UK Preparatory School Librarians’ and Teachers’ Design and Use of Reading Lists: A Qualitative Study of Approaches, Perceptions, and Content

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Abstract

This paper reports the findings of a small-scale qualitative study that explored the perceptions of and approaches used by UK school librarians and teachers in the design and use of reading lists. The research question was: “What is the best way to construct reading lists to maximize their benefit in the school library or classroom?” The research strategy adopted for the study was thematic analysis. The data collected from five semi-structured interviews was analyzed and a thematic map produced. The analysis identified four key themes that shape construction of reading lists: content, user, purpose, and format. The content was selected using a range of methods, including patron-driven, literary merit, exclusion, textual variety, and curriculum. The user was central to the design with reading lists being parent-driven and pupil-centered. The purpose was situated within a wider reader-development curriculum. However, the participants perceived that the reading list was a less-effective method of reader development than face-to-face interaction with pupils. Four recommendations to improve practice in similar contexts are suggested. The conclusion reached was that UK preparatory school librarians’ and teachers’ construction of reading lists is a complex practice that attempts to balance pupils’ reading for pleasure with their needs for literacy attainment.
Introduction

Both practitioners (Gorman 2010) and academic researchers (Lo et al. 2014) identify that the construction of lists of recommended reading is part of a school librarian’s role. In the UK context, Sue Shaper (2014) has advocated the creation of reading lists as a method of supporting reading across the curriculum. Yet, to date, there has been limited research into the construction of reading lists and their use in school libraries as a method of reader development. Two earlier studies offered insight into how summer reading lists have been used by U.S. school librarians. Firstly, in Ya-Ling Lu and Carol Gordon’s (2008) study of a free-choice summer reading program, students in grades 9–12 were given access to twelve online annotated reading lists to select titles to read over summer vacation. Secondly, Libby Gorman’s (2010) study of the views of twelve school librarians in North Carolina investigated the purposes behind summer reading lists. However, these studies did not examine the school librarians’ perceptions of the reading list as a method of reader development nor the librarians’ approaches in the construction of the lists. Thus, the significance of the research described in this paper is to provide a unique study into the perceptions of and approaches used by UK preparatory school librarians in the design and use of reading lists. This study will be of interest to in-service school librarians and teachers worldwide who wish to implement Ross J. Todd’s “Evidence in Practice” approach: “integrating available research evidence with deep knowledge and understanding derived from professional experience” (2009, 89).

The issue of recommended reading for children and young adults is of central importance. The Reading Agency asserts that children “must feel motivated to read based on their own intrinsic motivation or the many initiatives designed to increase reading behavior will not be successful” (2015, 15). Furthermore, “teachers have a great influence on the value children give to reading” (Mallett 2016, 172), and yet teachers’ limited knowledge of children’s literature (Cremim et al. 2008) may adversely impact their ability to select texts that encourage children to read for pleasure. This limitation is concerning when considered in the context of the link between reading for pleasure and educational attainment (Education Standards Research Team 2012). Moreover, research into the school librarian’s role in teaching and learning has found that librarians find it difficult to identify clear learning outcomes from their instructional activities (Todd 2012). Therefore, to establish a balanced understanding of the issue in the context of UK independent preparatory education, this study explores both school librarians’ and teachers’ approaches in the design and use of reading lists. This study defines the concept of the reading list as a pedagogical tool that can be used to scaffold children’s reading selections. A scaffold is a “temporary support” (Mallett 2005, 289) shaped by an expert to structure a child’s learning. In the context of preparatory education in England, the reading list is used to guide pupils’ reading selections for the purposes of furthering their literacy attainment and assisting them in finding materials that meet their interests.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this research was to develop a greater understanding of school librarians’ and teachers’ design and use of reading lists to answer the central research question:

- What is the best way to construct reading lists to maximize their benefit in the school library or classroom?
The research aimed to explore the role of the school librarian in the delivery of teaching and learning and the role of the reading list as a pedagogical tool. This research followed a qualitative approach to identify the motivation, processes, and perceptions of school librarians and teachers in regard to the reading list. In this paper, the literature surrounding the librarian’s role in teaching and learning, reading for pleasure, and literacy attainment is discussed and leads to an identification of the strategies employed by school librarians to promote reading. To understand the complex landscape in which school librarianship and teaching coexist, teachers’ subject knowledge and their use of library services were examined and are reported here. Finally, research into the purposes of reading lists and their content are then reviewed in this paper.

Literature Review

UK Context

In England school library provision is not a statutory requirement, and, as a result, the appointment of a qualified school librarian is not mandated. In the UK 47.7 percent of the school library workforce have no professional qualification in Library and Information Studies (LIS) (Archives and Records Association, and Chartered Institute of Library and Information Professionals 2016). In 2012 only 247 full-time-equivalent librarians worked in state-funded primary schools (for children ages 4–11) in England (Department for Education Workforce Census 2012, cited in Libraries All Parties Parliamentary Group 2014). UK Primary School Library Guidelines (2016) state that the role of a professional librarian is to: “promote enjoyment of, and excitement about, reading” and to “establish skills for independent learning and assist in the delivery of information skills teaching in the school.” Firstly, the guidelines situate the librarian’s role in the reading domain and clearly define the role in relation to children’s reading for pleasure. Secondly, the guidelines formalize the role as one that establishes independent learning and information literacy skills. However, use of the term “assist” rather than “design” or “lead” information literacy instruction could suggest that the librarian’s role is not fully integrated into teaching and learning in primary schools. The Chartered Institute of Library and Information Professionals’ (CILIP) Professional Skills and Knowledge Base (PSKB) self-assessment tool identifies “Literacies and Learning” (n.d., 3) as a key area of librarians’ expertise. However, Cristina S. Judge and David McMenemy have argued that the professional body has made the role of the librarian a “steward of literacy and recreational reading” rather than a “facilitator of learning” (2014, 115) and that to develop a best-practice model, Scottish school libraries must look to the strategic direction of school libraries in the United States.

The UK School Library Association (SLA) position statement asserts that the school librarian should be:

- “a leader and partner with teaching staff in the collaborative design and implementation of information literacy programmes throughout the school
- a leader in creating and developing a climate to promote and support reading for pleasure across the school.” (2016).

This vision for the role of the school librarian is closer to that of the role of a teacher-librarian in an international context. Teacher-librarians (commonly called “school librarians” in the U.S.) are highly qualified professionals who hold a Master’s degree in LIS as well as a qualification in teaching or education (Ballard 2009). For example, in countries such as the U.S. (Todd 2012),
Australia (Hughes 2013) and Taiwan (Lo et al. 2014), there is a greater impetus towards such
dual-qualified school librarians and a mandate towards teacher-librarians/school librarians as
literacy and curriculum leaders.

International Context

The role of the school librarian in teaching and learning and the impact on student achievement
has been a focus of international academic literature. More than twenty-five studies have been
conducted in different states in the U.S., building on the seminal work of Keith Curry Lance et
al. (1992) which:

- clearly established …a strong relationship between the elements of school libraries,
- student access to certified school librarians, and the strength and quality of school library
- programs and their impact on student achievement test scores. (American Association of
- School Librarians National Research Forum 2014, 6–7)

The evidence that a qualified school librarian has a positive impact on student learning points
towards the need for school librarians in England to be professionally qualified as both teachers
and librarians. Additionally, in Mandy Lupton’s qualitative study of Australian head teachers’
perceptions of the role of the school librarian, the participants articulated a clear preference for
the teacher-librarian to be a “teacher first and librarian second” (2016, 52). This finding could
indicate the need for school librarians to have an understanding of instructional techniques if
they want to be recognized as a leader in the school’s teaching and learning culture.

Reading for Pleasure

Reading for pleasure can be understood as a voluntary act of reading; it is motivated by one’s
own desire for satisfaction that is derived from the experience (Cremim 2014a). Research has
identified a link between children’s reading for pleasure and their educational attainment
(Education Standards Research Team 2012). It is of concern that the gap in England between
highest and lowest achieving pupils in reading has widened (National Foundation for
Educational Research 2014). As Cremim noted, there is strong evidence that “the ‘will’ to read
appears to influence the ‘skill’ ” (2014b, 149). Thus, the school librarian’s role in enabling
children to discover interesting materials is vital to helping them succeed.

As outlined in the Primary School Guidelines (2016), reading-promotion strategies and the
development of pupils’ enthusiasm for reading are considered a fundamental part of a UK school
librarian’s role. Furthermore, Christina Clark’s study of approximately 17,000 pupils from 112
UK schools found “a clear link between [higher literacy] attainment and school library usage.
Young people with a reading age above the expected level for their age are twice as likely to be
school library users” (2010, 5). Moreover, of the pupils ages 7–11 who took part in the study,
64.1 percent said that they used the school library because it “has interesting reading materials”
(Clark 2010, 9). Consequently, reading-promotion strategies, which connect children to materials
that meet their interests, are central to the school librarian’s role in teaching and learning. School
librarians use formal evaluation criteria to select materials for school library collections
(Rickman 2010; Bishop 2013) and as such develop considerable subject knowledge (Goodwin
2011), which enables them to facilitate pupils’ reading for pleasure and thereby contribute to
their ongoing literacy development.
The emphasis upon the role of the school librarian in relation to the development of pupils’ literacy is not limited to the UK. In a study of school libraries in New York State, fostering development of students’ literacy was found to be the “most important aspect” of the librarian’s role in the opinion of multiple stakeholders, including head teachers, classroom teachers, and parents (Small, Shanahan, and Stasak 2010, 10). Most importantly, the students themselves “recognized the important role their school librarian plays in stimulating their reading and fostering an appreciation of literature” (Small, Shanahan, and Stasak 2010, 11).

The numerous strategies that are used by school librarians to promote and engage students with reading are detailed in the academic literature; these strategies include:

- facilitating peer recommendation, providing materials in different formats, involving students in the selection process (Small, Shanahan, and Stasak. 2010);
- literature circles, book clubs, challenges, events, displays, literature festivals, author visits (Hughes 2013);
- book talks and reading aloud, reading lists, author visits, competitions, reading weeks (Lo et al. 2014);
- visits to bookshops, subject-reading lists (Lo et al. 2015);
- library week, storytelling, book fairs, technology, reading marathons, and drama activities (Domínguez et al. 2016).

As Lupton noted, the school librarian’s role is “idiosyncratic due to the nature of the school and the individual qualities of the librarian” (2016, 57). Therefore, the strategies librarians employ are adapted for the educational context in which they operate. The diversity of each school cohort will undoubtedly influence the individual practices undertaken to meet the needs of the school community (see Klinger et al. 2009 for an example). Furthermore, Noraida Domínguez et al. (2016) recognized that the strategies librarians use to promote reading appreciation are limited by the availability of resources. It is, therefore, necessary to recognize that the librarian’s role in the delivery of reading for pleasure is highly contextual.

**Teacher’s Subject Knowledge**

Although the research discussed above has identified a relationship between school libraries and literacy development, UK teachers have been found to make “minimal use of library services,” and they are “not therefore in a strong position to recommend texts to young readers” (Cremim 2014b, 148). In fact, only 8.8 percent of primary school teachers surveyed by Christina Clark and Anne Teravainen felt that the lack of a school library or a librarian contributed to fewer children enjoying reading (2015, 62). Teachers’ lack of awareness about the impact of a professional school librarian on children’s motivation for reading is cause for concern, particularly as it may result in the serious “underuse of librarians” (Collins 2014, 49) and the carefully selected resources available in the school library (Collins and Doll 2012).

This issue is further compounded by teachers’ own lack of knowledge of children’s literature. A study of 1,200 teachers in England found that teachers relied heavily on their own childhood reading in their teaching (Cremim et al. 2008). Furthermore, the influence of a “primary canon” could be seen in their selection of “significant” authors such as Roald Dahl (Cremim et al. 2008, 455). In Clark and Teravainen’s UK survey, they asked 2,326 teachers to name one children’s
author that the respondents found valuable in supporting literacy; many identified Roald Dahl, Michael Morpurgo, and J. K. Rowling (2015, 12). The likelihood is that children and parents will be aware of these authors of mass-marketed children’s books, and, thus, further promotion of their works is unnecessary.

Teachers require an understanding of “effective teaching methods” (Goodwin 2011, 45), but as Collins noted, the need to combine this understanding of methods with subject content knowledge “cannot be underestimated” (2014, 36). Furthermore, she argued that teaching of literacy requires knowledge of children’s literature and of how to use “texts in the classroom,” and an understanding of how children develop as readers at home and school (Collins 2014, 36). Clark and Teravainen found that 84.5 percent of teachers embedded the development of pupils’ literacy into their everyday classroom practice but that only 42.4 percent felt that they had specific strategies that “work well” (2015, 17). These findings indicate that school librarians, in the role of literacy leaders, could support teachers’ professional development through sharing knowledge of children’s literature and reader development.

**Reading List Purposes**

Academic research has identified that construction of reading lists forms a part of a school librarian’s reading-promotion strategy (see, for example, Lo et al. 2015). The most-detailed study in the professional literature was conducted by Libby Gorman, a public librarian in North Carolina, who focused on the purpose of summer reading lists. This study found that teachers and school librarians designed summer reading lists for academic reasons as well as to: prevent the decrease in literacy attainment over the summer, encourage reading for pleasure, satisfy parents’ expectations, facilitate independent learning, direct students’ reading, and widen their choices (Gorman 2010). These findings suggest that complex factors are at play in the use of reading lists, and this reality may inform the librarian’s or teacher’s approach in their construction.

In Patrick Lo et al.’s study of school librarians’ educational practices in Hong Kong, Teacher B described her work as an instructional partner, stating: “I have…created subject reading-lists tailor-made for their teaching” (2015, 24). This finding is further supported by Hughes’s study of teacher-librarians’ role in raising literacy attainment in Australian Gold Coast schools where eleven out of twenty-seven participants identified the use of cross-curricular reading lists (2013). Thus, school librarians may not only create reading lists for the purpose of supporting pupils and parents; construction of lists also supports teachers and learning across the curriculum. However, without a clear understanding of school librarians’ approaches in the design of subject-specific reading lists, it is difficult to determine how effectively reading lists support the wider curriculum.

Gorman noted that when collaboration occurred in the design of summer reading lists, it was among a group of teachers or a group of school librarians “rather than between teachers and teacher-librarians” (2010, 54), thus illustrating a lack of professional dialogue. Considering the breadth of librarians’ knowledge of children’s literature and their expertise in collection development (Bang-Jensen 2010; Goodwin 2011), it is concerning that more collaboration between classroom teachers and school librarians does not take place. When collaboration does happen, it has been shown to result in “rich professional dialogue” (Mottram 2014, 121). According to Shelbie D. Witte, Melissa R. Gross, and Don L. Latham, the absence of collaborative opportunities in the training for pre-service teachers and school librarians does not
prepare them for a professional partnership (2015). Patricia Montiel-Overall and Patricia Jones’s survey of 194 elementary teachers found that they perceive collaborative practices “as important to student learning,” yet many did not recognize that “they shared responsibilities with school librarians” (2011, 68). When collaboration occurred, school librarians performed traditional tasks (Montiel-Overall and Jones 2011). Further, teachers lack an understanding of school librarians’ instructional roles (Montiel-Overall and Grimes 2013). However, this lack of collaboration could also be related to a gap in librarians’ knowledge of instructional techniques as the UK LIS curriculum focuses on academic theory rather than teaching skills (Inskip 2015).

**Summer Reading Programs**

Research into the effectiveness of summer reading clubs and programs to prevent the documented decline in reading achievement over the summer vacation has shown mixed results (Dynia et al. 2015). Susan Roman and Carole D. Fiore’s Dominican Study investigated the impact of a summer reading program on students in the third grade (ages 8–9 at the beginning of the study) across eleven sites in the United States. Roman and Fiore found that “students who participated in a public library summer reading program scored higher on reading achievement tests at the beginning of the fourth grade and did not experience summer loss in reading” (2010, 30). Richard L. Allington et al.’s (2010) study examined the effect of a book gifting scheme over three consecutive years; the study subjects were students in seventeen elementary schools in two Florida districts. These researchers found that “easy access to self-selected books for summer reading over successive years does, in fact, limit summer reading setback” (Allington et al. 2010, 422). Further, the type of material self-selected by the students is of interest. Books in the categories of pop culture and series books were more likely to be selected (Allington et al. 2010, 420). Jessica Johnston et al. examined the effect of a three-week summer reading program on thirteen students across grades 2–8 in a parochial city school in the American Midwest. The study involved the use of “explicit instruction through a variety of evidence-based reading fluency and comprehension intervention strategies” (Johnston et al. 2015, 338). The researchers found “significant increases … in reading fluency and comprehension” (Johnston et al. 2015, 346). Thus, the use of explicit strategies to teach reading can be considered important. Anne McGill-Franzen, Natalia Ward, and Maria Cahill’s review of studies into the impact of summer reading programs on student achievement stated that “recreational, pleasure seeking reading should be the focus of guidance offered in summer reading approaches” (McGill-Franzen, Ward, and Cahill 2016, 595). This finding suggests that the purpose of summer reading lists should be to support students’ reading for pleasure. However, in Ya-Ling Lu and Carol Gordon’s study of a new free-choice summer reading program using twelve online annotated reading lists in a U.S. high school, the researchers found a lack of consensus among teachers about the purpose of summer reading, with some believing that reading should be “rigorous and academic” (2008, 40). The conflict between academic rigor in reading and recreational enjoyment has implications for the content of reading lists.

**Reading List Content**

Although lists of “best books” may not be considered reading lists, Gorman (2010) found that teachers and school librarians used them as a method of selecting titles for summer reading lists. Therefore, John D. Beach’s study of two annual best book lists over a thirty-year period is of interest. The study identified a “significant divergence” (Beach 2015, 34) between the books that
were considered “notable” by a panel of ALA librarians and those from which children reported deriving the most enjoyment. Beach (2015) suggested that the books librarians selected for annual lists were books more likely to provide an educational experience, whereas children selected titles that were likely to deliver a satisfying experience relevant to their own lives. This contrast indicates the complexity of the issue of recommended reading material for children.

On the one hand, librarians encourage children to explore a range of authors, genres, and formats so that children develop as confident readers who can transfer their knowledge of the “world in which they live” (Department for Education 2014, 14) to different fictional and informational contexts (Smith 2008). Reading multiple literary forms and styles encourages the development of flexible readers who can adapt to the “complex demands” of 21st-century learning (Smith 2008, 41). On the other hand, librarians must motivate pupils to read for their own pleasure and, thus, librarians direct learners to titles that meet readers’ individual interests. This dual role may sometimes come into conflict, and school librarians may have difficulty reconciling reading-for-pleasure pedagogy with reader-development curriculum.

This issue is not restricted to the librarian’s domain as “teachers have an obligation to ensure that the reading relates to the curriculum and is substantial enough to merit study and analysis” (Dando 2011, 31). Thus, the selection of texts used in the classroom may not be focused on increasing pupils’ motivation for reading but rather on developing their skills in literary analysis.

The diversity of titles on recommended reading lists and the texts selected for the English curriculum gives further cause for debate. Naomi Watkins and Jonathan Ostenson surveyed 339 teachers in a western state in the U.S. and found that teachers experienced “pressure to teach canonical literature” from approved lists and were restricted by “the sets of texts available in the school” (2015, 256). Kierstin H. Thompson (2014) found that teachers were restricted by a lack of opportunity to discuss their subject content. Margaret Mackey et al. found that the texts studied in tenth-grade classrooms in Alberta, Canada, in 1996 and 2006 remained constant, with male authors featuring highly; the researchers also found that “elements of … [an informal] canon are deeply established” (2012, 51). Furthermore, only one-third of titles studied were published in the lifetime of the students (Mackey et al. 2012), and, thus, it is questionable whether young people are studying material that resonates strongly with their experiences as individuals growing up in a multicultural society. In addition, Karen Elizabeth Lafferty found that students were not borrowing “racially diverse literature from their school libraries” (2014, 207), and, thus, they were not independently discovering diverse reading materials outside of the classroom.

Not only the content studied in the classroom lacked diversity but also the format (Mackey et al. 2012). The absence of graphic and digital materials from curriculum content is concerning as today’s learners need to navigate a multimodal digital environment. Heidi Hammond (2012) has argued that graphic formats are well suited to meeting this cognitive task. Further, Karen W. Gavigan’s analysis of school library circulation data from six middle schools in the U.S. found that graphic series titles were popular with students of different genders, ability levels, and socioeconomic background. This finding supports the view that “graphic novels can be used effectively with students with varying learning styles and abilities” (Gavigan 2014, 107).

In addition, Christina Clark’s survey found that “onscreen materials continue to dominate the reading lives of children” (2016, 13). Therefore, the school library’s role in providing “quality digital learning content in K–12 settings is increasingly important” (Newsum 2016, 103). Frank Serafini has argued that readers must be taught to develop new methods of interpretation to
“manage the complexity inherent in multimodal texts” (2010, 101). Yet this instruction may be hindered by the barriers faced by school librarians and teachers when integrating technology, barriers such as a lack of funding for “digital collections” and a “lack of professional development” (Johnston 2011, 171). It is clear that school librarians could collaborate with teachers and promote the use of digital texts; however, this collaboration and use will be dependent upon the availability of resources (Domínguez et al. 2016).

Emerging Issues

Several significant issues have emerged in reviewing the literature relating to the role of the school librarian in teaching and learning. These issues are relevant in the context of exploring design and use of reading lists.

Firstly, school librarians have knowledge of children’s literature developed through their collection-management responsibilities. School librarians implement a range of reading-promotion strategies to support children’s motivation for reading, and these are likely to be shaped by the context in which the librarians operate, but in England school librarians lack a formal qualification in teaching. The PSKB (CILIP n.d., 3) identifies “Literacies and Learning” as an area of professional knowledge; however, the UK LIS curriculum does not focus on developing librarians’ teaching competencies. Therefore, a lack of pedagogical knowledge may limit librarians’ impact on pupils’ literacy attainment.

Secondly, teachers lack knowledge of children’s literature and confidence in the effectiveness of their literacy strategies, but the expertise of librarians is not fully utilized and collaboration is not commonplace.

Thirdly, reading lists are one of the methods of reading promotion used by teachers and librarians. However, titles included in reading lists may be influenced by a literary canon rather than sound pedagogy for reader development and may lack relevance to children’s experiences. A clear need for the curriculum to include a variety of texts including graphic and digital has also emerged. Thus, there is a clear need for qualitative research to be undertaken to understand the approaches both school librarians and teachers use in the construction of reading lists.

Methodology

Participants

As the literature review established that very few state primary schools in England employ school librarians, the scope of this study is limited to independent preparatory schools (fee-paying institutions that prepare students for examination at age eleven). Details about selecting the schools are in the “Data Collection” subsection.

Research Approach and Analysis

Qualitative research emphasizes the study of phenomena from the “insider’s perspective” (Lapan, Quartaroli, and Riomer 2012, 3), and seeks to understand the meanings that individuals place upon the phenomena. Although qualitative research is often considered difficult to define
A qualitative approach was selected for this study as it focused on understanding both the perspectives of and the processes used by school librarians and teachers in their design of reading lists. The research strategy adopted for this study is a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis “is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke 2006, 79). Gorman and Clayton (2005) stated that qualitative research involves a process of pattern seeking. Therefore, thematic analysis is an appropriate research strategy for this study. Braun and Clarke argued that thematic analysis is an accessible strategy for inexperienced researchers and it is a flexible method that is not rooted in a “pre-existing theoretical framework” (Braun and Clark 2006, 81). Yet they also stated that the researchers must clarify their “theoretical position” (Braun and Clarke 2006, 81) as this has implications for the manner in which the data is analyzed.

The researcher for this study, Rebecca Scott, holds an interpretivist belief that reality is socially constructed, and, thus, “meaning” depends upon context (Pickard 2013, 7). The practices of school librarians and teachers are understood by the researcher to be informed by their educational background, the ethos of the school in which they work, and the diverse needs of their cohort. Interpretivist research often uses an inductive approach to data analysis, which is derived largely from the data itself (Gorman and Clayton 2005). However, as this study is an attempt to answer a specific research question (“What is the best way to construct reading lists to maximize their benefit in the library or classroom?”), a “theoretical” approach was adopted. This approach “requires engagement with the literature prior to analysis” (Braun and Clarke 2006, 86) and allows the researcher to code the data for a specific research question.

The thematic analysis identified themes at the semantic level where “themes are identified within the explicit or surface meanings of the data” (Braun and Clarke 2006, 84).

**Data Collection**

The first method of data collection involved criterion sampling, which is a form of purposive sampling, through which the researcher identifies participants who meet a set of criteria (Schensul 2012). The researcher selected participants using three main criteria. Firstly, the distance to potential participants’ schools from the researcher’s home. Secondly, the documentation of an established and successful reading culture in their school’s most recent Independent Schools Inspectorate (ISI) report. Thirdly, the use of reading lists as indicated on the schools’ website. Figure 1 outlines the criterion sampling procedure in more detail.
Because this research was conducted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master’s in LIS degree, the sample included a greater number of school librarians than teachers. The final sample included: one qualified teacher, one dual-qualified teacher-librarian, two qualified librarians, and one unqualified librarian. All five participants in the sample were female. Thus, the gender of the participants in this study could potentially influence the findings. However, as
90 percent of the UK school library workforce are female (Archives and Records Association and CILIP 2016), the researcher believes the gender of the sample reflects the current situation in the sector. Four of the participants’ schools were coeducational, and one was a single-sex boys’ school. The views of school librarians and teachers working in single-sex female schools were, therefore, not investigated. The ages of the pupils ranged from two to thirteen. Table 1 shows an overview of the characteristics of the final participants.

Table 1. Participant overview.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Qualified Librarian</th>
<th>Qualified Teacher</th>
<th>No. of Years in Post</th>
<th>School Location</th>
<th>Year ISI Report Published</th>
<th>Type of Independent School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Librarian A</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Hertfordshire</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>ages 4–13 coeducational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian B</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>ages 3–11 coeducational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>ages 5–13 boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian D</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hertfordshire</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>ages 3–11 coeducational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher E</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Essex</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>ages 2–11 coeducational</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interview questions (see Appendix A) were devised using the themes that the researcher identified through reviewing the academic literature and several examples of reading lists. In addition, the researcher used Lupton’s (2016) study of head teachers’ perceptions of school librarians as a model of open questions to explore participants’ perspectives. The following question was, for example, designed to investigate the participants’ perceptions of the impact of the reading list on pupils’ literacy attainment:

How do you know the reading list is an effective tool?

The researcher discussed the initial draft questions with her dissertation supervisor, an experienced LIS researcher, and following this feedback, the questions were reorganized into two broad categories: perceptions and approaches. One question relating to the participants’ schools’ general literacy curriculum was omitted as it was unlikely to elicit information about the participants’ design and use of reading lists. One question (What makes a good reading list?) was moved to the end of the interview to allow participants a final opportunity to summarize their views.

To practice the interview technique, the researcher conducted one pilot interview of a teacher at the researcher’s place of work. A semi-structured approach was adopted to allow the researcher to respond flexibly to the reading lists presented by the participants during the interview. A semi-structured interview of approximately thirty to forty minute duration was conducted at each interviewee’s place of work. Qualitative interviewing is appropriate for this study as it
“provide[s] an opportunity for detailed investigation of each person’s individual perspective, for in-depth understanding of the personal context within which the research phenomenon is located” (Lewis and Nicholls 2014, 56). To ensure the research was conducted ethically, each participant signed a consent form prior to the interview, and each participant’s identity was protected by use of pseudonyms when the results of the research were reported. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim using Thomas Eri and Joron Pihl’s (2016) adaptation of Per Linell’s (2009) transcription conventions.

A triangulation of methods was used to improve the credibility of the findings. (More details are in the next subsection.) The second method of data collection involved the gathering of preparatory school reading lists. In addition to those given to the researcher by interview participants, forty-two examples from eighteen different schools were identified through an online search and an e-mail request to an online group of preparatory school librarians.

**Framework for Analysis**

The qualitative data collected from the five interviews was thematically analyzed to determine the different approaches used by school librarians and teachers in their design and use of reading lists. The thematic analysis followed the six-step approach advocated by Virginia Braun and Victoria Clarke (2006).

Credibility is considered an essential criterion (Golafshani 2003, 601) for assessing qualitative research; this credibility can be achieved through a “triangulation of techniques” (Pickard 2013, 21). Therefore, the researcher identified four criteria to use for analysis with the reading list sample. The “methods chosen in triangulation… depend on the criterion of the research” (Golafshani 2003, 604); thus, the procedure adopted for this study was analyst-driven in relation to four subthemes to check the “accuracy of the findings” (Creswell 2014, 201). The thematic comparison procedure used to analyze the reading lists for each of the four subthemes is described in Appendix B.

**Limitations**

Due to the nature of this study as a Master’s dissertation and the need to fit within the dissertation timeframe, a small sample of five participants was selected. As semi-structured interviews usually involve a minimum of twelve individuals (Schensul 2012), the small sample of participants in this study limits any ability to generalize the findings of this research. A further limitation of the study has arisen through the researcher’s method of data collection. Participants were selected for the study primarily because their school’s most recent ISI report acknowledged an established and successful reading culture. As two of the reports were conducted in 2011 and one participant was not in her current post at that time, this circumstance limits the usefulness of using the report as a selection tool. The researcher ensured that a useful sample was generated through e-mail conversation with potential participants to confirm that they actively used a reading list as a strategy in their work.

As the scope of this study is set within the context of UK independent preparatory schools, school librarians’ and teachers’ use of reading lists in UK government-funded state primary schools will not be addressed. As previously noted, the employment of school librarians in state primary schools is not commonplace in the UK. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be
generalized to the government-funded state school context. Further, additional limitations of this study relate to the small sample of participants. The exclusion of school librarians and teachers who do not use reading lists, the absence of single-sex girls’ schools from the sample, and the small geographic area studied further limit the ability to generalize this study’s findings. Thus, a broad picture of perceptions cannot be generated. However, this research could allow a useful transferability of findings to similar contexts (Pickard 2013) and present a “rich picture” (Pickard 2013, 21) of the approaches and views of a small sample of UK preparatory school librarians and teachers who construct reading lists as part of their work. The results of the thematic analysis will now be described and analyzed.

Findings

Four key themes were identified through the analyst-driven, semantic-level thematic analysis. These four interrelated themes (content, user, purpose, and format) were frequently coded across the dataset. The researcher identified pertinent subthemes in relation to the research question through the coding, revising, and defining process. The final thematic map is presented in figure 2. Theme definitions are listed in Appendix C.

Figure 2. Thematic map of reading list design.

Table 2 shows the number of times each theme was coded across the dataset. The theme most frequently coded was content with 51 instances, user 48, purpose 43, and format 31. As indicated in table 1, each participant was assigned a letter to identify her (A–E). In addition, a page number from the originating transcript (1–13) is used to present direct quotations. Eri and Pihl’s (2016) adaptation of Linell’s (2009) transcription conventions were used to transcribe the data; the
length of participants’ pauses was presented in parentheses, e.g., a two-second pause is presented as (.2). These transcription conventions were used by the researcher to document participants’ verbal utterances, which indicate their reflective interaction with the questions posed.

Table 2. Thematic Analysis—Frequency of Coding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>No. of instances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONTENT</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patron-driven</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary merit</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual variety</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USER</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-driven</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive scaffold</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil-centered</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readers’ advisory</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discoverability</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalization</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-development curriculum</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of a wider reading-promotion strategy</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMAT</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematic arrangement</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited not exhaustive</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual appeal</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanatory annotation</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Theme 1: Content

The content theme was prevalent across the dataset and involved a multifaceted process of selection through the following methods: patron-driven, literary merit, exclusion, textual variety, and curriculum. Librarian C commented, “You just pick up books from everywhere” (C9), suggesting that a range of methods was used to identify relevant titles. All five participants acknowledged choosing titles on the basis of student use and self-selection; this approach is
understood as patron-driven because the content is identified through users’ behavior (Rubin 2016). For Librarian A, patron-driven selection was perceived as the only method of content selection: “The only reading lists that I do come from the children’s suggestions” (A1). For the other participants, patron-driven selection resulted from an informal monitoring of pupils’ independent choices; it involved “looking” (C8) and “listen[ing]” (B6), comments that could indicate that text selection is responsive to children’s changing interests.

Patron-driven selection coexisted with selection on the basis of literary merit. Texts had to be “good quality” (A8). Teacher E felt pupils “should be reading really good fiction… to extend their vocabulary” (E6), as she felt “that’s what the test is going to be testing” (E11). The necessity of improving pupils’ literacy attainment in preparation for the 11+ assessment may have fostered an attitude of canonical pragmatism in Librarian B who revealed:

> I will put [it on the list] if it’s a classic because (.2) I believe in reading for pleasure, hugely I believe in it. Um, but I also realize that you know if you are sitting your child for some tough exams … you’ve got to be realistic… about why people pick up books sometimes (B7).

The exclusion, or as Teacher E described it, the “culling” (E8) of titles from a reading list was also part of the process. Four of the five participants reported intentionally omitting titles from a reading list. Librarian B explains that “I have to be able to defend why it’s on there” (B6). Librarian C was testing out a title on a list to see if “parents complain” (C11). Concerns were expressed by Librarian A about the appropriateness of texts “because of the… amount of sex” (A8). Titles that were considered to have a high profile were also excluded because “you don’t need to put it on a reading list” (B6). Works by well-known authors such as David Walliams (B6, E9) and series fiction such as Wimpy Kid (C11) were excluded because they were already highly popular with pupils and there was a concern that once pupils start reading popular fiction “they just can’t stop” (E9). These comments may indicate that the reading list is not simply a tool for encouraging reading for pleasure and that the participants considered the wider implications of including certain titles on reading lists.

The textual variety of content was also considered important and was perceived to include “fiction, nonfiction, poetry, variety of styles” (D9). Librarian B repeated three times that the reading list “has to be varied” (B9). However, there was a greater emphasis on a variety of literary genres rather than literary forms. Despite a recognition that a “combination of graphics and writing… [is] a huge, big thing” (B5), Librarian B does not include graphic texts because their inclusion would be a “waste” as “parents are aware of them” (B5). Indeed, 57 percent of the reading lists examined included a variety of genres; in contrast, only 38 percent included variety in both genre and form (see table B-1 in Appendix B). Thus, the content selected for reading lists was limited in terms of form.

Content was also selected on the basis of its relationship to the curriculum and to further students’ understanding of a topic. Librarian C designed a list to “support First World War” studies and selected “books that would (.2) help them (.3) identify with these young men who were dying” (C6). However, selecting content on this basis was rarely considered to be a collaborative process; in fact, for “the bulk of the teachers, I don’t think… the reading lists come into their sphere of knowledge really” (C4) and, therefore, it is unclear how effectively reading lists support the curriculum.
Theme 2: User

Parent-Driven

Two main groups were coded under the user theme: parents and pupils. Lists were most commonly perceived as parent-driven and, therefore, parents’ expectations were a motivation for construction of the lists:

The parents, uh, really value reading lists… here, um, it’s intended to be a list of recommended books. Um, that’s going to give guidance as to the kind of choices that children might make… They’re all very ambitious for the children. (D1).

Librarian C commented that parents “worry a lot about progression” (C1). Thus, the reading list was considered a supportive scaffold for parents by providing “a sort of gateway into something that can be quite frightening” (B1). A reading list was perceived to be a tool for use “outside school” (D4) and “something concrete for them to work on” (C1). Yet Librarian C expressed concerns that parents’ aspirations can lead to an over-reliance on the reading list because they “are just desperate” (C2). This concern suggests that parents need further support to develop effective reading practices at home.

Pupil-Centered

Although the reading list was perceived to be parent-driven, this perception was often balanced by a pupil-centered approach achieved through using “a list of recommendations which the children themselves have prepared” (D3), placing an emphasis on “choice” (A11) and “reading for pleasure” (D7). A subtheme of readers’ advisory was evident as Librarian C stated: “I’m the reading list in the library” (C10). Reader development was a “face-to-face interaction” (A5) because every student is different and “what’s good for one child isn’t necessarily good for another” (A12). Thus, the school librarian conducted readers’ advisory interviews, matching pupils’ “reading ability… with their interests” (A2), and the majority of participants perceived this approach to be more responsive to individual needs. The reading list itself was seen as a discoverability tool enabling children to find texts “they would love but then wouldn’t necessarily pick up on their own” (C8). The most pupil-centered design involved construction of a “personalized list” (B8) to meet their individual needs.

Theme 3: Purpose

A clear purpose for the reading list was considered fundamental: “it has to [be] either for a year group, summer reading list, um, reluctant readers… so that somebody thinks, ‘Yes, this is for me’ ” (B9). The view that lists should be designed for a specific purpose was supported by the thematic checking; 57 percent of lists in the sample were designed for a single year group (see table B-2 in Appendix B). The purpose of the list was regarded as part of a reader-development curriculum. Lists were designed to “broaden” pupils’ reading (D6), develop “breadth in their reading choices” (D1), and encourage pupils’ reading over the summer holiday. They were also considered important in the transition “to secondary school… because it’s when reading changes” (B3). Additionally, the reading list was perceived as contributing to pupils’ personal and social development; it was “about trying to get them to understand their own emotions”
(C7). The prevalence of the purpose theme across the dataset may indicate that reading lists and a reader-development curriculum are closely linked.

Despite the link between the reading list and a reader-development curriculum, the participants did not formally assess the impact of their reading lists. Librarian D recognized that gathering feedback was difficult because the lists were for use beyond the school environment:

> Well, you don’t really hear that the lists are effective. You just, you—they’re handed out by the teacher, perhaps at parents’ evening… um, you don’t get a lot of feedback… there’s no way of course of tracking [use]. If these lists are going to be used outside school, then, then you can’t really monitor quite so effectively. (D4)

The context of the reading list was often viewed as part of a wider reading-promotion strategy. The lists supported “particular event[s]” (D2) like National Poetry Day (D6) or the Summer Reading Challenge (D2). All participants cited examples of other reading-promotion practices that occurred in the library to engage their pupils, such as book clubs (A10) and Carnegie shadowing [an initiative in which students read all of the books shortlisted for a national book award and vote for a winner] (A4). It was clear that the reading list is “just one of the many aids… I don’t see it as being the main method at all” (A5).

**Theme 4: Format**

The themes relating to the format of reading lists were: systematic arrangement, limited not exhaustive, visual appeal, and explanatory annotation. There were two main approaches to the systematic arrangement of the reading list:

1. A differentiated approach in which texts were arranged “in order of difficulty” (C6), a characteristic that was viewed as “extremely important” (B9) in helping parents decide “where the child goes in and… what to move on to” (B1).

2. A thematic approach that was used “to group books in categories” (A2).

Also, participants perceived the number of titles on a reading list to be important. It needed to be limited “not exhaustive” (B5), a “sensible number, not too many” (E7) because otherwise the list may “swamp them” (B5). This perception was confirmed during examination of the list samples with 40 percent of lists having fifty or fewer titles; 29 percent between 51 and 100 titles (see table B-3 in Appendix B).

A need for the reading list to be “illustrated” and “very visual” (D10) in order to be “inviting” (D6) for pupils of the “primary age” (D10) was expressed. Using book “covers” (C2) was seen as one way of achieving this visual appeal. However, only 12 percent of the reading lists analyzed (see table B-4 in Appendix B) incorporated book covers, a finding that suggests that in reality striving for visual appeal is not a common approach, perhaps because illustrated lists are “more expensive to produce” (D6). Thus, the visually appealing list was a desirable ideal.

Finally, the inclusion of explanatory annotation on the list was considered “important… so that the person picking it up can see where you were thinking from” (B9). A reading list with just the name of an author was viewed as “no good” (B5); the list needed the “title… [and] the genre” (B9) to be of benefit to the user. Thus, the list format was closely linked to the user’s needs.
Discussion

List Creation as a Complex Practice

The thematic analysis identified four key themes that shape the construction of reading lists: content, purpose, user, and format. Firstly, the content is selected through a range of methods of focuses: patron-driven, literary merit, exclusion, textual variety, and curriculum. Secondly, the purpose of the list is context-driven; it sits within the wider landscape of a reader-development curriculum and is just one of many practices used by school librarians and teachers to promote reading. Thirdly, the user of the list is fundamental to the design, with the participants balancing a complex juxtaposition of parents’ expectations with the individual needs of their pupils. Finally, the format of the list involves a systematic arrangement, a limited not exhaustive number of titles, ideally an element of visual appeal, and explanatory annotation. These four themes: content, purpose, user, and format are interdependent and interrelated. To illustrate, the purpose of a list is closely linked to the needs of the user; the content is selected to meet both the user’s needs and the purpose. The format of the list will be highly dependent on the purpose to which it will be put and the user’s needs. The findings summarized above indicate that the construction of a reading list is a complex practice. The discussion will now address the findings in relation to the school librarian’s role in teaching and learning, user needs, text formats, and the wider curriculum and collaboration.

Librarian’s Role in Teaching and Learning

The literature review established that the school librarian’s role in teaching and learning was twofold: to promote reading and to develop pupils’ information literacy (SLA 2016). The development of pupils’ reading was found to be highly valued by a range of stakeholders, including pupils and their parents (Small, Shanahan, and Stasak 2010). In this study the high frequency of coded instances relating to a reader-development curriculum suggest that reading list use is an integral part of reading promotion and, therefore, of teaching and learning. Furthermore, the high frequency of coded instances relating to a wider reading-promotion strategy suggests that the participants perceived the reading list as just one practice of many. School librarians’ use of a multitude of strategies to engage pupils with reading was well documented in the academic literature (Small, Shanahan, and Stasak 2010; Hughes 2013; Lo et al. 2014; Lo et al. 2015; Dominguez et al. 2016).

The participants described the purpose of reading lists in the broad framework of a reader-development curriculum. Reading lists were constructed for a range of purposes and a number of these were found in Gorman’s (2010) study of summer reading lists: for example, broadening students’ reading choices. Despite a close link to reader development and, therefore, learning, the participants struggled to articulate how the reading list resulted in learning outcomes and how these might be measured. Librarian A incorporated a feedback form in her pupil-centered, patron-driven summer reading list; as a result, “You could see which ones they’d read and how well they’d liked them” (A4). But beyond this, she was “not sure” how the use of a list could be monitored “other than just talking to the children” (A5). Even for Librarian B, a qualified teacher and librarian, the learning outcome of using the reading list was measured through an impromptu “chat to the children” (B4) rather than through formal assessment. This comment can, in part, be understood through the operational context; her role was a part-time “job share” (B4). Therefore,
it is likely that the time available to develop pedagogical practices in addition to managing the collection is limited.

More importantly, participants’ comments indicate the absence of a learning outcome-driven approach to the design of reading lists and an uncertainty about the impact of the reading list as a pedagogical tool. As Todd noted in his study of the instructional role of school librarians, the issue surrounding the measurement of learning outcomes is one of “precision and specificity” (2012, 22). To evaluate the impact of reading lists on pupils’ reading, precise learning objectives and a clear assessment strategy are required. The school librarian’s role in teaching and learning is to be a “leader” in reading for pleasure (SLA 2016), and a vital part of this leadership is demonstrating to stakeholders which strategies are the most effective for each desired learning outcome. Todd advocates that school librarians implement “Evidence of Practice” where “what has changed for learners as a result of inputs, interventions, activities” is “systematically measured” (2009, 89). This evidence-based approach to reading list compilation and design would increase the likelihood that a list’s use for pupils’ reader development is maximized.

The school librarian’s role in teaching and learning may be impeded by a lack of formal standards in the UK (Judge and McMenemy 2014); however, school librarians need to develop an understanding of assessment for learning if they wish to fully embody the role of literacy leader. The National Curriculum identifies clear learning-centered reader-development aims for “Language and Literacy” in England (Department for Education 2014, 10); these aims relate to comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and literature appreciation. The use of the National Curriculum offers the potential to shape a more outcome-driven reader-development curriculum. However, the LIS curriculum focuses on academic theory rather than pedagogy (Inskip 2015). Therefore, achieving a more outcome-driven reader-development curriculum within the library and classrooms would require librarians to collaborate with teachers to develop broad aims into learning objectives that lead to pupil progression. Alternatively, school librarians and pre-service librarians could undertake further training to develop their teaching competencies as has been the established practice in the international context (Hughes 2013; Lo et al. 2014).

However, the readers’ advisory subtheme reveals a perception that a pupil-centered approach to reader development is in fact a face-to-face interaction. This informative exchange, which increases the librarian’s knowledge of the pupils’ needs with each intervention, was described by Librarian B:

It’s just building up a—for me an idea of what that reader is. But for them introducing them to books that maybe they wouldn’t normally pick off the shelves. So I do that… with the children, it tends to be much more verbal, much more putting the book in their hands, getting them look at it. Um, allowing them to reject it but always asking them for a reason why, um, when they reject it (B2).

The immediacy of a face-to-face interaction, which takes place in the library with the collection accessible, allows dynamic responses to pupils’ needs. Because the reading list is a static document, revised periodically, it cannot offer the same level of flexibility in response to pupils’ evolving interests. Ruth V. Small, Kathryn A. Shanahan, and Megan Stasak found in their ethnographic study of two school librarians that these one-to-one conversations “helped students with their reading choices” (2010, 12) and by reading the texts “most appropriate for them,” the pupils experienced improved confidence in their reading ability. Therefore, if librarians believe that these readers’ advisory informative exchanges are a more-effective method of reader development than is the reading list, documenting evidence of the effectiveness of this
individualized approach is advisable. Librarians can then effectively communicate the effectiveness to parents and other stakeholders. The academic literature identified the need for effective communication between the school library and parents (Sakr, Nabhani, and Osta 2009; Fletcher, Greenwood, and Parkhill 2010; Domínguez et al. 2016). As Teacher E explained, parents “haven’t got the knowledge or the expertise that we have” (E3). Consequently, increasing both parents’ knowledge and their confidence through a range of strategies may reduce their reliance on reading lists. Librarian A recognized the need for improved communication because there are “so many good books out there now. They [parents] just need to know about them” (A12). Thus, the role of the school librarian involves bridging the gap between reading practices at home and at school so that the needs of stakeholders are met.

**User Needs**

The user theme highlighted a duality in reading list design as the participants managed a complex interplay between parents’ expectations and the needs of pupils. The reading list was perceived as parent-driven, and this finding is unsurprising because, in the context of independent preparatory education, parents are fee-paying customers; the school is both an educational establishment and a business. The value parents attached to the list, perhaps because it is “concrete” (C1) and something that is easy to “request” (E7), was a catalyst for its construction. As parental involvement in pupils’ learning is linked to attainment (Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack 2007), the importance of including parents in the reading process cannot be underestimated. Participants recognized that the reading list was “one way of encouraging a child to read more widely” but not necessarily the “preferred way… It depends on the list” (D5). Thus, the participants used their expertise to develop reading lists that would reconcile the needs of these two—at times oppositional—user groups.

On the one hand, the use of patron-driven selection ensures that the choices and the changing interests of children are taken into account. Librarian A’s involvement of pupils in selection illustrates a method of actively engaging pupils in the learning process. This active participation is considered empowering for students as it makes them agents “in the process of reading” (Domínguez et al. 2016, 238). This approach may increase pupils’ motivation to use the reading list to find materials that meet their interests, and, therefore, the list supports a reading-for-pleasure pedagogy. Furthermore, including pupils in the process of creating a reading list ensures that the titles themselves have a relevance to children’s own lives. In using patron-driven selection, the concern expressed by Beach (2015) that librarians focus too heavily on texts that provide an educational experience is avoided. On the other hand, the emphasis placed on literary merit or “good fiction” (E6) and the inclusion of canonical titles is likely to satisfy parents’ expectations of an “academic approach” (D2). Inclusion of “good fiction” also addresses literacy-attainment requirements, principally in regard to vocabulary acquisition, which is central to pupils’ preparation for the 11+ assessment.

This duality of design can also be viewed in the format theme. The use of a differentiated approach to organizing the content of reading lists was a way of enabling parents to take on the role of “skillful practitioners” (Mallett 2005, 288) and allow them to scaffold the reader-development process for their child. Parents benefit from greater participation in the reading process, and this participation is a key factor is creating a positive experience for children (Fletcher, Greenwood, and Parkhill 2010). Additionally, explanatory annotations communicate to parents how best to use the reading list and to situate it in a wider context. The use of a
differentiated design increased the possibility that the reading list would meet the needs of the pupils because the content was organized for different levels of ability. This differentiation is interesting in light of Small, Shanahan, and Stasak’s finding that “librarians seek ways to provide appropriate resources but do not typically design programs and services to meet the needs of students with special needs” (2010, 26). The differentiated approach subtheme indicates that participants did design reading lists with a range of students’ needs in mind. Further, participants recognized the needs of pupils as evidenced by participants’ desire for the format of the reading list to have visual appeal and be limited not exhaustive. Participants expressed their understanding that “the name of a book on a page says so little” (C2) and, therefore, a “long list of titles” (D5) alone was not likely to be engaging.

The exclusion of the most-popular titles may at first appear contrary to a reading-for-pleasure pedagogy, which links literacy attainment to pupils’ motivation for reading (Education Standards Research Team 2012). However, the participants’ emphasis on “choice” (D2), “fun” (E11), and an understanding that pupils are incentivized by “seeing their friends reading something and enjoying it” (C2) suggests that participants are familiar with a reading-for-pleasure pedagogy. Moreover, the reading list is unlikely to be a useful scaffold if it contains only the most-popular titles that children would choose independently. The role of the list is to be a “gateway” (B1) into the world of children’s literature. To fulfil the purpose of a reader-development curriculum, the reading list must include content that will extend, broaden, and diversify children’s reading. Thus, the participants perceived that the role of the reading list was to support pupils’ reading-for-pleasure needs through enabling the discoverability of unknown authors, titles, and genres.

Text Formats

The textual variety subtheme revealed that reading list content had a greater emphasis on variety in terms of literary genre and not literary form. This observation clearly relates to Mackey et al.’s (2012) finding that the texts selected for study in English Language Arts classrooms were limited. If children do not read beyond the traditional literary mediums in the classroom and they are not discovering diverse formats through librarian-curated reading lists, then they will be ill equipped to “cope in times of rapid literacy change” (Smith 2008). Although participants were aware of the importance of a variety of content for young readers, this awareness did not necessarily lead to inclusion of diverse formats in the reading lists. One participant clearly held a belief that parents were aware of graphic texts and comics; consequently, this awareness removed a need for including graphic texts and comics in the list. However, awareness does not necessarily mean that parents are confident in selecting graphic texts for their children. As graphic formats are often seen as controversial (Gibson 2008), their inclusion on a reading list can add credence to them as legitimate and valuable media for children’s reading. Including works in graphic formats in educator-sanctioned lists would help validate pupils’ choices and contribute to their self-perception as good readers. As positive attitudes towards reading are linked to “higher reading scores” (Clark 2016, 31), this self-perception of being good readers is highly important.

Furthermore, the school librarian’s role in teaching and learning is “the development of students who can learn and function in a rich, complex, and increasingly digital information environments” (Todd 2012, 26). Thus, it is important that digital texts, in addition to graphic texts, are incorporated into reading lists. Natalia Kucirkova and Karen Littleton identified that parents want help to find and “advice about interactive e-books” (2016, 5). If the reading list is
going to meet parents’ needs, then digital texts should undoubtedly be included. It is unclear if
digital texts are addressed in the wider reading-promotion strategies of the participants as
exploration of wider reading-promotion strategies was beyond the scope of this study. However,
as none of the participants raised the issue of digital content and none of the reading lists
analyzed included digital text types, currently the issue appears not be of central importance to
the participants. School libraries should be providing quality digital content for learning
(Newsum 2016). If pupils are to be effective 21st-century learners who can adapt their reading to
multiple formats and platforms, and succeed in the information era, then the issue of digital texts
should be addressed.

Finally, in relation to the cultural diversity of curriculum content, which received considerable
attention in the academic literature (Mackey et al. 2012; Thompson 2014; Watkins and Ostenson
2015), and the issue of pupils not self-selecting diverse materials from school libraries (Lafferty
2014), it is disappointing that the subtheme of text selection on the basis of diversity was not
identified. Librarian C felt that “our concept of what is foreign gets less the more we read about
others” (C10), but this perception did not reach a level of prevalence across the dataset. Further,
this issue may have been at the forefront of her mind because of the interview’s timing
coinciding with the UK’s referendum to leave the European Union; for example, she discussed
an online conversation with another professional looking for “books that will help children
understand Europe” (C10). Thus, her view may have been shaped by the wider political context.
It is a statutory requirement that pupils’ reading should include books from “other cultures and
traditions” (Department for Education 2014, 43) as their inclusion allows learners to explore
different social experiences (Lafferty 2014). Therefore, the inclusion of culturally diverse
materials on reading lists is vital to ensure that children explore a range of viewpoints from
across cultures and social groups.

Wider Curriculum and Collaboration

The curriculum content subtheme indicated that participants selected content to support students’
learning across the wider curriculum. Three participants commented that they created subject-
specific reading lists, citing “history” (C5, D9, E2) as an example. The CILIP Guidelines for
secondary school libraries advise that librarians “should work with teachers to support reading
around their subject for wider interest, by, for example, creating subject-linked reading lists”
(Shaper 2014, 64). Also, teachers lack knowledge of contemporary literature for children and this
knowledge is necessary for effective teaching (Cremim et al. 2008; Clark and Teravainen 2015).
Reading lists were considered a “professional support for the teaching staff” (D2) by one
participant, but the overall design of reading lists was parent-driven and pupil-centered rather
than focused on meeting teachers’ needs. The findings established that the construction of
subject-specific lists was viewed as being in the school librarian’s domain and that the
construction did not involve a collaborative approach. This finding may be a result of contextual
factors as Librarian D explained, “The class’s teacher doesn’t often accompany them to the
library” (D9). A school’s culture and time constraints have been found to limit collaborative
practices between librarians and teachers (Collins and Doll 2012; Montiel-Overall and Grimes
2013). Additionally, Librarian D recognized that having “closer contact” with teaching staff
results in support that is “more relevant” to the teachers’ needs (D9). Thus, the absence of a
collaborative approach may indeed limit how effectively reading lists can be designed to meet
pupils’ and teachers’ curriculum needs. For instance, lack of access to curriculum lesson plans
and learning outcomes may reduce the likelihood that librarians will select relevant content for
subject-specific reading lists. Consequently, the benefit to pupils of a subject-based reading list is not maximized.

A further issue addressed in the academic literature relating to collaboration is teachers’ perceptions of librarians’ responsibilities, which teachers associate with resource gathering rather than “teaching processes” (Montiel-Overall and Jones 2011, 69). The reading list is a traditional pedagogical tool. The selection of content for reading lists is an area of school librarians’ expertise developed through collection-development responsibilities. For example, the assessment of users’ needs, the evaluation of resources, and the use of a range of methods to select materials and meet curriculum requirements are all processes in the collection-development cycle (Bishop 2013). Thus, creation of a reading list is closely related to the collection-development responsibilities of school librarians and should fit within teachers’ existing perception of librarians’ responsibilities. Collaboration with teachers on creating and designing reading lists offers the potential for an effective professional dialogue and could be a stepping-stone to further collaborative efforts. For example, if librarians demonstrate an understanding of pedagogy and learning outcomes during collaboration on reading lists, this demonstration could begin to alter teachers’ perceptions of librarians’ teaching and learning responsibilities. Further, collaboration on reading lists would ensure that the content selected for the reading list effectively supports the needs of the wider curriculum.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Four interrelated and interdependent themes were identified through the thematic analysis: content, user, purpose, and format. Through the discussion, a number of issues have been identified.

Firstly, the purpose of the reading list was considered a strategy for reader development; however, the impact of the reading list on pupil learning was not formally assessed by the creators of the lists. Therefore, it is recommended that an assessment strategy be developed to measure how effectively using a reading list supports pupils’ reader development. The evidence collected from such a strategy could be used to improve school librarians’ and teachers’ practice and be communicated to stakeholders.

Secondly, the user theme identified a duality in design; parents’ expectations were a catalyst for construction of reading lists, and these expectations were balanced through list creators’ taking a pupil-centered approach. However, parents’ over-reliance on the lists indicates a need for further support. School librarians could increase the level of communication with parents, improve support available to them, and reduce their reliance on reading lists. By taking these actions, educators, including school librarians, could help parents develop a range of reading strategies to use with their children and thereby encourage pupils’ positive attitude to reading.

Thirdly, the content of reading lists was found to be restricted in terms of format, a circumstance that may not support pupils’ learning needs. School librarians could select graphic and digital text formats and culturally diverse titles to include on reading lists. These selections would support pupils’ learning needs in a fast-changing multimodal environment. In addition, culturally diverse titles would ensure that pupils read texts that reflect a wide range of viewpoints from across society.
Fourthly, construction of reading lists was not a collaborative process, and thus effectiveness of the lists in supporting the wider curriculum may be limited. School librarians could use construction of subject-based reading lists as an opportunity to begin to develop collaborative practices with teaching staff. First, collaboration on a reading list could lead to future collaborative opportunities; second, reading lists constructed using formal lesson plans and learning outcomes would maximize the benefit to pupils of wider reading across the curriculum; third, the collaboration would support the development of teachers’ knowledge of literature for children and thereby improve their practice.

This research has built on Gorman’s (2010) North Carolina-based study of the purposes of summer reading lists. This study has established a particularized picture of school librarians’ and teachers’ design and use of reading lists in the context of preparatory education in England. Through a thematic analysis, school librarians’ and teachers’ perceptions and approaches were analyzed, and four interrelated and interdependent themes were identified. Therefore, this study has contributed to a greater knowledge of school librarians’ practice in this area in which limited research had previously been conducted. The findings will be of interest to pre-service and in-service school librarians, teachers, and public librarians working in reader-development and readers’ advisory roles.

As this small-scale study was qualitative in nature, it is not possible to generalize the findings to a wider population. Therefore, the above recommendations are suggested for implementation in sufficiently similar UK preparatory school library contexts. To conclude, the interrelatedness and interdependence of the themes as well as the issues outlined above demonstrate that constructing reading lists is a complex practice. In this study, school librarians and teachers adopted a pragmatic, balanced approach in the design of reading lists to meet pupils’ reading-for-pleasure and literacy-attainment needs.

Future Research

This study has focused on the perspectives of a small sample of school librarians and teachers employed in the UK independent preparatory school sector. Future research could explore how reading lists are designed and used in the state schools or an international context. Additionally, future research could focus on the pupils’ and parents’ views of reading lists, how they are used in the home environment, and their impact upon pupils’ motivation for reading and literacy attainment.

Works Cited


A Guided Reader to Early Years and Primary English: Creativity, Principles and Practice. London: Routledge.


Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1) Introductory and Perceptions

How long have you been using reading lists at this school?
What do you understand by the term “reading list”?
What is the role of the reading list at your school?
What are the different reasons that prompt you to create a reading list?
How do you know the reading list is an effective tool?
How does the reading list support you in your role as school librarian? Support teachers? Support pupils?

2) Approaches

Can you show me an example of a reading list you created recently?
What was the motivation for creating this list?
Can you describe the process of construction?
How do you select which texts to include? [Researcher identifies a text on the list] Why did you select this title?
How do you decide how to organize the titles on the list?
How is the reading list used in the library or classroom? How is it accessed?

3) Close

What makes a good reading list?
Appendix B: Thematic Comparison to Reading List Samples

After the thematic map had been produced, four criteria were identified for triangulation with the sample of forty-two reading lists collected as described in the “Data Collection” subsection:

1. Textual variety
2. Purpose
3. Limited not exhaustive
4. Visual appeal

To check the credibility of the themes, a question was set by the researcher to check each theme against the samples. Tables B-1 through B-4 present the data resulting from this procedure. Each question is presented (A–D), and the procedure used to check is described.

Reading List Content—Textual Variety

Question A: Do the reading lists in the preparatory school sample contain a variety of texts in both genre and form?

Procedure: The researcher examined the titles on each of the lists, highlighting different titles in different genres and formats, e.g. graphic novels in yellow, poetry in pink, and then recorded on the spreadsheet the different types of variety. The results of the examination are summarized in table B-1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variety type</th>
<th>Number of lists</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literary genre</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary genre and literary form</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single form, e.g., poetry</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading List Purpose—Year Group

Question B: How many year groups are specified as the audience on the reading lists?

Procedure: The researcher examined the headings, subheadings, and file names of the reading lists and recorded on the spreadsheet the target audience, i.e., the number of year groups. The results are summarized in table B-2.
Table B-2. Reading list purpose—Year group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of year groups specified as audience</th>
<th>Number of lists</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading List Format—Limited Not Exhaustive

**Question C:** How many titles are selected for inclusion on the reading list?

Procedure: The researcher counted the number of items on each list twice and then recorded this number on the spreadsheet. Next, using the sort function, the researcher reorganized the data from smallest to largest and counted the number of lists within the categories listed on table B-3 below.

Table B-3. Reading list format—Limited not exhaustive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of titles selected</th>
<th>Number of lists</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 – 50</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - 100</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 - 150</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151 - 200</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201+</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading List Format—Visual Appeal

**Question D:** How many reading lists in the sample included book covers in their design?

Procedure: The researcher examined the reading lists for their visual content and recorded on the spreadsheet the level of book cover use. The researcher then totaled the number of reading lists using no covers, some covers, or full use of covers to illustrate each title; see table B4.
### Table B-4. Reading list format—Visual appeal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of reading lists</th>
<th>Number of lists</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No use of book covers</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some use of book covers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full use of book covers to illustrate each title</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix C: Theme Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes and Subthemes</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONTENT</td>
<td>The content theme refers to the texts selected for inclusion on the reading list. It was a multifaceted theme involving five subthemes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patron-driven</td>
<td>The selection of texts based on a formal pupil suggestion process or through an ongoing monitoring of their independent choices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary merit</td>
<td>The selection of texts based on their literary merit in order to further pupils’ literacy attainment. This selection included a process of canonical pragmatism with texts selected on the basis that students needed to prepare for the 11+ assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exclusion</td>
<td>The process of selection also involved the exclusion of content from the reading list for a variety of reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual variety</td>
<td>The selection of texts to ensure a broad variety of genres and formats was included on the reading list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>The selection of texts to support the wider curriculum and to further students’ understanding of a topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USER</td>
<td>The user theme refers to the user group and associated needs for which the reading list was originally designed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-driven</td>
<td>Parents’ expectations (of pupils, teachers, and school librarians) and the value parents attached to the reading list was a key purpose driving its design.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive scaffold</td>
<td>The reading list was considered a supportive scaffold for parents providing guidance on appropriate reading materials to further their child’s progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil-Centered</td>
<td>A reading list constructed with pupils’ needs as the central principle and a belief that choice is a key factor in the process of reading for pleasure. A perception was evident that every student is different and thus a reading list cannot replace the day-to-day reader-development practices undertaken to meet their needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readers’ advisory</td>
<td>During one-to-one, face-to-face interactions with pupils, school librarians’ guide pupils’ reading selections through a process of listening and questioning in order to suggest materials that may meet their individual interests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discoverability</td>
<td>The process of making less well known texts discoverable for pupils by including them on a reading list.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalization</td>
<td>The construction of a list for an individual pupil to meet his or her interests and learning needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE</td>
<td>The purpose theme refers to the perception that reading lists must be designed for a specific purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-development curriculum</td>
<td>The reading list is constructed to meet reader-development aims such as broadening students’ choices, widening their vocabulary etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of a wider reading-promotion strategy</td>
<td>The reading list was one practice of many and thus forms part of a wider reading-promotion strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMAT</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systematic arrangement</td>
<td>The process of systematically arranging texts by difficulty level or by grouping them thematically.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited not exhaustive</td>
<td>The perception that the number of titles on a reading list should be limited to a manageable number in order to be usable for pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual appeal</td>
<td>The belief that the reading list should be visually appealing in order to engage pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanatory annotation</td>
<td>The use of annotation to explain how the list was designed, how it is intended to be used, or to offer further information for the user.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cite This Article


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