction).

During Hispanic Heritage month, September 15 – October 15, Mrs. Jones covered the wall opposite the main office with information and pictures about outstanding Hispanic people who had made contributions to their culture. She assembled a packet of information about the Hispanic culture that she posted online for the teachers, and one of the reading teachers and she read literature from the Hispanic culture aloud to the students. In addition, she bought DVDs about the Hispanic holidays, "…so they would know that we're not underrating their culture. We're valuing them just like we value Black History month."

Parents were permitted to check books out of the school library media center. However, Mrs. Jones estimated that "…maybe one percent of the parents come in and actually go back to the Spanish section and ask to check out a book. Once they found out

they could do it, it was repeat until they move." When books were overdue, overdue notices were sent home in English and Spanish.

Mrs. Jones did not speak Spanish, and there were no bilingual or multilingual signs in the school library media center. She believed that the school library media center should reflect the public library, and she wanted her students to be able to "go in any library and find the information they need." Furthermore, she assumed that the language barrier was the reason parents did not volunteer to help in the school library media center. "What they mostly volunteer for at the school is making copies, doing the bulletin boards, things that don't require a lot of communication."

Chestnut Charter Middle School. Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith communicated with the other members of the faculty, the staff, the parents, and the students through the School Library Media Center Handbook which was accessible online on the school website and in print from the school library media center. They also belonged to the School Library Media Committee and they were members of the Leadership Team, which gave them opportunities to communicate with the other members of both groups. Usually, they were unable to attend the grade level meetings because they were supervising students in the school library media center when the grade level meetings took place in the afternoon. However, one month they managed to attend all the grade level meetings in order to talk with the teachers about administering the *TRAILS* (*Tool for Real-Time Assessment of Information Literacy Skills*) test.

When students wanted a particular book and the book was checked out, they could either ask one of the school library media specialists to place an electronic hold on

the book for them, or they could go to a computer and place the hold themselves. After the book was returned to the school library media center, an email would be sent to the student notifying him or her that the book was available. If the school library media center didn't own a copy of the book, Mrs. Smith would enter the title into Titlewave™; a tool that could be used to generate an order for one of the district's approved vendors.

Parents could come to the school library media center beginning at 8:15 a.m. and after school until 4:10 p.m.; or they could schedule an appointment with one of the school library media specialists. According to Mr. Schuster, parents usually came to the school library media center to pay for a lost book. Overdue notices were sent to students via email. If an ELL student had an overdue book, the school library media specialists would work through his or her teacher to notify the student that the book was overdue; and if an overdue notice had to be sent home to parents who did not speak English, there was a part-time translator in the building who could translate the parent letter. Neither Mr. Schuster nor Mrs. Smith spoke Spanish.

Maple Street Elementary School. Mrs. Wilson communicated with the other members of the faculty and staff through the School Library Media Center handbook, which was accessible online on the school website and in print from the school library media center. It included information about the purpose, the policies, and the procedures of the school library media center. There was a section titled "Other Helpful Resources for Teachers" that included supplementary information about the professional collection, periodicals, rules that regulate students' access to the Internet, and selection policies. In addition, there was a brief note about the Reconsideration Policy and copies of the

American Library Association Code of Ethics (1981), and the Association for Educational Communication and Technology Statement on Intellectual Freedom (1978).

In addition to reviewing and approving Mrs. Wilson's book orders, the School Library Media Committee also discussed media-related questions from the faculty. If the committee could not agree on a response at the school level, Mrs. Wilson had the option of submitting the question to a district media forum, where other school library media specialists could respond to it.

Mrs. Wilson created a website for the school library media center that included approximately 100 pages. It featured photographs and slideshows of current and past events (e.g., International Night, Teacher of the Year), a copy of the School Library Media Center Handbook, and links to a matrix of PowerPoint presentations and interactive websites that supported the curriculum.

District policy prohibited parents from checking books out of the school library media centers. However, Parent Centers were established in Title I schools, where parents could go to check out books and materials. Mrs. Wilson's school hosted one of these centers. The Parent Center operated independently from the school library media center even though it was located there.

Poplar Middle School. Mrs. Williams was in charge of the Readers Rally team at her school. Even though there was very little parent involvement at Poplar Middle School, the Readers Rally, a district wide reading competition, generated a lot of support from the parents. At the reading competition, teams competed against each other to

answer questions about preselected books. After the competition, one of the parents hosted a party for the team and purchased trophies for the students.

During "Read Across America," there was a school wide reading contest. Volunteers were sent to the classrooms, where they would read the first one or two chapters in a book, just enough to get the students hooked on the book. Meanwhile, the students kept track of the number of reading minutes. Mrs. Williams said, "There was a really good response."

During Hispanic Heritage month, Mrs. Williams featured displays of Hispanic American literature in the school library media center. Sometimes, famous Hispanic Americans were spotlighted on the morning announcements.

Chapter Summary

The results of this study were presented in this chapter. In order to provide a context for this study, each of the schools was profiled and information about the school, the school library media center, the school library media specialist(s), and the school library media program was given. In addition, four themes were introduced that emerged from an inductive thematic analysis of the collective data: instruction, collaboration, media/technology, and interpersonal communication. Examples that illustrate how the themes were represented in each of the school library media programs were provided.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade. It was a multi-site, collective case study that included four school library media programs located in one elementary school and one middle school in each of two different school districts. These schools were selected because the percentage of ELLs enrolled in each of them was among the highest on their respective levels in their school districts. Moreover, the percentage of ELLs enrolled in each of these schools who met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts on the Georgia Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT) when it was administered in the spring of 2010 was either more than the Annual Measurable Objective (AMO) of 73.3% or slightly less.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What types of instructional strategies, including technology-based strategies, do school library media specialists use to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?

2. What types of assistive resources are included in the school library media collections that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs (e.g., first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials eBooks and other digital resources)?

3. How do the school library media specialists collaborate with the other members of the instructional team (e.g., individually, grade level planning, vertical planning, leadership team)?

4. What, if any, other practices have been implemented by the school library media specialists that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs?

Findings

An inductive thematic analysis of the data was conducted, during which the data coalesced into four themes that corresponded with the research questions: instruction, collaboration, media/technology, and interpersonal communication. The other practices mentioned in both question four and the finding for question four were included in interpersonal communication due to their communicative attributes.

1. The participants used both conventional and technology-based instructional strategies to support reading and information literacy skills instruction for all of their students, including the ELLs. Many of the conventional instructional strategies they used were consistent with strategies used in the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol.

2. The school library media collections included first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic materials, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks and other digital resources; however, the materials varied in age, suitability, and condition.

3. Collaboration between the school library media specialists and the other members of the instructional team was usually initiated by the school library media specialists and occurred on an informal and an irregular basis.
4. Other practices that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs were undertaken by the school library media specialists on a discretionary basis and varied from one school to another.

Instruction

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) references both contemporary learning and information theories. Language used in the chapters titled "The Vision" and "Learning and Teaching" indicates that the contemporary learning theory includes elements of constructivism, a learning theory pioneered by Vygotsky, among others. According to Vygotsky (1978), what a child can accomplish without assistance represents functions that have fully matured in the child; but what a child accomplishes with some assistance is indicative of functions that are in the process of maturation. The interval between the two developmental levels is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which serves as an indicator and facilitator of the child's potential for mental development.

In the past, classroom teachers and school library media specialists used blackboards, overhead transparencies, slides, filmstrips, films, or videocassettes, to make portions of the content of their lessons visible to the students. The technological tools used by the participants (e.g., a laptop, an LCD projector, an Elmo document camera, a Promethean board, a Smart™ board, or an Airliner™ and an interactive white board) further enhanced their ability to make the content of their lessons visible. The students

were able to observe the school library media specialist as he or she drew their attention to specific features of an index; demonstrated how to access and use an eBook; used precise search terms to conduct a search for authoritative information in an online academic resource; reviewed the five steps in the district-approved research process; or demonstrated how to take notes.

Haney and Ullmer (1975) identified the audiovisual-cognitive-perceptual philosophy, which describes visual materials as more *realistic* and *concrete* than purely verbal materials and presentations. The participants combined direct instruction with their use of technological tools to make the content of their lessons visible to the students; thus offering them both verbal and visual assistance to help them learn what the lesson was designed to teach them.

Furthermore, the participants used some instructional strategies that were consistent with the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP). During my observations, I noted that the participants stated the content objective while introducing the lesson; emphasized key vocabulary terms (e.g., index, entry, table of contents, glossary, topic, bibliography); pitched their speech at a level the students appeared to understand; and modeled or demonstrated specific tasks. Mrs. Jones and Mr. Schuster provided the students with authentic learning activities related to the content of the lesson, and Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Wilson used short, oral quizzes at the end of the lesson to assess the students' comprehension and learning.

Collaboration

Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning (AASL & AECT, 1998) describes collaboration as integral to the school library media specialist's role and the school library media program. It is further described as, "…a symbiotic process that requires active, genuine effort and commitment by all members of the instructional team" (p. 51). Each of the participants made a genuine effort to collaborate with the classroom teachers at their schools; however, scheduling conflicts, time constraints, and the indifference of some classroom teachers, limited the participants' opportunities to engage in extensive collaboration.

All of the participants attended meetings of the School Library Media Committee, and Mrs. Jones and Mrs. Williams attended meetings of the Reading Committee/Literacy Committee. Mrs. Jones, Mr. Schuster, Mrs. Smith, and Mrs. Williams attended meetings of the Design Team/Leadership Team. Mr. Schuster and Mrs. Smith attended grade level meetings to pitch an idea, and Mrs. Williams attended grade level meetings to review the benchmark data with the classroom teachers on each grade level. The school library media specialists used these meetings to communicate with their colleagues about the instructional and material support they and the school library media program could offer them.

Each of the participants communicated informally with classroom teachers, either face-to-face or via email, about ideas for lessons and materials. In the first district, teachers are required to remain with their classes when they visit the school library media center; however, this is not the case in the second district. When the classroom teachers came to the school library media center to schedule their class visits, Mrs. Wilson asked

them what they wanted their students to learn. Sometimes, she offered the teachers a menu of lesson plans from which they could select a lesson for her to teach to their classes. Many of the teachers did not remain with their classes, but Mrs. Wilson felt that teaching information literacy skills was important; and she was prepared to teach them in isolation. Moreover, the ESOL teachers often delivered the ESOL students to the school library media center 20 minutes after their classes had begun, and they missed some of the instruction. In contrast, Mrs. Williams, whose school was also located in the second district, described how the ESOL teachers at her school teamed with the language arts teachers and accompanied their classes to the school library media center. Sometimes, she worked with the whole group, and at other times she and an ESOL teacher might work together with a small group of ELLs.

Media/Technology

Au (1998) asserted that a mainstream constructivist orientation does not adequately consider the effects of differences in ethnicity, primary language, and social class on school literacy learning by students of diverse backgrounds, and proposed a conceptual framework based on a set of propositions. The propositions reflect the diverse constructivist orientation and specify strategies for improving the literacy learning of students of diverse backgrounds. The second proposition states that the value and importance of students' home languages should be acknowledged and biliteracy should be promoted.

For some time, librarians and school library media specialists have expressed their concern for meeting the needs of their patrons who spoke a language other than English. Latrobe & Laughlin (1992) compiled articles from educators and subject area specialists

in a reference book for school library media specialists. Rose Mary Flores Story, whose father was a Mexican American, was one of the contributing authors. In her article, she included a list of suggestions by Dyer and Robertson-Kozan that was intended to help school library media specialists serving Spanish-speaking children become better equipped. The first suggestion was for these school library media specialists to "augment inadequate Spanish language collections with excellent books and nonprint materials in Spanish and with English materials about the Spanish culture" (Dyer and Robertson-Kozan, as cited in Story, 1992, p. 50). Dame (1993) also recommended providing both materials in the students' native languages and bilingual materials; and Snyder (1992) urged school library media specialists to select authentic literature that accurately portrays cultural, ethnic, or linguistic minority groups.

All of the school library media collections included some first language books, bilingual books, picture books, and graphic literature; and some of the school library media collections included multicultural literature, nonfiction titles written on a lower reading level, and Hi-Lo titles as well. The first language and bilingual collections included books in languages from Asia, Europe, the Middle East, Mexico, and South America; there were more books in Spanish or Spanish/English than in any other language. However, the first language and bilingual collections often included materials that were out-of-date, unsuitable, or in poor condition.

The demand for first language and bilingual materials varied among the schools; however, there were students who apparently needed this kind of support and benefitted from it. Although Mrs. Jones stated that only one percent of the ESOL students' parents ever came to the school library media center to check out books from the Spanish section,

they continued to check out books until they moved. Furthermore, the middle school library media specialists in both of the school districts mentioned that many of the Hispanic students could not read Spanish; however, Mrs. Smith was purchasing some of the "hot" titles, fiction titles that had been popular in English, in Spanish, and Mrs. Williams used the online editions of the *Britannica Encyclopedia* in Spanish and the *World Book* in Spanish when she worked with small groups of ESOL students who had recently arrived and were literate in Spanish.

School library media programs are expected to meet the needs of all of the students who are enrolled in the school. As long as there are students enrolled in the school who might benefit from having access to assistive resources (e.g., first language and bilingual materials, etc.), these kinds of resources ought to be included in the school library media collection; however, it might be helpful for the school library media specialist(s) to consult with the ESOL teacher(s) or the ESOL department prior to purchasing additional materials, in order to ascertain the number of ESOL students who are literate in their first language and in which languages they are literate. The assistive resources should also be included when the school library media collection is weeded.

The Second Colorado Study conducted by Lance, Rodney, and Hamilton-Pennell (2000) focused on school library media programs in schools where students achieved higher average scores on reading tests. This study specifically mentioned online access to library media center resources, licensed databases, and the Internet via networked computers as features of these school library media programs.

All of the participants had access to an interactive board, either a Promethean board, a Smart™ board, or an Airliner™ and an interactive white board, which they used

for instruction. Moreover, there were networked computers located in each of the school library media centers that the students could use to access the OPAC, licensed databases and the Internet.

The participants routinely used these resources, and they taught the students how to use them. After the school library media specialist demonstrated how to perform a specific task, the students were usually given an opportunity to practice it. Later, the students would be expected to perform the task independently. Combining a visual demonstration with direct instruction and an opportunity for guided practice appeared to be an effective instructional strategy for working with all of the students, including the ELLs.

Interpersonal Communication

In the chapter titled "the Vision" in *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning* (AASL & AECT, 1998), the information search process is described as authentic learning. According to the text, promoting this kind of learning requires a "new conception of the context of education" (p. 2). The idea of an all-inclusive learning community that transcends boundaries and time is central to this new context, and implies that we are all engaged in an ongoing search for information to satisfy our needs. The "other practices" described in this study communicated information to the students, their parents, and the learning community, which included the international community of which they were a part.

The participants made information about their school library media centers accessible to the faculty, the staff, the students and their parents both online and in print.

The school library media center handbooks included contact information as well as the policies and procedures of the school library media centers.

The participants also communicated with the learning community through their extracurricular activities. Mrs. Jones, Mrs. Wilson, and Mrs. Williams celebrated the cultural heritages of their students. Mrs. Jones assembled materials and created displays designed to inform the students, the faculty, the staff, and visitors to the building about the students' cultural heritages. Mrs. Wilson hosted a web page on the school library media center website that featured photographs and slideshows of important events that had taken place at the school during the school year, including International Night, when the cultures of the students and their families were celebrated. Mrs. Williams displayed Hispanic literature in the school library media center during Hispanic Heritage month, and she coached a team of students who competed at the district Readers Rally, which generated "a lot of support" for the Readers Rally team and the school among the parents. Furthermore, Mr. Schuster worked with the ESOL students in the school library media center to help them create PowerPoint presentations, and he also helped them expand their knowledge of technology.

Implications for Practice

The following implications for practice are research-based and reflect the practices of the school library media specialists who participated in the study:

1. School library media specialists should endeavor to make the content of their lessons visible to the students, especially the ELLs.

Visual literacy is the ability of individuals to derive meaning from something that is observed (e.g., illustrations in a book, a photograph, a model, an image projected on an

interactive board). According to Haney and Ullmer (1975), visual materials are more *realistic* and *concrete* than purely verbal materials and presentations. "Visual images present concrete details that make them immediately accessible in a different way from verbal texts" (Rowsell, McLean, and Hamilton, 2012, p. 447).

Bauer and Manyak (2008) described language rich instruction in terms of practical strategies that support the development of ELLs' literacy skills. One of those strategies involved the use of demonstrations, visuals, and/or graphic organizers to build students' background knowledge. The SIOP® Model advocates the use of visual aids, modeling, demonstrations, and graphic organizers as techniques for making learning content comprehensible for English language learners (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008). Moreover, the use of visual representations is a Response to Intervention (RTI) strategy that is used not only to communicate material to students, but is also recommended as a means of allowing students to demonstrate their knowledge (Whitten, E; Esteves, K.; and Woodrow, A., 2009). School library media specialists can make the content of their lessons both more accessible and more comprehensible for all of the students by presenting it in a visual format.

2. School library media specialists should use authentic learning activities both to engage the students in the learning process and as a means of assessing their comprehension and learning.

Authentic learning activities are a feature of the SIOP® Model. These are standards-based learning activities that provide students with opportunities to practice using academic language while they experience/practice what they are learning about. Demonstrating how to use an index to students, then giving them a worksheet to

complete that requires them to work in small groups to search a single page from an index for the page numbers where specific information is located in a book, would be an example of an authentic learning activity. The students could use academic language while practicing an academic skill they had recently learned.

3. In schools where ELLs are enrolled who could benefit from having access to assistive resources, these kinds of resources should be included in the school library media collection.

The second proposition proposed by Au (1998) states that the value and importance of students' home languages should be acknowledged and biliteracy should be promoted. Likewise, Dyer and Robertson-Kozan (as cited in Story, 1992) suggested that books and nonprint materials in Spanish as well as materials in English about Spanish culture should supplement inadequate collections of Spanish language books. Snyder (1992) also urged school library media specialists to select authentic literature that accurately portrays cultural, ethnic, or linguistic minority groups. Moreover, Dame (1993) suggested that providing materials in the students' native languages and bilingual materials in the school library media center could moderate the linguistic barriers that hindered ELLs' access to information.

Assistive resources include first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction titles written on a lower reading level, graphic literature, Hi-Lo reading materials, audio books, Playaways, eBooks, and other digital resources. These resources include fiction, nonfiction, and reference materials. School library media specialists provide students with physical and intellectual access to information when these resources are accessible to students in the school library media center and the

students learn how to use them through authentic learning experiences that integrate content-area goals with information literacy skills (AASL & AECT, 1998).

Suggestions for Further Research

The following questions arose during the conduct of the study, and could offer further insight into how to best meet the instructional needs of the ELLs within the student population.

1. Are the instructional strategies used by school library media specialists who have received training to teach ELLs significantly different from the instructional strategies used by school library media specialists who have not received this kind of training?

In 2008, Echevarria, Vogt, and Short co-authored an instructional manual titled *Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP® Model*; in which they present a model of sheltered instruction, the SIOP® Model, designed to enable classroom teachers to teach academic content to ELLs while simultaneously developing their English language proficiency. The SIOP® Model is based on the premise that interactions in English between ELLs and material that is relevant to what they are learning will enhance their English language development. Both content and language objectives are integrated with the curriculum in a specific subject, and teachers use modified instruction to teach the regular grade level curriculum in English. The instructional strategies that are included in this model have been demonstrated to be effective in both mainstream and ESOL classrooms (e.g., cooperative learning and the use of both visuals and demonstrations).

In response to the district-wide increase in linguistic diversity among the student population, teachers and school library media specialists in the first district were offered the opportunity to attend professional development classes to train them to implement the SIOP® Model in their classrooms. This fact suggests that the training might offer specialized knowledge and/or skills that would prepare the teacher or school library media specialist to become a more effective teacher of ELLs.

2. What kinds of programs or services could school library media specialists offer ELLs that would encourage them to visit the school library media center and use the resources located there?

Dame (1993) offered the following suggestions for programs and services: 1) sponsor multicultural activities; 2) use role playing, modeling procedures, and activity centers that feature full-text audio books to teach library skills to ELLs; 3) collaborate with other specialists to include activities such as choral reading, role playing, storytelling, and dialogue journals as part of their instruction; 4) foster information literacy and an appreciation for literature by providing literature in the students' native languages; 5) collaborate with teachers to prepare advance organizers that include visuals that reflect themes and subject areas in the ESOL curriculum; and 6) select materials for LEP students based on their language proficiency.

During the interval between 1993 and 2013, the kinds of resources available to school library media specialists, teachers, and students changed. Advances in technology increased our access to information in a variety of formats. Articles in some online reference resources can now be translated into several different languages with a single key stroke. Websites offer access to international literature both by and for children and

young adults. Information about how services to ELLs have evolved since 1993 and the kinds of programs school library media specialists are currently offering to these students would be useful to other school library media specialists who are working to build their own school library media programs and services.

Chapter Summary

The populations of the United States and Georgia grew more ethnically and linguistically diverse during the last decade. In 2008, the Hispanic population accounted for 15.4% of the population of the United States and 8% of the population of Georgia (Pew Hispanic Center, 2011). The percentage of children in Georgia between the ages of five and seventeen who spoke a language other than English at home and spoke English with difficulty was 13.3% (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a). During the 2008-09 school year, 4.9% of the students enrolled in Georgia schools were classified as LEP (USDOE, 2010b).

Fry (2007) described the NAEP as "…the most authoritative source of standardized testing data for public school students across the country" (p. i); furthermore, he stated that "the ELL-to-white performance gaps based on the state assessments largely mirror the gaps based on state NAEP' (p. 14). When Fry (2007) analyzed the scores achieved by ELLs and other student groups during the 2005 administration of the NAEP, he noted that the scores of the ELLs were consistently lower than their English-speaking peers, and the achievement gaps widened between the fourth and the eighth grade.

This study explored how school library media specialists support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade.

The schools that participated in the study, one elementary school and one middle school in each of two different school districts, were among those in their districts with the highest percentage of ELLs on their respective levels; moreover, the percentage of ELLs who met and exceeded the standard for reading and English/language arts on the Georgia CRCT when it was administered in 2010 was either more than the AMO of 73.3% or slightly less.

This study produced information that described how the participants support reading and information literacy skills instruction for the ELLs. They routinely used technological tools as part of their instructional repertoires, which enabled them to provide the students with instruction that offered both verbal and visual assistance, making it more concrete and more comprehensible. Whenever they could, they collaborated with both classroom teachers and special area teachers. They supported reading by providing the students with access to collections of materials that included assistive resources (e.g., first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books, nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks, and other digital resources). Although the other practices they implemented varied from one school to another, they communicated their support for these students as members of the school learning community and demonstrated their commitment to teaching them.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Study: How school library media specialists support reading and information literacy instruction for ELLs in the fourth through the eighth grade

Time of Interview:

Date:

Place:

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Position of interviewee:

(Introduce yourself and briefly describe this study: purpose, confidentiality, and methods)

Program Administrator

1. Describe your library media program in relation to: a) staffing, b) funding, and c) the size and diversity of the collection. (content and format)

2. How do you decide when/whether changes need to be made in the program? (role of the school library media/technology committee, administration, parents, community) Describe how the ELLs are included in the library media program? (e.g., special events, parental involvement, notices to parents in both languages)

4. Describe how Accelerated Reader™ or a similar program is used to support reading for ELLs? (e.g., competition, incentives, recognition)

Teacher/Instructional Partner

5. Discuss how you collaborate with other faculty members:

planning: frequency, informal, formal: grade level planning, vertical planning, leadership team

instruction: teaching, co-teaching, assessment

6. How did you learn about practices for Teaching ELLs?

(e.g., professional development, college coursework, earned ESOL endorsement)

7. In what ways have you differentiated your instruction to accommodate the academic and linguistic needs of the ELLs (e.g., instructional strategies, SIOP, SREs, technology)?

Information Specialist

8. What types of assistive resources are included in the school library media center collection that support reading and information literacy skills instruction for ELLs? (e.g., bilingual signage, first language, bilingual, and multicultural literatures, picture books,

nonfiction books written on a lower reading level, graphic novels, Hi-Lo reading materials, eBooks and other digital resources)

(Thank interviewee for participating in this interview. Assure him/her that responses will be confidential and schedule follow-up interview/observation. Provide contact information.)

APPENDIX B

INTERVIW PROTOCOL B

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Think of the school library media program as one component of the educational program at your school. How does the school library media program interact with the other components to educate the students? (**What is the role of the school library media program in relation to the administration and the instructional program, including the special areas?**)

2. How does the school library media program meet the diverse needs of the administration, the faculty, the staff, and the students, including the ELLs? (**What kinds of materials and services does the school library media program provide that support the administration, the faculty and staff, and the students, including the ELLs?**)

3. What are the criteria that guide you as you select new materials for the school library media collection? (**Please describe your strategy for selecting new material for the school library media collection?**)

4. What are some of the strategies you use to scaffold learning for students who are ELLS? (**When you are teaching or co-teaching a class that includes ELL**

students, how do you ensure that they are able to participate fully in the learning experience?)

5. How does the school district's educational media department support the school library media program at your school?

APPENDIX C

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Length of Activity: 60 minutes	
Descriptive Notes	**Reflective Notes**

APPENDIX D

THE THEMES

Theme 1

Label – Collaboration

Definition – The practice of two or more people working together to achieve a common goal

Indicators – Coded when the person states, "I put great effort into buying the books that the teachers want." "We create something," "I jump up and we talk about what they want to do."

Theme 2

Label – Interpersonal Communication

Definition – Transmitting information orally, visually, or in writing

Indicators – Coded when the person states, "We do make things visual. Even down to something like signage." "I bought DVDs that are geared to their holidays, so they would know that we're not underrating their culture." "The overdue notices go home in English and Spanish."

Theme 3 - Instruction

Definition – The process and the product of teaching

Indicators – Coded when the person states, "You try to identify their needs and address them in any way that's accessible to them." "When I would present a lesson, especially one I did, I would tend to have a rubric with it." "I've laminated cards, hold up three cards in the proper sequence, which is in ABC order…"

Theme 4 – Media/Technology

Definition – The tools. Media are materials: artifacts, books, newspapers, periodicals, pictures, audiocassettes, CDs, DVDs, Playaways, and realia. Technology refers to software programs, the Internet, and resources accessible via the Internet, as well as computers, interactive boards, smart slates, iPads, etc.

Indicators – Coded when a person states, "I had been reading about graphic novels as a way to bridge our reluctant readers." "…books that are written on a lower reading level, that are nonfiction and treat content, I think we've gotten

more of that this year…" "We definitely used audio books, even lower level databases to help them…"

APPENDIX E

DOCUMENTS

Cedar Ridge Elementary School

- School library Media Center Handbook
- Lesson Plan: The Research Process
- Lesson Plan: Fantasy
- Lesson Plan: Poetry for Kids
- Lesson Plan: Using a Dictionary
- Lesson Plan: Biographies

Chestnut Charter Middle School

- School Library Media Center Handbook
- Handout and worksheet from the lesson about the index

Maple Street Elementary School

- School Library Media Center Handbook
- Menu of CRCT Skills [Lessons]
- PebbleGo activity sheets