

# **School and Public Library Relationships: Essential Ingredients in Implementing Educational Reforms and Improving Student Learning**

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Printed with permission from the U.S. Department of Education. This manuscript was commissioned as part of a national study, Assessment of the Role of S and ultimately provide youth better access to resources in their quests for information, knowledge, and learning. The work is based on the premise that cooperative relationships





## **1950s and 1960s**

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## Educational Changes

Started in the late 1980s by President Bush and the governors, the most recent initiative began with the statement of the National Education Goals and has focused on national standards, testing, and more effective models of schooling. The goals were implemented by federal law in March 1994 as the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. A separate paper reviewing educational reform efforts and their implications for school library media centers has been completed by Hartzell (1998) as part of the current ED project. Preschoolers' needs and the relationship with public library services has been addressed by Herb and Willoughby-Herb (1998) in another ED-commissioned paper. An emphasis on meeting the needs of preschoolers, along with their parents and caretakers, has been extended through cooperative projects between Head Start programs and public libraries. Another initiative by President Clinton, Reading in Infancy, calls for "every community to come together using its local library in partnership with health providers . . . to ensure that every child under age five is read to regularly by the year 2000" (ALA Washington Office 1997). Preparing preschoolers for school is an essential responsibility of both public libraries and schools and is best accomplished cooperatively.

These educational trends influence the roles of both school libraries and public libraries. For example, the use of literature in educational programs (both in reading programs—the whole language approach—and across curriculum areas—especially social studies) has increased the need for expertise in children's literature (through well-qualified children's and school librarians), and for rich fiction collections in libraries. Computer-assisted instruction and learning, as well as computer-based information databases such as Infotrac and CD-ROM encyclopedias, have revitalized the use of both the public, community library and the school library for better access to these resources and as an introduction to information literacy skills for students.

The U.S. ED has responded in several ways: providing funding in 1993 to support training institutes for school and public libraries on ways to implement the National Education Goals; the expansion of efforts to collect data on library services for youth through public libraries and school library media centers; and the current assessment of roles project.

It is still not clear if the national educational initiatives and their extensions to the state and local levels clearly recognize the importance of both school and public libraries in these efforts. For example, the recent initiative by President Clinton's administration, the America Reads Challenge, has as its goal to ensure that all third graders can read at a nationally tested standard with remedies (remedial reading teachers and extensive individual tutoring through volunteers) for those who can not. This initiative, however, does not sufficiently address the inadequate school library media centers and lack of professional staffing in many schools, the insufficient and aging school library book collections, and the lack of well-trained teachers and librarians who could initiate techniques to encourage reading and learning. Access to both books and librarians are essential if youth are to develop both information-seeking and reading skills. According to a recent ALA Washington Office Report (1997, 6), ALA has made recommendations to "include explicit references to libraries and the inclusion of materials as an eligible use of funds for reading programs," so that "both school and public libraries could apply for grants" within the America Reads Challenge reading initiative.

## **Libraries and Youth Services**

The work for, during, and after the 1991 White House Conference on Libraries and Information Services resulted in the proposed Youth Omnibus Act: The Partnership with Libraries for Youth, which is intended to invigorate library and information services for student learning and literacy through programs aimed at school library media centers and public libraries through a combination of demonstration programs and school and public library partnerships that emphasize the essential role of libraries in promoting resource-based learning and instructional activities, parent/family education projects for early childhood services, intergenerational demonstration programs for latchkey children and young adolescents, and outreach services for youth at risk.

This proposed act contains a philosophy of cooperation between school and public libraries, recommending programs planned and provided by both types of libraries to provide “comprehensive library services to children and young adults,” including networks and collaboration with helpful organizations, such as the American Association of Retired Persons,









In 1994, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was reauthorized. Several aspects pertinent to this paper include Title I-B, Education for the Disadvantaged and the Even Start program (an intergenerational initiative offering adult basic education and parent/child cooperative learning projects); Title III, Technology for Education, which could include partnerships between schools and public libraries; and Title VI, Innovative Education Program Strategies, which gives states grants for which school libraries may be eligible.

In addition, the Library Services and Technology Act (LSTA, replacing LSCA) authorized in 1997 is still the major federal grant program for libraries. According to ALA's Washington Office, through LSTA, states and local public libraries can develop innovative projects in the areas of reading and technological literacy. Public libraries can build partnerships with public schools and create outreach programs through organizations such as Head Start programs and daycare centers (ALA Washington 1997).

As Mathews pointed out in *Kids Need Libraries*, "Present library resources, staffing, and facilities are not satisfactory to do the job"(1990). Since the heyday of well-funded libraries and requirements for certified persons in school libraries (1960s and 1970s), there have been cutbacks and diminished services with the following results: schools spend fewer real dollars per student, when adjusted for inflation, now than in those years; there is more shared staffing between two or more elementary schools; and many public schools do not have a fully qualified media specialist.

Clearly, many communities are not providing adequate library services to youth whether one judges collections, programs, or staffing. This may be the most telling reason why there are not more cooperative and collaborative services, programs, and planning between schools and public libraries. It is important to understand these facts in this examination of the relationships of school and public library services.

## Roles and Goals: Unique and Complementary

Several leaders in the field have tried to make a case for the unique roles of school library media specialists contrasted to those of public youth librarians. For example, Julie Cummins, Coordinator of Children's Services at the New York Public Library, is quoted in a 1992 editorial: "This muddling of the separate missions of public libraries and public schools does not prove to be the wisest use of the taxpayers' dollars" (Gerhardt 1992, 4). Thea Jones, representing the Maryland Educational Media Organization, spoke to this issue in schools: "The goals of school-library media programs are different from the goals of public libraries" (Viadero 1992, 20).

Yet another view was offered in an earlier publication by Philip Baker (1977), in which Augusta Baker, former Coordinator of the New York Public Library, argues that the artificial lines between what is considered enjoyment and culture (the main role of the public library in some people's minds) and what is learning and instruction (the school library's responsibility) should be eliminated.

A review of these espoused unique goals will be briefly presented, and then a list of complementary roles and goals will be identified.

## School Library Media Centers

Woolard (1980, 180) identified the role of the school library media center as one that “supports and furthers the purposes formulated by the school or district of which it is an integral part, and its quality is judged by its effectiveness in achieving program purposes.”

School library media guidelines have been important to the development of roles and goals of school libraries. In the 1988 *Information Power* guidelines, AASL proposed three roles for the library media specialist: information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant (planning with teachers and involvement with school curriculum). The guidelines also spelled out that “the mission of the library media program is to ensure that students and staff are effective users of ideas and information.” (1) The mission is the same in the 1998 revision of *Information Power*, but the three roles have been expanded to four with the addition of the program administrator.

In 1995 the AASL board of directors adopted a long range plan, which included:

- x distinct, but complementary roles of the library media specialist as information specialist, teacher, and instructional consultant; and
- x students are provided instruction, integrated into the curriculum, in the skills needed to identify an information need, find, evaluate and organize the information, and use the information effectively.

AASL (1991) also produced a position paper with specific suggestions on how library media programs will contribute to each of the National Education Goals. Yet there were no references to public libraries in these statements, goals, and vision for the future.

According to Haycock (1990), the school library media center is part of the instructional system: “To teach the student how to learn on his/her own, how to locate, analyze and evaluate information . . . helps develop critical thinking in the pupil, especially by introducing young people to various information resources and libraries” (33). Jones has supplemented this by suggesting that “the goal of library media programs is to teach children to become information-literate” (Viadero 1992, 20).

In distinguishing school library media specialists’ responsibilities from those of public youth librarians, Mathews (1990) suggests the following as more common for those working in schools:

- x collaborate with classroom teachers to design learning activities;
- x instruct children and young adults in the use of computers and other technologies;
- x encourage and assist teachers in developing resource-based learning experiences;
- x provide developmentally appropriate resources for children and young adults;
- x initiate and coordinate with teachers schoolwide projects that help students sharpen reading and word skills; and
- x sponsor schoolwide initiatives in which everyone in school reads a book of choice for enjoyment.

Haycock’s (1990) delineation is also useful:

While school and public libraries are educational institutions with similar aims and objectives in a broad sense, their specific purposes, approaches, and methods of operation are quite different. [There is] a basic lack of understanding as to what the role and function of the public library and the school resource center are and how they differ. The public library's primary role is to facilitate the informal self-education of the individual from the preschooler to the senior citizen. [Services are provided which are] . . . informational, . . . of a research nature, . . . recreational, cultural. The school resource center . . . is designed as an integral part of the instructional system. [School media specialists] plan and develop curricula with teachers and teach units of study co-operatively as a team teacher. [They provide] leadership in in-service programs for teaching colleagues [and they] facilitate the teaching/learning process. (34)

## Public Libraries—General Roles

In general, the public library has been viewed as serving the informational, cultural, educational, and recreational needs of the entire community. Woolard (1980) pointed out a difference that is often noted: the public library is primarily concerned with providing the needs of the student as an individual and as a member of the community, and gives the student experience in using a facility that will be a lifelong resource. Dwyer (1989) points out that it is the function of the public library to:

- x serve the community as a general center of reliable information;
- x provide encouragement and opportunity for children, young people, men, and women to educate themselves continuously; and
- x promote, through guidance and stimulation, an enlightened citizenship and enriched personal lives.

However, new roles for the public library have been added throughout the 1980s and 1990s. For example, Avner (1989) speaks of the home schoolers as a “forgotten clientele,” although this situation has certainly changed, as evidenced by the articles and books on the topic. Avner suggests that because of the many home-re rvid, ne aee

- x Provide safe, welcoming places for children and young adults to gather with friends to enjoy library resources or to be alone to pursue personal interests.

## Public Libraries—Educational Role

An educational role for the public library has always existed, even in the early beginnings of the public library movement, as noted earlier in the historical overview of this paper. Since the 1980s, leaders have called for an expanded educational role for public libraries, based on the rationale of changing needs and trends in education and in local communities. Some of these needs and trends, along with pertinent studies of the issues, will be briefly discussed below.

One study that provides evidence of the importance of the public library to learning is reported in *Summer Learning and the Effects of Schooling* (Heyns 1978). Though not a study of public libraries, her investigation of the factors that influence learning of sixth and seventh graders when schools are closed found that, “The single summer activity that is most strongly and consistently related to summer learning is reading. Whether reading is measured by the number of books read, by the time spent reading, or by the regularity of library usage, it increases the vocabulary test scores of children” (320). Her conclusion that “at least one institution, the public library, directly influences children’s reading” was the basis for her recommendation that “educational policies that increase access to books (perhaps through increased library services) stand to have an important impact on achievement, particularly for less advantaged children” (xviii).

Two statewide studies of the educational role of public libraries, Terrie and Summers in Florida (1987) and Fitzgibbons and Pungitore in Indiana (1989), document the quantity and type of educational programming and services. The Florida study found that students are very active users of public libraries; persons under age eighteen borrow 26% of all library materials, even though they constitute less than 15% of the total population. The average student visits a public library about five times per year, and half of these visits have an educational purpose.

can help with the implementation of the National Education Goals. Several of the items pertain especially to youth library services:

- x Librarians and library programs work with children, adults serving the child, and parents to provide materials and prereading experiences that prepare children to enter and remain in school.
- x









ninety-five junior high librarians through telephone interviews. The school librarians' knowledge of their counterparts at the public library was somewhat similar as shown below:

x

cooperative efforts be included in the job evaluations of school and public librarians and advocated for the use of technology to facilitate communication and cooperative efforts. George concluded: “The librarians in each community must first determine what benefits cooperation can provide and then decide if the benefits justify the effort.”

According to Haycock in a review of dissertations including the subject of school and public library cooperation (1992), little meaningful cooperation exists. The 1994 U.S. ED (1995) surveys on the extent to which public libraries cooperate with other organizations in the community found that three-quarters of all libraries reported working occasionally or frequently with schools. This occurred most often when the public libraries had young adult or youth services specialists. The most common activities (mentioned by three-fifths of public librarians) were hosting class visits from the school to the library and resource sharing via interlibrary loans. Two-fifths of the public librarians occasionally or frequently visited schools for booktalks or to discuss and promote library use.

## **Types of Cooperative Relationships**

There is much evidence that in some communities, and with some youth library advocates, there are a growing number of successful examples of cooperative efforts. This section describes the major cooperative efforts between school library media centers and public libraries under the following categories: networks and resource sharing, building collections, information services and instruction, and reading and literacy. Each of these categories will be briefly described with a focus on research findings, the benefits of each cooperative effort, and problems that have occurred.(1)



information or lack of experience with networks, yet attitudes were open to the acceptance of cooperation as a viable activity. Other barriers included lack of adequate funding and the lack of a phone in the media center. The major benefit identified by Partridge was the increased access to resources in areas where funding for libraries is low; a second benefit was the association with librarians from other schools and from other library systems. The perception that school libraries have nothing to share in networks persisted, despite findings from several studies that have shown that most school library collections have unique resources.

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participation on the part of school libraries. A significant finding was the gap between attitude and practice on networking.

Recently Lockner (1996) surveyed the ninety elementary and secondary school media centers that were members of one multitype network in Minnesota to determine the extent of their cooperation within the system, and also with public libraries within their own school district. The survey assessed the extent of participation in several services of the system: continuing education, scholarships and grants, delivery service, and use of a regional automated catalog (computerized output microfiche) to expedite interlibrary loans. Of the respondents, 82% of the school media librarians reported that they felt it was very important to share resources, and 50% felt the delivery system was very important to them. Thirty-six percent of the school librarians referred students and teachers to the public library "often," while 61% did so occasionally. Sixty-four percent of the school libraries had used the network for consulting services, facilities planning, and collection development. Of the respondents, 81% claimed that they worked with their public librarian (and others) for a common goal but concluded that more could be done, especially in the area of referrals.

In library networks where public libraries and school libraries are involved, cooperation can be more easily implemented, since community outreach and linkages are major goals. Library networks in many states (e.g., New Jersey and Illinois) are regional, including both public and school libraries plus academic and special libraries, and those with links to the state library. These regional and state networks commonly offer sharing of resources via interlibrary loan, fax, and electronic transmittal; reference and referral services; and, increasingly, access to statewide electronic databases.

In Lois Schultz's testimony at NCLIS's Open Forum (1993) in Des Moines, speaking from the perspective of the youth services consultant for the Suburban Library System in Illinois, she listed areas of network cooperative projects between public and school libraries: collection development, homework centers, bulk loans of books to schools for the resource-based instruction programs, and school librarians' support in promotion of summer reading programs, junior great book programs, and library card campaigns. Another cooperative venture she mentioned was a two-day children's author festival, jointly sponsored by a public library and a local school district, with sessions at both the schools and the public library.

The new phenomenon of community networks through the Internet is changing the landscape rapidly. Many public libraries have Web sites, and from some of them the user can access the library's catalog. Web-based catalogs should be a common phenomenon in a few years. In the most recent national survey of public libraries and the Internet (ALA 1997), it was reported that 60.4% of public library systems offer some type of Internet access to the public. The most offered services did not include library catalogs, but simply access to the Web (both graphical and text) plus FTP access, online CD-ROMs, and online reference services. Almost 10% of all public libraries have their own Web sites, a dramatic increase since 1996 when only 1.2% of libraries offered this service. In larger libraries, about 65% hosted their own Web sites.

One example of community networking was a free-net in Columbia, Missouri, a collaborative effort of four public entities (school district, public library, a university, and the city) in creating and funding the Columbia Online Information Network (COIN), where homes, schools, classrooms, and businesses were connected to the community network. Resources included

community services, curriculum materials, and periodical information such as full-text Infotrac files and the local newspaper (Oestreich 1994). Another example, an informal consortium with a community network in Orange, California, COOLNET (Community of Orange Library Network) linked the public schools with the public library and a college library for the purpose of meetings, resource sharing, and services.

## Cooperation in Building Collections

Both Altman (1971) and Doll (1980; 1983) examined the overlap of collections in both school and public libraries in order to assess implications for interlibrary loans and networking. Doll found that the average overlap is 50% between school libraries and public libraries and 30% among school libraries and concluded that though there is definitely overlap, each library has unique titles, indicating that school libraries, as well as public libraries, have much to offer each other by sharing resources. School libraries can both benefit from and make significant contributions to either a school library network or a multitype library network.

Callison's 1986 study of communication and cooperation of Indiana school and public librarians included a written survey that focused on collection development. The majority of librarians did not agree that they should have a joint collection policy, that they should cooperate on acquisition and processing, and that they should share some staffing. Callison's (1989) conclusion was that the librarians do not know each other's collections and could not predict what the demands would be on each other's collections in the twenty-six subject areas that he presented.

A study by Garland (1989), funded by the U.S. ED, examined the differences in use of children's materials in school and public libraries. Garland explored the implications for cooperative acquisitions between school and public libraries and concluded that there is a need to make cooperative decisions on nonfiction titles to provide a diversity of titles while still duplicating titles in high demand. She also recommended that public libraries should emphasize easy fiction, and the school libraries, nonfiction. The two collections were being used in different ways: the public library providing easy fiction for preschoolers and primary age children, and the school library being mainly used for nonfiction. However, the use of nonfiction can be curriculum-related in both libraries, indicating the need for both the public library and the school library to be informed about the schools' curriculums.

With funding from an LSCA grant in 1988, Jensen (1990) reported that four high schools used fax technology as the basis of a resource-sharing consortium, As Soon As Possible (ASAP), connecting public, academic, and school libraries in one Colorado county. With additional funds



than spending so much time simply finding the physical materials. A benefit to teachers was the ability to diversify their instructional experiences.

Kulleseid (1990) explored the concept of cooperative collection development in school library media centers as a result of their participation in multitype library networks. In her literature search, she found little evidence of systematic cooperative collection development in school library media centers, though she reported an increase in participation of those centers in networks.

## **Cooperation in Providing Information Services and Instruction**

The few articles available on children's reference and information use point out the need for public librarians to communicate with the schools (school librarians and teachers) on curriculum topics, specific assignments, and recommended curriculum-related materials, as well as the need for sharing the responsibility, as information intermediaries, of teaching searching skills while providing help to individuals and groups (Fitzgibbons 1983; Harrington 1985; Riechel 1991).

In the early 1980s, Razzano (1983) argued for cooperation between public libraries and school libraries in providing reference services for youth. She suggested that librarians should meet to share information about each other's resources; they should inform teachers and students about the possibility of referral to each other's collections; and they should provide better student services while being aware of ways to save taxpayers' monies. Razzano presented several examples of cooperation from New York State: an information alert assignment sent to the public library by teachers or the school librarian, allowing the public library to be better prepared and have materials ready on reserve for students; sharing curriculum needs in planning for more joint collection development; and cooperating in the teaching of information skills and resources. She also suggested an exchange of class visits to the public library and the public librarian's visit to classrooms to encourage students' use of the public library.

## Cooperation to Encourage Reading and Literacy

Gorman (1995), an academic library director in California, points out the importance of all libraries to literacy, and the situation in California that has resulted from the drastic cutbacks in both school and public library service. In his opinion,

Even the best students often lack the most elementary library skills, and in many cases have below the minimum level of literacy demanded by colleges . . . The truth is that, ideally, literacy is a life-long process that begins with learning to read and continues with becoming steadily more literate as the years go by. Literacy, seen as the spectrum of ability that it is, is clearly the concern of all libraries . . . from research institutions to elementary schools. (28)

Gorman recommends that all libraries cooperate in providing library service, a central element of the fight against ignorance, “no matter the customer’s age.”

In one Illinois community, weekly storytimes were provided in Chapter 1 classrooms with bilingual students who lacked reading readiness skills. An LSCA grant allowed them to hire a full-time staff member in the public library’s youth services department; the librarian also provided parent/child programs at the public library and worked in the school with school staff. The importance of identifying and providing interventions for children as young as preschool ages who lack these skills is now understood. “Both school and library staff members observed increased attention spans, higher levels of cooperation, and more positive attitudes towards books and reading” (Ringenberg and Currie 1988, 34).

Fischer (1990) describes a project in a Texas community with a Hispanic population that targets family and intergenerational literacy. The literacy program of the public library partnered with the school district and a community group (including a local college, Hispanic-owned businesses, and a Hispanic educational access committee). The program based its approach on the Families Reading Together model developed at Boston University.

Summer reading programs have been a traditional service of public libraries, designed to encourage literacy and reading for a wide variety of age groups. The study by Heyns (1978) provides evidence of the importance of summer reading; this has been further documented by Howes (1986), Carter (1988), Proseus (1989), and Krashen (1993; 1995). Yet a recent study by Fitzgibbons (1997) of reading attitudes of children in grades 4–8 found that reading in the summer was rated by the students as the least positive activity among a group of recreational activities. This is quite alarming when we know that “reading as a leisure activity is the best predictor of comprehension, vocabulary, and reading speed” (Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding 1988; Krashen 1993).

Krashen’s summary of studies on reading includes the finding that fourth, eighth, and twelfth graders who reported more reading outside of school performed better on a test of reading comprehension. There was, however, no impact of traditional instruction on reading (Foert of rucgr1(it)-v-7(F)-t

large, but it is remarkably consistent.” Another development in some public libraries is the year-round reading program (Olson 1994). A very popular cooperative program between school and public libraries is the author visit, which appears to be a successful reading motivator.

Beginning in 1992, Cargill—an international marketer, processor, and distributor of agricultural, food, financial, and industrial products—has partnered with ALA in a program called “Read All About It . . . Together, Partners for Family Literacy.” This program, coordinated through ALA’s Office of Library Outreach Services, is community-based and includes such activities as summer reading programs and tutoring programs for families (Monsour 1995). The latest national reading initiative, the America Reads Challenge, will need involvement of both school and public libraries to be successful; this is a new challenge as well as an opportunity for cooperative efforts.

## Other Cooperative Projects

An example of cooperative programming initiated at the national level with federal funding is the Library-Museum Head Start Partnership Project, a cooperative project of the Center for the Book at the Library of Congress and the Head Start Bureau, which has tried to create models for partnership at the local level by public libraries and Head Start programs.

In the early 1980s, the Connecticut State Library and the Connecticut State Department of Education “joined forces to promote better communication u, wr</MCID 4 >>romnTJ -0.030-4(r</n>-8(gI7(c)4

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CLASP's purposes have been to foster lifelong learning and encourage a love of reading in each community setting. These purposes have been actualized by increasing awareness of public and school libraries, encouraging communities to get to know the librarians, and working with library staffs to strengthen services and resources. The project also has strongly supported the need for strong school library programs that can work collaboratively with public libraries.

The projects involved the formation of small teams of experienced public library children's and young adultss41(m)(c)4(1)2(i)18.39Td ch3h.47bl)-2s[()4647(e)4(si)-d8s.

found that it is those schools with the strongest school library programs that have been best able to work effectively with our public libraries. CLASP endeavors to bring people together. In the end, this is always the key to successful school and public library cooperation. When the staff in the public library know and regard as colleagues (and even better as friends) the staff in the schools whose children they serve, the potential for effective collaboration is tremendously expanded. (38)

More than 100 elementary, intermediate, and junior high schools serving over 75,000 students have been involved in CLASP, along with 23 branches of the NYPL—one participating district in each of three boroughs (Bronx, Manhattan, Staten Island). The project’s goal, developing a variety of models for cooperative services and institutional collaboration that could be replicated with public funding in other school districts and library regions and eventually throughout New York City, appears to be well underway.

In 1994 Katherine Todd became the new director of CLASP, and funding had been secured from the New York City Council to continue and expand CLASP to all five boroughs when the original grant monies ran out. Rather than the project putting more emphasis on public library services, both Del Vecchio and Todd emphasized the importance of a good school librarian for the cooperative efforts to work. The project advanced the cause of school libraries by their association with the public library, as the education professionals began to recognize the value of school librarians. “Increasing the value placed on public librarians also increased the value placed on school librarians” (Oestreich 1994).

## **DeWitt Wallace Initiatives**

The Library Power projects, funded by DeWitt Wallace–Readers’ Digest Fund and administered by ALA’s AASL, targeted the improvement of school libraries and the encouragement of school reform.(2) Library Power projects are currently in the process of an intensive evaluation effort. The evaluation reports should be useful in assessing what projects, activities, and processes encouraged change, innovation, and improved learning. In most project reports, there has been

communities (DeWitt Wallace–Readers’ Digest Fund 1998). Survey results may provide some indication of the extent



model for helping local communities make decisions concerning the appropriateness of the combined library. Aaron concluded that the following conditions should be met with combined libraries:

- x staffing should be improved;
- x more resources should be provided for the community;
- x the combined program should be an integrated one, rather than two programs in one facility;
- x a legally defined governance plan should be developed; and
- x systematic and objective evaluation efforts should be implemented to assess whether there are improved library services to the community.

Aaron provided a checklist of items for consideration of whether a combined program might provide the best school and public library services for a community.

Weech (1979) surveyed the attitudes of school and public librarians in Iowa concerning combined facilities and found little difference in attitudes between the two groups. A case study of a successful merger of school and public libraries in a small town in Texas (the Olney Community Library) was evaluated and summarized by Kitchens. That combined library continues, and it appears to be a successful example of a long-lasting, joint-use library project (Kitchens 1974; Wells 1994).

Amey has produced several major reports of combined libraries in Canada and Australia; in 1987 he summarized his findings of the phenomenon of the combined library in communities:







(Kitchens 1974; Wells 1994) and the more recently established Cissna Park Library in Illinois (A Joint Venture 1993; Lincoln Trails Library System 1990).

Jaffe (1982) described the reasons why combined libraries in Pennsylvania had been discontinued, but he found that due to the many sparsely populated areas, the “combined school/public library controversy will not soon diminish. Shrinking funds and community desires to maximize use of facilities will maintain pressure. The underlying observation is that some communities would have no or minimal public library service without this organizational format.”

In supporting combined libraries, Kinsey and Honig-Bear (1994) are enthusiastic in their description of joint-use libraries for Washoe County Library in Reno, Nevada, where several combined libraries have opened in these sparsely populated areas within the past three years: one in an elementary school, two in high schools, and one in an inner-city middle school. In these libraries, circulation has doubled every year due to this arrangement. Wells (1994) discusses eleven combined libraries in Texas, all in small rural towns (populations between 900 and 12,000), and concludes that, “It can be worth the effort or it can end in an acrimonious divorce.”

Dwyer (1987; 1989) saw the combined school-public library as “a possible and legitimate solution to the provision of library service in special circumstances . . . just as I see a mobile library service as a viable solution in certain circumstances.” Cassell (1985) viewed the combined library’s advantage as a possible cost savings in elimination of some duplication of materials, staff, maintenance, utilities, and effort. Other benefits she listed include:

- x development of a community focal point for adults and children to learn and enrich themselves together;
- x easy physical access and good parking, expanded open hours;
- x availability of trained staff;
- x expanded space;
- x audiovisual equipment and materials; and
- x possible increased use and awareness of library services and resources in a community as schools are more visible to the community.

Woolard (1980) posit

children, extended hours of service, and more highly qualified personnel. Some useful information has been elicited from library projects that have had some form of outside evaluation. The consultant's report for the Cissna Park (Illinois) joint-use library concluded: "The combined library was successful because the community wanted it to succeed" (A Joint Venture 1993, 239).

A main impetus for beginning joint-use libraries has been a projected budget savings, especially during economic downturns. Both in the past and currently, governing boards and administrators have pushed combined libraries, believing that savings will result. For example, Robert Consalvo, Executive Secretary of the Boston School Committee, a trustee of the Boston Public Library, and an aide to the city's mayor, stated his argument in support of joint libraries: "I think it [having the public library take over school libraries] will probably save money and provide better services" (Viadero 1992, 20).

Both Boston and Baltimore caught media attention when they explored similar thinking on joint libraries in efforts to economize and improve library services for youth and the community. In Boston the board of the city library requested that the public library director explore new relationships between public and school libraries. At that time, 1992, Boston had a major recruitment problem with children's librarians and few young adults' librarians. In Baltimore, the mayor endorsed the concept of library consolidation; as a start, he transferred eleven school librarians to the Baltimore city library (Enoch Pratt Free Library) while the school libraries were then only supported by library assistants. Several subsequent news reports indicated dissatisfaction with the arrangement and probable reassignment of school personnel back to the schools (Viadero 1992; Sadowski 1993).

Many evaluators have found that savings in a particular area (facility, staff, or collections) are negated by greater costs on the part of at least one of the "partners" (school or public library). Aaron, after an intensive look at such libraries (1980), stated that there was no evidence of economy.

In a summary of a literature review on combined libraries, Mercier (1991) states: "The roles of the public libraries and school media centers are complementary. Neither institution can attempt to perform the role of the other without inhibiting the effective performance of its own unique services" (4). According to Mercier, the school library media centers and public libraries have had different reasons for their existence: "A joint facility cannot give equal support to the goals of two different institutions" (4).

Woolard's surveys (1980) identified the following issues of governance and management as the most frequent problems:

- x failure of governing boards to define responsibilities;
- x failure to include all parties in the planning;
- x failure of school authorities to recognize authority of public library staff;
- x misunderstanding by citizens and the public library board of the professional librarian's role;
- x failure of governing boards to appoint a chief administrator;
- x interference by the school in public functions; and

- x dual administration (problems with both classified and certified personnel having different salary and work schedules).

Also, the lack of access for adults during the school day has often been noted (e.g., Cassell, Woolard, etc.). Other negative aspects listed by several researchers include:

- x inadequate physical facilities;
- x inadequate budget (staffing, materials, equipment);
- x lack of adequate parking for public;
- x geographic location; and
- x censorship of materials (difficulty of maintaining intellectual freedom and confidentiality).

Even Amey (1989), who presented many positive aspects, commented that combined libraries often find themselves “locked into poorly planned, hastily implemented, awkwardly designed joint use facilities” (259).

### Factors of Success in Combined Libraries

Despite the negative evidence presented against combined libraries, there are successful examples, and reading about these successes allows some prediction concerning when it might be appropriate to initiate such a plan. Table 1 presents a summary of success factors drawn from a variety of studies from 1960 to the 1990s. The factors can be categorized as follows:

- x the need for careful planning, community involvement, and cooperation;
- x a community vision and attitude of commitment to shared services;
- x the careful delineation and formalization of legal, governance, and management issues;
- x special attention to the uniqueness of the facility, staffing, and collections; and
- x recognition of benefits—improved access, services, and communication.

**Table 1. Factors Necessary for Successful Combined Libraries**

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Examples</b>	<b>Source(s)</b>
<b>Planning</b>	Total community involvement/input in planning	Aaron, Cassell, Dwyer, Amey, LTLS, Bauer
	Long-term and short-term planning	
	Adequate time to survey, plan, and implement	
	Continuous evaluation	
	Development of shared vision statement and goals	
<b>Involvement of Community Members</b>	General public	Kitchens, Cassell, Dwyer, LTLS, Bauer
	Parents	
	Public leaders	





Once the decision is made to have a combined library, it is necessary to formally establish by a legal agreement the governance, funding, and management issues. The issue of a governing board and what members represent, and its relationship to existing structures (school board, public library board) must be resolved. It must be understood that neither the school library nor the public library model will suffice, but rather that a new model of service will need to be created with a unique facility, specially trained staff, and a carefully developed collection to meet all ages and types of user.

Total library services will need to be evaluated carefully to ensure equal access to a diversity of users, use of a full range of services (information, reading, programming) by a variety of age groups and types of users, and meaningful communication (and marketing) to the community. Periodic evaluation will ensure that the benefits are recognized and valued, or that changes will be made that will provide the desired benefits.

## **Other Issues**

Several states have issued state guidelines, from either a legal or neutral framework, for communities considering joint-use libraries. Before 1980, in Wisconsin the Bureau of Public and Cooperative Library Services and the Bureau of School Library Media Programs developed a position paper to serve as a guideline for communities considering combining school and public libraries. Though their overall recommendation was not to combine facilities, they recognized that combined libraries may offer temporary solutions under certain conditions. They recommended the following areas for special consideration when developing a combined facility: the physical facility, staff, decision-making authority, financing, collection, and administration. Rather than combined facilities, they recommended cooperative activities, such as centralized cataloging and processing, reference and referral services, interlibrary loans, shared publicity and newsletters, coordinated acquisitions, and continuing education (Woolard 1980). In 1994, Wisconsin'



All of these efforts to regulate combined libraries at the state level, by governmental agencies or professional library organizations, point to the conclusion that local communities must work within their environments. For example, Cassell (1985) found that the extra effort of combined libraries to promote public library services and programs created a welcoming atmosphere. She also commented on “the continuing commitment needed by staff, school administration, and trustees to total community service and the necessity for these groups to develop a unified vision and a harmonious pattern of working together; and the difficulty in resolution of service philosophies (discipline, fines, borrowing rules and regulations, hours)” (6).

Dwyer (1987) found that the most important factors were commitment and cooperation. According to Bauer (1995), proactive planning is needed, including a mutually agreed upon vision and a strategic plan that allows change before crises arise. Community “fit” was seen as important: all communities are not appropriate to the implementation of a combined facility. This also implies much community involvement in a feasibility study that includes citizen input. As Jaffe and others have indicated, before consideration of such a combination, unmet needs on the part of at least one of the libraries, and sometimes both libraries, should be identified. Staff always needs to be involved in the planning, and should be committed to the idea and plan.

Table 1 is provided as a means to categorize the factors necessary for the success of combined libraries with examples of each accompanied by the sources of the information.

## Alternatives to Joint-Use Libraries

Rather than joint-use libraries, some have advocated for multipoint libraries (lead author) or shared libraries (Forsyth 2006) to achieve better library services. For example, Julie Cummins of the New York Public Library recommends, “The best and most cost-efficient strategy of public libraries and public school libraries involves cooperative efforts to strengthen and develop the resources and expertise of both,” including cooperative reviewing of books and non-print materials, and joint education campaigns such as workshops for teachers and parents (Gerhardt 1992, 4).

Woolard was careful to point out that, “While the focus of this study has been on the combined school and public library concept, it is recognized that a cooperative program will more often meet the needs of a community than will a combined program” (Woolard 1980, 74). Haycock (1990) also feels that



The three youth services divisions of ALA have begun to build bridges between each other and to connect them to several national initiatives. These efforts need to be strengthened, as do similar efforts at the state level with similar professional organizations. Connections and partnerships need to be established in governmental agencies as well: at the national level, between the ED and the newly established Institute of Museum and Library Services; at the statewide level, between state departments of education and state library agencies; and at the regional and local community levels, through multitype library networks and community agencies that serve youth.

Education for teachers, youth librarians, and school library media specialists could be a powerful force in instilling some of these values and shared purposes in future librarians and educators; these concepts need to be incorporated in both professional education and continuing education. Schools of education and library and information studies, professional organizations, and multitype library networks should serve as the providers of this education.

### **Barriers to Cooperation**

Barriers to cooperative efforts have been identified by previous research. Some of these barriers include lack of policy and legislation that address the process, attitudes of both individuals (librarians, administrators, members of governing boards) and institutions (structural rigidity), and the belief that each institution's differing roles must be preserved. A barrier that is more difficult to break is the lack of respect for and valuing of what is often seen as a competing institution—either the school library or the public library. It would appear that this would be a more serious conflict in a country like Canada, where most teacher-librarians (school librarians) are educated in departments of education rather than departments or schools of library and information studies. Nonetheless, the perpetuation of undergraduate certification for school librarians in the United States (and in many other countries) may present a barrier, due to the lack of a shared educational experience, between public library youth services staff (with master's degrees in library and information science) and those entering the field who will work in school libraries. It is hard to assess the outcomes in the future of what appears to be diminished attention in graduate schools of library and information science to education for both public librarianship and school librarianship.

Another barrier was suggested by the ED literature review: the absence of an entity responsible for coordinating the activities of the two types of libraries at both the state level and at the local level. This would include having a youth services consultant/coordinator in state library agencies and having a school library media officer in state education departments, as well as having both youth services coordinators in public libraries and school library media coordinators in school systems. This would create youth library advocates at all these levels, as well as valuable human resources to plan and implement cooperative efforts. Issues of personality and style differences have been raised by K-6(br)-5(ar)-21ew:inK-6(br)-5(ar)-21ewd by atd4e,(K-6(br)d b)-20(y)2 be99cn.rarianship.

library administrators, community leaders, policy makers at all levels, and funding agencies, including community partners. The second theme is the need for statewide and community planning, including vision statements, action plans with a focus on legislation, lobbying, and collaborative activities. Specifically, in regard to school-public library relationships, Mathews (1996, 4) recommends the following:

A statewide action plan for serving the school and out-of-school learning needs for all children and young people. This plan could include:

- x Guidelines and advocacy for funding to plan true collaboration by school and public libraries that takes into consideration current and future learning designs such as year-round schooling, magnet schools, home schooling, and partnerships for service and support to parents and other adult caregivers.
- x Designated state level library and media personnel to serve as consultants for public library children's and youth services and school library media pro



The development of information technologies has accelerated the information age through digital libraries, informational and recreational computer products, including the many CD-ROM products and, increasingly, the Internet. In the mid-1980s, in both conference presentations and in articles, this author predicted that the most likely area for school/public library cooperation that would have the greatest effect was technological access, including the need for compatibility of equipment and software, shared databases and resources, and providing information literacy skills (then called computer literacy). As most school and public libraries have (or are in the middle of implementing) computer catalogs, many libraries are now in the next stage of technological access: access to the many CD-ROM informational products, the Internet, and the Web. Yet at the same time, the need for both school and public libraries to continue to focus on reading and literacy remains. It is not sufficient for either type of library to focus only on one of these two important library services (information access/technology and reading/literacy).

Only through a shared vision and joint planning process will the current and future needs of our youth be met. Cooperative arrangements are in the best interests of serving youth in the current “Information Age,”

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## Appendix: List of Combined School/Public Libraries in the United States

State	City/Town	Name	School Level	Source
AK	Chenega Bay	Chenega Bay Sch/Comm Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Galena	Charles Evans Community Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Holy Cross	Holy Cross Sch/Comm Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Sand Point	Sand Point Sch/Comm Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Cantwell	Cantwell Sch/Comm Library		FSCS 1993
AK	St. Paul	St. Paul Comm/School Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Tanana	Tanana Community Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Tatitlek	Tatitlek School Community Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Healy	Tri-Valley Community Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Tuluksak	Tuluksak Sch/Comm Library		FSCS 1993
AK	Juneau	Floyd Dryden Comm. Lib.		Unger 1975; Western Council 1992
AL	Guin	MCHS Community		FSCS 1993
AZ	Buckeye	Harquahala School/Maricopa Co.FL		Unger 1975
AZ	Glendale	Barcelona Library		Unger 1975
AZ	Peoria	Southwest Indian School Library		Unger 1975
AZ	Scottsdale	Palomino Branch/Desert Mt. School; 25,000 residents; 1,000 students	High school	Goldberg1995, 1996; Olson 1996
AZ	Scottsdale	Arabian Branch/Municipal Complex with Community Policing Office	Elem./Middle	Goldberg 1996; Olson 1996
CA	Coleville	Coleville High School Branch Lib.	High School	Unger 1975
CA	Santa Barbara	Summerland Library		Unger 1975





		Dist.#1	
KS	Plains	Plains Community Library	FSCS 1993
LA	New Orleans	M.L.King Elem. School/New Orleans PL	Elem. Goldberg, 1996
ME	Portland	Portland Public Library— Munjoy Hill Branch	Unger 1975
ME	Portland	Portland Public Library— Howard C. Reiche Branch	Unger 1975
MA	Medford	Wellington branch/Osgood School	Unger 1975
MA	Watertown	West branch/Watertown FPL	Unger 1975
MI	Flint	Branch/Flint Public Lib	Unger 1975
MI	Grosse Pointe	Grosse Pointe Publ. Lib. — Park Branch	Unger 1975



NJ	Woodbridge	Mt. Vernon School Br. Hopelawn branch/Woodbridge PL/School No. 10	Unger 1975
NJ	Atlantic City	Atlantic City PL—New Jersey Avenue School Branch	Unger 1975
NJ	Atlantic City	Atlantic City PL— Richmond Ave. School Branch	Unger 1975
NJ			

PA	Pennsburg		Jaffe 1982
PA	Perryopolis		Jaffe 1982
PA	Royersford		Jaffe 1982
PA	Kane	Kane Publ. and School Lib. .12 27.6 (19821 )91.201 b.32	

TX	Mabank	Tri County Lib. Family Resource Center	FSCS 1993
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