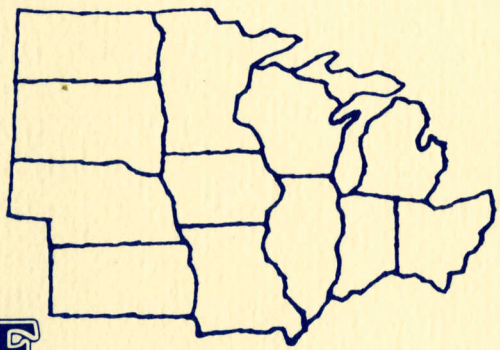

THE MIDWESTERN ARCHIVIST

VOLUME X, NUMBER 1, 1985

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EDITORIAL POLICY

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Material in a wide range of formats — including articles, review essays, proceedings of seminars, and case studies of specific archival projects or functions — will be considered for publication. Guidelines for authors of articles and case studies are available on request from the editorial board chair.

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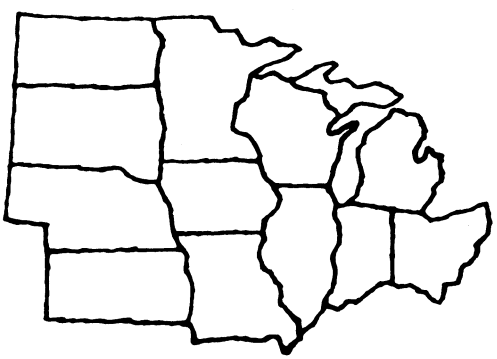

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ARCHIVES IN THE MIDWEST: ASSESSMENTS AND PROSPECTS

VIRGINIA STEWART

Editor's note: The editorial board has, from time to time, grappled with the issue of the degree to which *The Midwestern Archivist* should reflect the regional status of its title and its parent organization. Over the years authors of articles appearing in the journal have been predominantly members of the Midwest Archives Conference, but the content of the articles has not been particularly regional in scope. While recognizing that most archival conditions and practices transcend regional boundaries, the editorial board agreed that it would be desirable to offer a thoughtful analysis of the overall condition of archives in the midwest. The state archival needs-assessment surveys and reports, sponsored by the National Historical Publications and Records Commission, appeared to offer the baseline for such an analysis. We turned to Virginia Stewart, believing that she knew the region thoroughly but had no direct interest to protect in relation to the findings of any of the state reports. That she has given us a prescription for dealing with future prospects that transcends the region suggests to us that we asked the right question of the right person.

In the past several years the archival profession has embarked on a range of activities which both signal and contribute to a new level of maturity. Issues such as standards of practice, control over eduction and training, and improved visibility for archives are being addressed at both the national and regional levels through committees, task forces, and funded studies. Archivists have recently joined with other professionals in pursuit of avowedly political goals — notably the defeat of attempts to slash funding for important federal programs, and the successful passage of legislation to reestablish the National Archives as an independent agency.

While there may be a growing sense of parity between archivists and other professionals, archivists increasingly acknowledge widespread "ignorance by the public of the nature and purpose of archival work ... and failure on our part to eradicate that ignorance."[1] The Task Force on Archives and Society, created by the Council of the Society of American Archivists in June, 1983, is grappling with development of concepts and strategies to address this problem. The challenge to the profession is formidable: to shape and communicate an image of archives which will enhance their value to the public and break through the "cycle of poverty" that characterizes the archival universe.

It is in this context of evaluation and new initiatives that the State Historical Records Program of the National Historical Publications and Records Commission can best be viewed. Created in 1981 as a crisis management tool, both the program and the agency survived to make a second round of grants to states in 1983. To date 43 grants have been made, in one of the most comprehensive vehicles ever developed for archival evaluation. The program offers participating states an opportunity to establish a solid information base as a benchmark from which planning can proceed. The grants were deliberately shaped to pull the entire archival community in a single state into a working relationship. Each state formed a State Historical Records Advisory Board to be the governing structure for the project. Each Board agreed to meet at least three times during the project period, and to hold at least one public meeting. Thus from its inception the program assumed that both improved information and a new configuration of actors were necessary to effect change.

When it became apparent that the first-round grants were not to be the terminal activity of NHPRC, planning was undertaken to strengthen the program for a second round. In June, 1983, grantees, consultants and other interested archivists met in Atlanta, Georgia, under the sponsorship of the National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators (NASARA) to consider the experience of the first round. Each of the four topic areas of the program — state government records, local government records, historical records repositories, and statewide functions and services — was discussed in detail. The report of the conference, *Documenting America,* was published by NASARA and subsequently abstracted in the "SAA Newsletter."[2] An assessment of the program in three southeast states appeared in the Spring, 1984, issue of *Provenance.* There is no doubt that the state assessment projects make an important contribution to the continuing discussion of the problems and prospects of archival practice and programs in the United States. The purpose of this paper is to assess the programs in the Midwest in terms of their success in meeting the stated NHPRC objectives and to raise a number of issues which received slight attention in the reports but impact significantly on the chances of achieving progress.

All states of the area covered by the Midwest Archives Conference have received assessment grants. Reports are available for Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin, all first-round grantees.[3] The methodologies used by the states varied — some employed a project archivist, others utilized staff at the state level, some employed a consultant for all or portions of the project. This variance was typical of projects throughout the United States. More importantly for the purposes of this discussion, the states showed the full range of development of archival programs, from the well-established structures in Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin, to the fledgling state archives of Iowa and South Dakota.

The emphasis on the four mandated areas varied considerably in the reports, as each state focused on the problems which seemed most compelling. The legal status of archival functions for public records — both enabling legislation and compliance — was a common feature, however. The constitutional principle of separation of powers divided the North Dakota Records

Board.[4] In South Dakota, the State Archivist is struggling to establish the most elementary control over mandated functions which have traditionally been assumed by other agencies, but even states with supposedly model legislation report problems.[5] In Illinois "legal authority [exists] in regard to public records which equals or surpasses that found in any other state." Nonetheless, the report noted that the "State Records Unit of the Archives functions in an essentially passive role," due to the lack of compliance mechanisms in the State Records Act.[6] Nebraska reported that local public records frequently "find their way into the custody of a local historical organization ... with strong proprietary feeling about 'their' records." The Archives learns of the situation after the fact and generally does not make strong efforts to retrieve records, due to the unenforceable penalties at law and the potential negative public relations.[7] Minnesota, on the other hand, is considering turning to the Attorney General as a means of enforcing the law regarding alienation of public records.[8]

Micrographics is another issue with which many states struggle. The Iowa, Nebraska, and South Dakota reports detail jurisdictional disputes which work to the detriment of sound archival practice. In general, microfilming has been separated from the archival function, while the existence of equipment and operators generates a momentum for filming which may not be defensible either in terms of cost-effectiveness or other criteria. Only occasionally do non-archival agencies demonstrate a thorough concern with the quality and conservation of microfilm, a cause for alarm when originals are routinely destroyed after filming.

In general the reports reflect the archival culture of the agency which took the lead in their preparation. The Illinois document reads like an internal administrative report, focused almost entirely on cost-savings achieved and statistical measures of units served and requests processed. Wisconsin's report stresses appraisal and coordination of collecting policies. It also makes a clear distinction between repositories that meet minimum standards and those that do not ("have" and "have-not" agencies) and explores the implications of this division of the archival universe in the state. The Ohio report excludes state government records (the subject of a separate NHPRC-funded project) and stresses the cooperative network of repositories and associations which characterizes the state. Taken as a whole, the Minnesota and Wisconsin reports come closest to the NHPRC goal of activating the State Historical Records Boards as advocates for statewide planning for archival resources.

What do the assessment reports collectively tell us about the archival universe in our region? First of all, they tell us about archival institutions, not about archives. Although some of the states gathered information on the content of repository holdings, not one of the reports spoke in clear terms about the historical periods, topics and issues, locales, etc. that are well or poorly documented. Not one report told a success story about significant items rescued or reclaimed. Little was said about the countless fires and floods which have ravaged the records of states, counties and municipalities. This omission was perhaps most obvious in the case of North Dakota, which used a line drawing of the Territorial and State Capitol as the cover for its report, and neglected to discuss the losses when that building burned in 1930! The reports presumed that readers already understood both the nature

and value of archives. For example, Wisconsin's report opens with a paragraph stating, "Archival records are a vital cultural resource" but provides no justification — or even examples — to support this assertion. The Ohio report devotes a section to "Nature and Value of Archives," but the bulk of the text is devoted to distinguishing archives from library materials. In short, the reports are addressed to the people of the several states, but intended for the professional community. This is not a good strategy for influencing decision-makers outside archival institutions.

The reports do not hold any surprises for professionals: Archives were found to be understaffed, underfunded, and underappreciated. Smaller agencies and major repositories report cutbacks in funding, and the gap between the "have" and the "have-not" agencies is not being bridged. In fact, several major institutions have retrenched from previous initiatives intended to raise the level of practice statewide. Nebraska, for example, has eliminated all direct on-site assistance to local agencies, while the Minnesota Historical Society withdrew from the Regional Research Centers Network in 1981. The Ohio network, according to its coordinator, has been "more or less defunct" for the last few years.[9] Agencies that have not suffered budget cuts frequently report additional responsibilities without added resources.

Because archives are often administrative sub-units, "buried within other agencies," they lack public visibility and the leverage of a public constituency. Overall, archival agencies do not seem successful in intra-institutional competition for resources. The North Dakota report conveys the situation nicely in its comment that the State Archivist's top priority — an inventory and scheduling for county and city records — ranked thirty-first on a list of thirty-five State Historical Society priorities.[10] The Nebraska report echoes this frustration in noting that the "overall workload of the archives has increased, while resources have not," due to "lack of control over priorities."[11]

The NHPRC reports were intended to provide reliable information to support or refute prevailing impressions. The information-gathering tool was commonly a mail questionnaire sent to a large number of institutions, ranging from established repositories to private organizations presumed to have historical records. The response rate to these blanket mailings was dismal: 27% in Nebraska, 29% in Illinois, 30% in North Dakota, for example. High results were attained only through targeted mailings. Kansas, for example, achieved a 67% response by excluding the Secretary of State's Office from its public records sample. In any event, most of the reports commented that responses were often incomplete, revealing misunderstanding of the questions. Entire sections were sometimes left blank. Thus we cannot extrapolate reliably from the questionnaires for lack of a representative sample and because the returned data is uneven in quality and coverage. States like Minnesota and Ohio, which had conducted historic records surveys under previous NHPRC grants chose not to attempt to update their findings, even when they were two years old (Minnesota). The experience of the NHPRC grantees across the country confirms that of the Midwest: mail questionnaires are only the first step in a long process involving personal contact and/or site visits. Deviation from this labor-intensive and time-consuming process produces results that are too limited to be quantifiable. Thus at the end of the assessment information process, the data is still impressionistic and we do not know the *size* of the problem.

The question raised by this ineffective data-gathering pattern is more than how to get archivists to design better questionnaires or samples. The issue is what priority this information has in overall planning. Should states be seeking resources to accurately sample or comprehensively survey all known repositories within their borders? Is such information more or less important than making contact with private institutions — churches, businesses, civic organizations, etc. — still holding their own documents? No state report came to terms with definition of the universe of records with which archivists should be concerned. Several states acknowledged that the majority of known collections are held by a cluster of large and medium-size institutions, often in one sector of the state. Smaller organizations, typically historical societies with volunteer staffing, are said to have "significant" holdings, usually private manuscripts and photographs. By considering all those collections — plus the innumerable governmental units and material in private hands — as the archival universe, archivists fail to establish meaningful boundaries to their work. One might take the position that archivists should concentrate their efforts on known collections and those institutions with at least one professional staff member who can participate in cooperative projects. In this way the universe could be contained to manageable proportions. At a minimum, it is necessary to determine the real cost of comprehensive information and the utility of that information in light of other competing objectives. Archivists, like other administrators with limited resources, cannot maximize all objectives simultaneously.

Clearly archivists must raise their level of sophistication in dealing with quantitative data. It is not only questionnaire design that needs improvement. Presentation of results requires statistical inference measures as well as visual display in charts, graphs and tables. The Ohio report uses bar graphs to describe staffing, conservation needs and repository priorities; the message would have had more impact had the visuals been incorporated into the text rather than the appendixes. Visuals are important communication mechanisms, not mere window dressing. Most reports lack charts showing archival functions over time, with comparisons drawn at two, five, or ten year intervals. This kind of analysis is essential to measure organizational performance and project trends. The Illinois report is unusual in its effective use of tables to present information on State Archives operations over the past eight years; such data is generally lacking.

To summarize: at present there is insufficient data from reliable assessment of the universe of data and the status of repositories in any state that has not conducted a comprehensive site survey. Archivists must consider whether they need this information for planning and at what cost. Possible alternatives include surveys of segments of the universe, conducted in priority order; tacit exclusion of repositories that do not meet minimum standards; or development of a stratified sample to create numbers capable of extrapolation. The lack of specificity about the archival universe, coupled with absence of historical perspective on repository performance, leads to overgeneralized requests for more resources. Archivists are faced with two problems — a current and a retrospective deficit of resources. Whether *any* level of funding would make it possible to remedy the cumulative effect of deficient or non-existent archival programs at the state and local level has not yet been determined. What resources would be required to operate a model program at these levels is

equally vague. Since budget allocations are based on hard numbers, archivists are handicapped when they cannot supply specific projections.

In addition to developing information and assessing needs, the projects were to plan remedies. Depending on the formulation of the problem, remedies could relate to a specific agency need (creation of an equipment budget line for the State Archives of Iowa) to a systemic enhancement (creation of the position of staff administrator for the Wisconsin State Historic Records Board). Frequent recommendations included obtaining additional resources, increasing cooperation, and improving planning. The very real obstacles in each of these areas were not discussed.

In my opinion, the failure to obtain sufficient resources relates in part to a peculiar kind of tunnel vision which afflicts archivists, namely the concept of the "life cycle of records." Control of public — and institutional — records from creation through a series of phases culminating in an archival program offers solutions to many problems archivists face, ranging from the instability of information media to the alienation of records. Obviously the logic of this position is compelling only to archivists, since most states report a division of responsibilities among a records management unit, a historical society or library, and the Archives. This type of division characterizes larger "private" organizations as well; a formal records management program may exist, but archives and archivists are conspicuously absent. One of the consequences of this situation is that appraisal is frequently ignored. Records management offices commonly allow sub-units to make their own, demonstrably inadequate, scheduling decisions. In the public sector, state archives, despite formal authority, often cannot control this behavior. Consider also the condition and status of local governmental records. Professional archivists have been describing the lamentable condition of these records for decades. Yet state after state reports that local units are apathetic toward their archival responsibilities and resistant to transferring control to a state agency. Concurrently, state archives report insufficient funds and personnel to implement a program, even if full cooperation could be expected at the local level.

If archivists are to make progress in gaining control over the life cycle of records, they will need to recognize that success in imposing a particular definition on other groups rests on something more than the inherent merit of definition. It is a power issue, involving both formal authority and informal mechanisms of implementation. Archivists may consider themselves most qualified to control records, but this claim is not widely shared. The separation of functions which characterizes most states' administrative history works to the detriment of archives, but to the general benefit of other administrative units. The burden of changing the configuration may seem overwhelming. Most reports simply state that the present arrangements, however unworkable, will have to be endured. The Iowa report is the only one that considers the available alternatives and the costs of each versus the status quo.[12] Most states conclude that cooperation is the only remedy.

Cooperation may be an easy goal to articulate; it is not easy to implement. The experience of states with formal archival networks is instructive. At the National Conference on Regional Archival Networks in 1981, representatives of nine states with archival networks (Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Ohio, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin) reaffirmed their

conviction that "interinstitutional cooperation ... is the right way, the most effective way, for our institutions and our profession to proceed."[13] Nonetheless, "challenging questions" were raised about networks in terms of their inability to coordinate collecting and their inaccuracy in forecasting the nature of the user community and type of services requested. Even more ominous was the finding that "Networks may be in danger because they are not living up to expectations and they are not developing in ways that will guarantee their continued existence. ... The hard truth is that archival networks do not pay for themselves and have not offered a way for members to reduce their own costs. When this is taken in conjunction with the fact that they are not perceived as essential, it becomes clear why archival networks are particularly vulnerable in hard economic times."[14] If cooperation among institutions with complementary goals and formalized interaction mechanisms is so tenuous, the obstacles in dealing with dissimilar agencies, each protecting its own turf, are truly formidable.

Powerful incentives will be needed to alter long-standing arrangements regarding recordkeeping as a social function. Mere assertion of archival axioms will be insufficient to change a dysfunctional archival structure. Recognizing that the abstract "archival interest" is embodied in an agency or department that is competing with other units for scarce resources is a necessary first step. Archivists need to assess their organizational assets and liabilities in order to formulate an effective strategy. The goal is a "win-win" outcome in which archival gains are not achieved (or perceived) as direct losses to other organizational units. Cooperation becomes a realistic goal only when all parties have a recognizable interest and benefit to be attained. Advocacy and bargaining seem more appropriate modes for archives in the near future.

Planning is a third recommendation common to most reports. This is a laudable emphasis on active rather than passive administration. However, the reports did not seem familiar with planning as a strategic decision-making activity with operational consequences, all carried out within a discrete time frame. National consultant Margaret Child pointed out that planning is more than goal setting. She advised that each state should rank its various recommendations on a single scale.[15] This was simply not done. One cannot sense what each state's top priority is, although the priorities of the constituent units are often clear. The Illinois report, for example, gives very specific recommendations for state and local records: a two-year statewide survey of all units of state government, activation of the Cook County Local Records Commissions and employment of a professional staff, and increased service to municipalities. In fact, the State Archives has subsequently received a grant (and a supplementary grant) from NHPRC to survey and schedule Chicago and Cook County records. But in regard to historical records repositories, the report merely suggests that "In order for cooperative programs to be established and maintained, they will require as much participation at the start-up stage as possible and then be followed by increased participation."[16] The priorities of the State Archives are obvious; the priorities of the State Historical Records Board are undefined. Each of the state reports would have been strengthened if the Board had grappled with the question: "If a certain level of unrestricted new monies became available, what should be

done first — and by whom?" Collectively the reports resemble the interim document, "Planning for the Archival Profession," produced by the Goals and Priorities Task Force of the Society of American Archivists.[17] Goals, strategies, and activities are prescribed without reference to resource allocation. The GAP document explicitly disclaims responsibility for such planning, calling for a new structure in the Society of American Archivists to undertake this function. The assessment projects, however, envisioned the records advisory boards as the appropriate vehicle for statewide planning. Whether they can function in this way, making hard choices among different constituencies and pressing needs, remains to be seen.

Novus order rerum

How will archivists break out of the cycle of low visibility, inadequate resources and lack of control over their institutional missions? Change will be required in both internal and external strategies. The archivist must simultaneously become a more skilled administrator and a more effective cultural advocate.

Consultant Edwin C. Bridges, Director of the Alabama Department of Archives and History, wrote in *Documenting America:*

> In looking at these reports as evidence of the condition of state archives, rather than as a source of information about them, another deficiency becomes apparent — the shortcomings of archivists as administrators. The textbook responsibilities of a manager are to plan, organize, lead and control. State archivists, however, are often so deeply engaged in activity that they fail to carry out these basic managerial responsibilities.[18]

Recognition of the general applicability of Bridges' statement is widespread. Archival administration has not yet emerged as a recognizable professional specialty; it is too often confused with performance of functions such as appraisal at a high level of competence. Administration is qualitatively different, involving management of the total resources of the organization toward its articulated goals. The collections themselves are only one element in a complicated equation involving money, personnel, facilities, and relationships with institutional constituencies. A disproportionate emphasis on the needs of the collections at the expense of the functioning organization imperils both the organization and the collections.

Much of what is needed to strengthen archival administration has already been discussed. Archivists need to learn to quantify, to develop performance measures, to track their organizations over time and forecast their futures. Not only must archivists make choices in allocating limited resources; we must also become more aware of the choices represented in maintaining the status quo. In this effort preparation of a program budget can be invaluable. When all costs are assigned by agency function, the operating, as opposed to the formal, priorities become clear. It is then possible to consider alternative ways of dividing total resources in order to maximize the higher priorities. Too often administrators feel locked in. Adjustments in programs are dictated by positive or negative increments to the operating budget — most often by reductions. With a program budget, it may be possible to totally redesign resource allocation.

Archival administrators must also learn to recognize the stages of growth that characterize agencies and to assign their institution to its proper place. A taxonomy of archival repositories would prove useful in the consideration of certification or accreditation of institutions. When is a repository ready to expand its role in the community? What is an excellent institution, as opposed to one which meets minimum standards? At what point should a repository consider a shift in technology to computer formats? Is the repository's strategy basically forward or retrospective? Is acquisition emphasized over conservation? Is state-of-the-art control over description more important than disposing of the processing backlog? The tendency is to avoid such choices, holding all functions equally important, no matter what the size of the agency or its level of development. This is similar to a financial planner attempting to maximize both long-term gain and short-term income simultaneously; it is simply not possible. The administrator, in consultation with staff members and the governing structure of the repository, takes stock of the organization's assets and the nature of the environment. A strategy is formulated, based on institutional goals. No two repositories will have the same strategy, nor should the strategy remain fixed forever. But it should be possible to distinguish archival institutions by their strategies and the organizational "cultures" which derive from them. The size of the agency is not the critical factor; small and medium size institutions might well be at the frontier in the area of their particular interest. In fact, since our society values pluralism, we might expect that professional leadership might well emerge from institutions at different stages of growth. Differentiation among agencies should mark a vital archival community.

Archivists must adopt new models for their collections and their social function if we are to succeed in shifting the public's attitude to our benefit. Generally speaking, recordkeeping is not a highly valued activity. The public does not make nice distinctions between records management and archival activity; the persistent linkage of records functions with low-level support and procurement indicates the relative status of the activity. Archives are cultural property, not merely sources of information. This concept must be articulated to the public if they are to perceive the community's stake in the survival and use of records. Archivists know that the original documents can be compelling, but they have not used that knowledge effectively. So long as the public acknowledges, grudgingly, that *something* must be done about old records, we may expect a minimum level of funding, comparable to a diet just barely above the starvation level. New resources and initiatives can emerge only if some higher value is engaged. The appeal of unique documents and the human interest stories which surround archival work are assets which archivists can use to build bridges between their activities and the public. In this effort archivists can learn from the museum profession, which considers archives a two-dimensional category of artifact. For the past two years the American Association of Museums has been conducting a nation-wide inquiry into the values museums represent and the contribution they make to the collective human experience. The report of the Commission on Museums for a New Century has agreed on sixteen recommendations to guide planning in the next decade. The report distinguishes between museums' institutional role as society's collective memory and museums as organizations which embody that role.[19]

Museums stress the direct encounter visitors have with artifacts, which results in learning. Thus the process of museum-going (visiting, attending a lecture, participating in an activity) leads to a product (enriching one's life through learning). This perspective is worth incorporating into our own work, which tends to overemphasize the process of research. Consider the formulation of the SAA Task Force on Archives and Society published in the May, 1984, *SAA Newsletter:* four out of five categories of use involved information retrieval for administrative, legal, or research purposes, with "Education and Enrichment" a distant last. Research, retrieval of information and documentation need to be translated into a more concrete product. Despite our preoccupation with historical researchers at the graduate and postgraduate level, they comprise a small fraction of our users and a miniscule segment of the population. So long as archivists continue to assign these individuals the highest ranking on our informal scale of desirable "consumers" of our collections, we may expect the public to know little and care less about archives and archival institutions.

Archivists need new constituencies and new ways of interacting with the public. Since by all accounts archival institutions are struggling for needed resources, we need to adopt a model which offers hope of attracting new support. Archivists can learn from the successful adaptation of marketing models in other not-for-profit organizations.[20] Briefly, marketing focuses on the exchange between sellers and buyers. Four elements — product, price, place and promotion — affect the success of this exchange. Archivists tend to see only their product — the collections — with occasional ventures into small-scale "outreach" activities. However, archival institutions have distinct disadvantages in competing for societal resources. We need to know how to match our unique offerings to interests and needs to present and potential audiences. One can only afford to ignore the preferences of buyers if one does not need their money. Archivists must reexamine our presuppositions about the community we serve and utilize the techniques of market research to learn about our audiences. What obstacles prevent or hinder participation? If we consider the physical location of archival institutions, often housed in a basement or a service building, it is not surprising that individuals do not happen upon our facilities. One must have a purpose — and some determination — to find many archives! If archives have a blank or a negative image in the public mind, we will have to take remedial action to provide contrary or re-orienting experiences. What about establishment of a "friends of the archives" group, with a major component devoted to positive personal interaction with archives staff in a congenial setting? Would most institutions feel such an effort was misallocation of limited resources? The findings of market research need to be integrated into our planning if we are to see results from "going public."

Just what kind of results would we like to see? The first is development of a constituency with ability to influence decisions regarding archival matters, whether that be in a president's or dean's office, at the board of trustees level, or in the legislature. It is never as easy to reduce or eliminate programs with public supporters — they may make noise. Equally important, a public constituency is a potential source of financial support that ought to be cultivated. Most archives rely almost exclusively on their parent organization for

funding, supplemented by state or federal funding through grants. An occasional repository may succeed in securing private foundation funding or a corporate gift, but the whole complicated world of development is *terra incognita* for most archivists. Yet the existence of an endowment, a trust fund, an annual giving program, might provide the needed flexibility for archivists to embark on programs that are necessary or desirable, but not high priority for the parent organization. Getting into the business of raising money in the private sector will put archives into direct competition with other cultural and educational organizations. I believe that we are already in such competition, without realizing it, and coming off a very poor last.

Finally, archivists must learn to deal with risk if we are to move our institutions and programs into more visible and successful roles. Our present low-profile approach has not reduced our organizational vulnerability, and it has made us nearly invisible to the general public. Archival politicians must no longer be legendary figures; they must be found at every level — advocating, bargaining, and representing the archival interest. We will need to sacrifice elements of our programs at times in order to achieve others. This is one reason why the ability to track the performance of an institution over time — in hard numbers — is essential. We need to know what has been sacrificed, and how long that trade-off can be sustained. In the political arena the stakes are real, and the risks sometimes frightening. The rewards, however, can be substantial. If we are committed to preserving and transmitting our culture's documentary heritage, we can no longer avoid the give and take which characterizes decision-making in a democratic society. It is long past time for archivists to enter the mainstream.

FOOTNOTES

1. David B. Gracy II, "Archives and Society: The First Archival Revolution," *American Archivist* 47 (Winter, 1984): 7.
2. *Documenting America: Assessing the Condition of Historical Records in the States.* Lisa B. Weber, ed. (Albany, NY: NASARA, 1984). Abstract in May, 1984, *SAA Newsletter.*
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   South Dakota Historical Records Advisory Board, *Assessment and Planning for Archives and Historical Records in South Dakota* (Pierre, 1983).
   Wisconsin Historical Records Advisory Board, *Planning to Preserve Wisconsin's History: The Archival Perspective* (Madison, 1983).
   Hereinafter cited as, e.g., *Illinois Report.*

4. George W. Bain, "State Archival Law: A Content Analysis," *American Archivist* 46 (Spring, 1983): 158-174. Bain notes that "The best current solution [to separation of powers issue] ... is one that is found in a dozen states or more. Here the law provides for the archival records management agenc[ies] to render services to these two branches [legislative and judiciary] upon an invitation for this assistance. (p. 171). Cf. statutes in Arizona, Maine, Missouri and Tennessee.
5. Bain assigns numerical scores to states based on a content analysis of the state law regarding records. On a national ranking, Illinois, Nebraska, and Ohio fall in the first (top) quartile, Minnesota and Wisconsin in the second, Iowa and South Dakota in the third, and Kansas and North Dakota in the last, with scores ranging from a high of 40 for Illinois to a low of 20 for Kansas, out of a possible 54 points. (Ibid., pp. 166-170).
6. *Illinois Report,* p.3.
7. *Nebraska Report,* p. 21.
8. *Minnesota Report,* p. 15.
9. Anne R. Kenney reporting in "Archival Cooperation: A Critical Look at Statewide Archival Networks," *American Archivist* 46 (Fall, 1983): 428.
10. *North Dakota Report,* p. 19.
11. *Nebraska Report,* pp. 2-4.
12. *Iowa Report,* pp. 17-19.
13. John A. Fleckner, *Midwestern Archivist* 6, no. 2 (1982): 95.
14. Kenney, "Archival Cooperation," p. 429.
15. *Documenting America,* p. 55.
16. *Illinois Report,* pp. 4,5,7.
17. Issued by the Society of American Archivists, Chicago, 1984.
18. *Documenting America,* p. 12.
19. *Museums for a New Century,* Washington, D. C., 1984.
20. For a brief bibliography, see *SAA Newsletter,* September, 1984, p. 9.

WHAT'S YOUR TOTEM? ARCHIVAL IMAGES IN THE PUBLIC MIND.

DAVID B. GRACY II

Consider for a moment: What animal would your choose as a symbol for archivists (and thereby for archival work)?[1] What animal exhibits attributes most closely parallel to our own?

For eons humans have chosen animals to express the brave, dynamic, proud characteristics they have wanted to emulate or project. Our advanced society certainly is no exception. We try to draw strength from, or intimidate opponents by, invoking the traits of animals. Consider the nicknames of athletic teams, for example. Wasn't it the merciless, determined Tigers who triumphed in the 1984 World Series? (The meek, self-effacing Padres had no chance!) Throughout the year, in the Southwest Athletic Conference, the tough, rangy Longhorns, the quick, fierce Razorbacks, the wise Owls, the speedy, persevering Mustangs, the lumbering, relentless Bears, the quick-strike Cougars, and the fearsome, ugly Horned Frogs tear into each other in inter-collegiate athletic competition.

Shift from athletic teams to automobiles: There are Skylarks, Firebirds, Rabbits, Colts, Mustangs, Foxes, and Rams. In the heyday of passenger trains you could ride the Eagle, the Owl, the Wolverine, the Flamingo, and the Hummingbird. Amtrak still runs a few, including the Mule in Missouri. Look to the heavens: who hasn't heard of the Flying Tigers of World War II? Airplanes have carried the names of Hellcat, Cobra, Condor, Hawk, Tigershark, Mustang, Aardvark, and Grasshopper.

In still other spheres, animals represent stations of achievement. In the ranks of scouting young men move from Bobcat to Wolf to Bear, and on up to the coveted, highest rank of Eagle. Even the "high-tech" computer world has its user-friendly "little mouse."

Returning to the original question, what animal would you select to symbolize archivists? What animal exhibits characteristics most closely parallel to ours? The barracuda, eagle, bear, mustang, or owl? How about the elephant? It is the only archivally-adopted animal I have yet run across. The Lennox and Addington County Museum in Toronto, Canada, used a cheery, high-stepping pachyderm as its symbol on "Heritage Day," a day devoted to explaining, discussing, and promoting archival service to society. The elephant was covered with newsprint and surrounded by a circle of words reading: "An Archive Never Forgets: Save Our Heritage." Unfortunately, however, the elephant may not have been the most appropriate symbol for

archivists and archival service to society. At the end of the Heritage Day program on archival enterprise and local history, one member of the audience wrote: "I enjoyed the whole day immensely because I like history. However, I fail to see any relevance of these matters for club records."

If not the elephant, which animals does the public associate with us? I have found three. The most recent association appeared in a July 9, 1984, *New York Times* editorial concerning the decision of the Vatican to open the records of Galileo's trial 351 years after the event. "Through wars, plagues, floods, and fires," the editorial proclaimed, "the squirrels remain to pick up and put away the evidence of our passage through the centuries. Without them we wouldn't have our history, which means we wouldn't have our selves."[2] An animal of similar characteristics that more commonly comes to the public mind is the pack rat. These furry little nuisances stash away paper and other things on general principle, on impulse, and out of instinct. They exhibit neither selectivity nor conviction in what they bring to their nests. Is this the archivist? Another animal the public equates with archivists and archival endeavor is the mole. The mole is subterranean, retiring, shy of the light of day, and lives comfortably in dirt. You may recall the newspaper headline, from a midwestern institution of higher learning that I mentioned in my "President's Page" in the Summer 1984 issue of the *American Archivist*, which reflects this image so succinctly. "Archivist Surfaces to Receive Award," it read, apropos of nothing in the article. Is this the archivist? Not to me!

We speak of the public's image of the archivist and of the archival service to society as if it is something formed by the populace from whole cloth. In fact, of course, the image reflects the presence we do, or at least have in the past, consciously or unconsciously, put forth. The indisputable cause and effect relationship of projection by one group and corresponding perception by another has been starkly and instructively documented by John Molloy, author of the popular, *Dress for Success*. Molloy wrote in another book, *Live for Success*, of a research project on the image of the librarian he conducted for the Texas Library Association. The principles he found at work are universal. The parallels between the library community and the archival community are, I suspect, uncomfortably close.

"When we did research on their image for the Texas Library Association," Molloy begins, "we discovered the public held them in very low esteem. More than 70 percent of those questioned believed that it was not necessary to have a college degree to work in a library and that everyone who worked in a library was a librarian. The fact is," he continues, "that the minimum educational requirement for a librarian is a master's degree and that most of the people you meet in libraries are simply clerks."

"The problem," Molloy reports, "is not one of public ignorance but of poor image. The way librarians dress and conduct themselves gives the public the impression they are glorified clerks. As a result, they are one of the most underpaid groups of people in the United States.... every time there is a budget crunch, the first to feel the impact are the libraries. One of the reasons," his evidence reveals, "is that the people who run them announce through their poor image that libraries are not important places because they are run by unimportant people.

"This is," he concludes, "a classic example of how the perceived socioeconomic image of a group affects its real socioeconomic position."[3]

If the poor public image of librarians and archivists can be traced in part to a common root, archivists at least have begun to recognize the cause. Several who responded to my letter to the SAA membership of December 1983 focused on this point.

"Face it," wrote one, "archivists can be real dull." "I feel our biggest problem as a profession," admitted another, "is our own lack of self-esteem. How can we convince others that we serve an important function in society when we are not convinced of that ourselves?" A third archivist elaborated: "Archivists are partly to blame for their low recognition factor in society. Too many of us come off as passive, uptight hoarders and protectors of materials in our control rather than as people who play a worthy role in society...." This colleague continued, "Since we archivists so often put on a Rodney Dangerfield 'I-don't-get-no-respect' act, we have to admit quite simply that we are often our own worst enemies by not taking pride in our work and not doing it well."

An archivist with twenty years' experience echoes this opinion, summing up the sentiment of many when he observed that "In the years that I have seen go by, I cannot see that the 'profession' has made much progress toward defining what it is about.... We cannot decide what an archivist is," he wrote in disgust, "or how those persons claiming to be archivists should be trained. We have not established any test that archivists must meet if they are to call themselves by that title, and we are only pussy-footing around the issue of standards for archives. We have allowed an allied profession to take over most of our training, and to require that many archival positions be held by persons with the professional training and degrees of that allied profession.... It is going to be difficult to change the image of the archivist in the minds of the public," he concluded bleakly, "when we ourselves are not at all sure what we are."

This archivist's pessimism did not abate when he looked at the "person" of the archivist. "Persons who become archivists and librarians generally choose the profession because they are not in the mainstream," he contended. "They can generally [and would rather] work away from the public.... They can [and would prefer to] work at scholarly rather than public things.... Archivists are not at all knowledgeable about how to obtain publicity, and most of them are in this business for reasons that are the exact opposite of what is needed to get publicity.... Most of them," he concluded dejectedly, "are far too concerned with 'keeping up' to spend much time on public relations."

Is it any wonder, then, that archivists are seen as squirrels and pack rats and moles? Is there any doubt that the most basic, if not the first, step we must take in changing the public's image of us is changing our own impression of ourselves and thus the image we project? We have an obligation to the public and to ourselves to change our image. Archives are not unimportant places run by unimportant people.

We must begin with the way we project ourselves as individuals. Each of us has to decide that he or she wants to break out of our ill-fitting molds. The decision to do so is easy to make when we look around and recognize

change already taking place. Archivists are ceasing to be production workers — employees whose major responsibilities include the production of a certain number of output units, whether they be cubic feet arranged, finding aids produced, or patrons assisted. We perform basic programmatic duties of manager, planner, system designer, leader and supervisor, mediator, writer, speaker, fund raiser, researcher, subject expert, collection builder, budget analyst, proposal writer, statistician, consultant, and entrepreneur.

The problem for archivists is that our performance of these varied duties and responsibilities, little reported by archivists, consequently has been noted only dimly by institution directors and boards or by personnel and budget offices, where traditional concepts of the archivist prevail, and not at all by the general public. The varied work that we do "conforms perfectly with the federal government's characterization of the work of professional employees. It is predominately intellectual and varied rather than routine, manual, mechanical, or physical. It involves the consistent exercise of discretion and judgment in its performance. The output produced or the result accomplished cannot be related to a standard unit of time."[4] Archivists have much to be proud of in their work and many new things to say about it.

Second, we need to provide ourselves and our publics with a benchmark by which to measure archival knowledge, attainment, and quality of being an archivist. This benchmark is a program of certification of individual archivists. In establishing a certification program, the archival profession would define that basic body of knowledge one must have to be recognized as an "archivist." That knowledge comes through education — at annual meetings, in workshops, and/or from the classroom. It comes through on-the-job experience as a practitioner. It is measured in combinations of length of service, nature of work experience, amount and nature of formal education, and by examination. As discussed by the SAA Council at its meeting in May, 1984 (reported in the July 1984 SAA *Newsletter*), certification would include provisions for "grandparenting," tied with a requirement of periodic recertification to encourage continued competency. Recognizing how fundamental practical experience is to sound performance of archival duties, the SAA Council specified that any certification program should include provisions for basic work experience; a person could apply for certification only after having spent a specified minimum number of years in archival service, not simply after completing classroom work.

The SAA Council placed the development of a model for such a program in the hands of the SAA's Committee on Education and Professional Development. A subcommittee, chaired by Susan Grigg of Smith College is preparing recommendations for consideration by the full committee and the Council. In due course, the proposed certification program will be published in the SAA *Newsletter* for comment. Council recognized, however, when it charged the subcommittee, that the initial proposal for a certification program is not likely to be perfect. Whatever final version is adopted will require continued attention and revision. In the first years of a certification program, we cannot let the absence of perfection deflect our resolve. The fundamental purpose of a program for measuring and certifying archival competence is to improve our image in the public mind, thereby enhancing our ability to obtain the resources we must have to perform the service we provide to society.

Third, we must take to the American people, using every forum available to us, the message of what service we perform and why our performing it enriches their lives. We must promote our important work unabashedly, unreservedly, and unstintingly. To do so, we must reach beyond ourselves and enlist the knowledge and expertise of marketing professionals. As one archivist wrote bluntly and truthfully, "If we are to increase public awareness of our holdings and our reasons for being, we must take active, positive steps to present ourselves to our publics. We must live, breathe, and think outreach. It must be our most important product." For the marketer, outreach is vital, but only one arrow in the quiver. We must look to the marketing expert for new concepts and approaches to developing and describing, to packaging and promoting our product — archival service. Marketing is more than selling, more than stocking shelves and waiting for customers to appear. Marketing offers techniques for working with the customer to develop the customer's appreciation of the product. Marketing also works to prepare the product to meet the needs of the customer. The Midwest Archives Conference is taking the lead in this effort. MAC will offer, on the two days prior to its spring meeting in May 1985 a pilot workshop on marketing techniques for archivists. It will be taught by Kevin Flood, Director of Publications for the National Archives and a member of the SAA Task Force on Archives and Society. After the pilot effort, the task force anticipates developing other presentations on marketing archival services in the form of additional workshops and publications.

The changes archivists are working for will not come as quickly or as easily, or be as widespread as we would like. As one writer put it: "We realize of course that decades of neglect and low self-esteem will not change overnight as a result of the efforts of one task force, yet this cannot be used (as it often is) as an excuse for inactivity. SAA at the national level and the regionals at the local levels must actively promote a positive attitude and seek to instill a sense of pride in what we do." There is work to do on every level.

Fourth, every regional archival organization has a role to play in a common effort to reform our image of ourselves and the image that the public has of us. Each regional organization should form a group to coordinate and lead in this endeavor. A Midwest Archives Conference Task Force on Archives and Society could carry forward the projected May 1985 workshops on marketing by developing public relations efforts using the media, events, and educational programs.

Regional archival organizations are in a superb position to establish liaison with local and regional organizations of allied professions, such as the American Records Management Association and the American Library Association as well as municipal clerks and other pertinent associations. The chapters and local components of these associations meet frequently enough to provide opportunity for meaningful cooperation on specific projects. We need to look more closely at the relationship of archival work to the activities of allied professions. Consider the following remarks addressed to the library community, which could just as well have been directed to archivists. In it I have substituted the word "archives" for "library."

> The essential characteristics of society in the information age are instant availability of news and access to the gargantuan amount of informa-

> tion.... How does *an archives* participate effectively in the information age? How does *an archives* remain as one of the primary stakeholders of information? We can't depend on 'business as usual.' In the absence of a national concensus for *archives,* we have become overdependent upon past concepts of what *an archives* is supposed to do, and the role *an archives* is supposed to play in society. The absence of a new role and a new vision for *archives* leaves the community with no visible reason why *archives* should increase their budgets, be upgraded and remain the guardians of information. *Archives* can't accept a no-growth future — a future, where their importance fades away just as the typewriter has given way to the word processor.... The idea that the future holds less promise than the past for *archives* is unacceptable.[5]

The relevance and importance of this message for both the library and the archival communities demonstrates the undeniably strong relationships we have with sister fields in the broad information community. For the several professions within the information community to serve and survive, we — archivists, librarians, and records managers — all must put behind us the defensive, mutually self-destructive and self-defeating attitudes of "my work is more important than your work" and seriously explore means of cooperating in this, the information age.

Fifth, we need to focus attention to the fact that education about the value of archives entails more than just education about the practice of archivists. Education also involves developing a love of the kinds of information we hold. We must work to instill a love of both history and the lessons the public can draw from history. Because the public is often impatient with the humanist arguments for preserving archives; because the public does not want to believe that our documentary heritage can tell us how we got here so that we can chart where we are going; because the public chooses not to accept the truth; this neither invalidates nor justifies abandoning it. Archivists, as individuals and in our organizations, have much to do. One regional archival association, for example, intends to design, print, and distribute a poster promoting an awareness of archives and archival materials. The poster will be designed for use in archival repositories, libraries, businesses, and schools. It likely will be oriented to a particular activity the regional undertakes, such as International Archives Week or a state archives day. It could as easily be linked to a history appreciation week or a heritage day.

Achieving a positive change in the public's knowledge, appreciation, understanding, and support of archival contributions to society is fundamental to our ability to continue to provide such service. That ability is so compromised at this point that the author of a handbook on the methodology of scholarly research writes without hesitation: "Sight unseen you can predict a few things about almost any archives in the world. It's short on money, short on space, short on time, and short on manpower."[6] Let's not also be short on ourselves. We have to believe in ourselves and in what we do by reassessing how we present ourselves, by establishing a program to certify individual archivists, by adopting the techniques of marketing to promote our work, by using regional organizations to carry the message and to promote cooperation, and, finally, by broadening our heretofore narrow approach to educating our publics.

Believing this, it becomes even more imperative to answer the question posed at the outset: what animal would you choose as a symbol for archivists (and thereby for archival work)? What animal exhibits attributes most closely parallel to our own? For me, it is the ant. I always recall the song:

> Just what makes that little ole ant
> Think he'll move that rubbertree plant?
> Everyone knows an ant can't
> Move a rubbertree plant.

If we recognize that we have an image problem, as we should, ... if we believe that we can do something about it, as we can ... and if we work for change, as we ought, it won't be long before we, too, are singing: "Whoops, there goes another rubbertree plant!"

FOOTNOTES

1. The author expresses his appreciation to colleagues Carolyn V. Majewski, Chris LaPlante, and Michael R. Green for their critiques of the manuscript.
2. "Time, the Pope and Galileo," *New York Times,* July 9, 1984.
3. John Molloy, *Live for Success* (New York: Bantam Books, 1983), p. 23.
4. I acknowledge the insight in Allen B. Veaner, "Librarians: the Next Generation," *Library Journal,* April 1, 1984, pp. 623-625, from which this quotation is taken.
5. Dataphase Corporation, "An Open Letter to the Library Community" (advertisement, 1984).
6. Mary-Claire van Leunen, *A Handbook for Scholars* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1978), p. 206.

THE NATIONAL ARCHIVES AT FIFTY

ROBERT M. WARNER

Nineteen eighty-four marks the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the National Archives of the United State.[1] Many events have taken place in celebration of this milestone: the post office issued a National Archives commemorative postage stamp and the National Archives' major exhibition mounted in the Archives building entitled "Recent America" opened to rave reviews. Both the National Association of State Archivists and Records Administrators (NASARA) and the Society of American Archivists held their annual meetings in Washington to add to the festivities. Aside from the celebration, anniversaries are usually time for reflection and reassessment, and this is true for the National Archives, despite our short history as an institution. The point of this activity is, of course, to learn from the past, to help us understand who we are as an institution, and even possibly to indicate where we are going.

The U.S. government began well in terms of records. The Secretary of the First Continental Congress (1774) exhibited solicitous concern for the safety and preservation of the earliest records of our government, and today they are in excellent condition. But by 1797 when President Washington left office, he was obliged to set an unfortunate precedent by taking his papers and records with him since there was no place to deposit them, despite his stated belief that they were a "species of public property." By 1800, after the Federal government had moved to the District of Columbia, the first of a long series of major fires that would vastly reduce America's documentary heritage occurred. The list of these conflagrations is long: in 1800 at the War Department; in 1801 at the Treasury; in 1814 during the British invasion; in 1833 at the Treasury again; in 1836 at the Post Office and the Patent Office, etc.

Official Washington was not blind to the destruction of our nation's records. Congress appointed its first committee to look into the condition of "the ancient public records and archives of the United States" in 1810. (The oldest of the "ancient" records was 34 years old at the time!) Beginning in 1836, various presidents requested appropriations for depositories for safekeeping the archives. Between 1889 and 1903, 30 bills were introduced in Congress to resolve the sad condition of our archives. Finally, in 1903, land was purchased for an archives building but nothing else happened. As one politician wrote years later, "Nobody seemed to take interest enough in the subject to have the building put up after the land was bought." All this was to change in the first few decades of the twentieth century. I would like to say that high-minded or idealistic reasons caused the long-overdue formation of the National Archives, but in fact it was a series of practical and political considerations that ultimately proved decisive.

In the years following the American Civil War the activities of the federal government grew dramatically as the United States grew to world prominence. Increased government activity intensified the problem of housing government records, and civil servants's agitation for an archives grew. At the same time, legislation providing pensions for Civil War veterans was enacted and the initial inability of the government to cope with this massive program brought home to the Congress the necessity of preserving records for use by the government to serve the people. On another front, the growth of graduate education in the United States, following in the wake of American universities adopting of the German requirement of documentation for "scientific" historical writing, transformed historians into a new interest group demanding an archives.

But, even if the conditions were ripe for a national archives to be established, a campaign to convince the Congress to vote the necessary funds was needed. To achieve this end an unusual coalition was assembled. The main component of this group was the American Historical Association. The persistent historians provided essential leadership. From this national organization support in the form of resolutions and letters to Senators and Congressmen was solicited from other organizations, local historical societies, political and patriotic groups, and libraries. Slowly the net spread. But Congress is not noted for its responsiveness either to individual academics or to resolutions passed by learned societies. More was required. The muscle, in terms of numbers, was found in 1921 in the American Legion, the association of World War I veterans. Slowly the Legion's attention was maneuvered away from supporting construction of a massive national memorial in Washington to supporting efforts to properly preserve the records of World War I and eventually to supporting preservation of all the official records of the U.S. government. Undoubtedly, the example of the Civil War pension files proved helpful.

The press was the final component of the coalition. Once the Legion decided to support the idea of a national archives, William Randolph Hearst, the newspaper baron, was not far behind. By 1923 he personally ordered a press campaign to force Congress to act. At the crucial moment in that year's Congressional debates, the Hearst paper in Washington "ran several columns of stories each day, illustrated with photographs of storage conditions for old records" in order to shame the legislative branch into action. Banner headlines proclaimed "United States Is Only Nation of World Lacking Archives Building" and "Entire Legislative History of U.S. Rotting Away in Attic of Capitol." With such a coalition, action was inevitable. But Congress, preserving its prerogatives and its own timetable, waited three more years. Finally in 1926, a provision of the Public Building Act (the first since the war) contained funds for an archives building. The stated reason for the action was classic American pragmatism: "The Archives Building was placed first on the program because... it would provide more general relief [for the overcrowded and poorly housed government] than any other building."

But a building does not a program make, and this is true even if the building was designed by the famed architect John Russell Pope and located on Pennsylvania Avenue exactly midway between the White House and the Capitol. It is significant to recognize that another three years passed between

the time funds were voted for construction of the National Archives building and the action of Congress that established the institution. This means that the building was planned, constructed, and virtually completed without a clear definition of what the duties and responsibilities of the new agency would be, and without any clear thought about who would head or staff it.

It should be recognized that there were at that time in the United States no practicing archivists familiar with federal archives who could have helped with planning the building or organizing the agency. Relatively few states had active archival programs, and none had developed full programs or had built archival buildings. Earlier plans for federal officials to study and tour major European archival institutions had been abandoned during World War I and never revived. However, the European practice of housing archives in buildings initially built for other purposes probably would have made such a tour of limited value. The decision to build a building — modeled more on a monumental Carnegie public library than anything else — and later to create an agency to occupy it, provided a unique opportunity for the pioneer staff at the National Archives to define and create a new profession as they undertook their daily work.

The groundwork for the new profession had been laid in the legislation establishing the National Archives. The 19th century concept of a "hall of records" had been rejected. The National Archives was not to be a mausoleum that contained only the best known documents of state housed in inexpensive space with the agencies that created the records controlling access to them. Instead, the National Archives was to have both physical and legal control of the records in its charge; it was to control access to them; it was given records management responsibilities; it was to include "non-traditional" records like motion pictures and recordings in its holdings; and it was mandated to hire professionally competent persons outside the civil service procedures. This latter point is important, because the success of any organization ultimately rests on the quality of the staff. The National Archives was fortunate in that its initial hiring of staff occurred during the depression years, and talent of the highest quality was readily available. In 1935, when 132 staff positions were filled, the Archives was able to select from 15,000 applicants. The professional staff was mainly comprised of historians, but neither their training nor their experience was easily applied to the new job of dealing with the greatest volume of records in the world. Despite some false starts work began and the process of defining what an archives is and what exactly archivists do was underway.

In the years that followed, numerous achievements in the slowly emerging field of archival administration were realized by the National Archives staff. Many of these were technical; others were theoretical, such as the development of the basic unit of archival control and organization, the record group. But it was in the area of access — making information available — where the National Archives substantially outdistanced all other archival institutions. Almost from the formation of the agency, work was begun preparing guides to the holdings. The first was issued in 1938, within three years of the first researchers' visits. Naturally, phone and mail inquiries were also serviced. The concept of special access — the practice of reserving the best materials for a few (selected on the basis of politics or scholarly reputation)

— was discouraged and quickly disappeared. Perhaps the most important contribution to access was made through the Archives microfilm program. Scholarly organizations had begun microfilming source materials before the National Archives was established. However, the wide use of this medium to preserve information, reduce bulk, and provide quick and easy access for all was an Archives achievement. By 1941 the Archives had microfilmed or otherwise copied over 75,000 pages of records each year. To extend the advantage one step further, the Archives began retaining a negative print of frequently used film so that positive copies could be quickly and economically produced for users.

In 1939 another innovation entered the picture: the first federal presidential library. Franklin Roosevelt conceived the idea of a library that would contain his papers, as well as those of his associates, and various gifts, artifacts, and other memorabilia, in order to fully document both a President's life and his administration. Since 1939 the network of "presidential archival depositories" (as the law calls them) has grown to seven, with the prospect of three additions in the next few years — the Jimmy Carter Library in Georgia, and probably buildings for Presidents Nixon and Reagan in California.

The National Archives was, in a real sense, the creation of historians. As we have seen, most of its professional employees were trained as historians. Yet, as the institution and the profession of archivist developed, everyday concerns began to lead away from the traditional view of making historically important documents available to serious researchers. One of the original arguments for the National Archives was that it would provide service to the various government agencies. This proved to be true, and undoubtedly shaped to some extent the kinds of material preserved in the Archives. But it was the problem of bulk or quantity of government records that demanded a whole new approach by the early archivist-historians.

Years later the Archivist of the United States Wayne C. Grover noted that it was almost inconceivable "that the Federal government, in the twenty-two years from 1930 to 1952, should have created more than seven times as many records as it did during its previous 155 years of history." This fact, Grover stated, was the reason archivists "began to go berserk — frightened at birth, one might say — by a very real monster." Fear of the monster ultimately lead archivists to become involved in every aspect of records from their creation to their destruction or preservation. This level of involvement with what came to be known as the "life cycle of records" promised that the new archivist would not be merely a custodian of discarded documents but rather an invaluable aide in saving money for the government in such areas as space, equipment, and personnel costs.

Government economy and efficiency, plus archivists' concern that appropriate records documenting the activities of the government be created, identified, and preserved, led in the years immediately after World War II to two new functions of the National Archives: record centers and records management. The Archives' initial successes in managing current and semi-current records, and the resulting potential for enormous savings and cost avoidance for the government, proved fatally attractive to the Commission on the Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government (the first Hoover Commission). In 1949 the Commission recommended, and Congress

approved, the inclusion of the Archives in the newly formed General Services Administration (GSA). After 15 years of independence, the Archives, now renamed the National Archives and Records Service (or NARS, the familiar acronym), found itself a small component of a large agency that was primarily concerned with federal supplies and buildings management. Gone were the days when President Franklin D. Roosevelt took a special interest in the National Archives and its work. Today one could hardly imagine a president who, worried about the fate of the large bulk of federal records created during the war, toyed with the idea of turning the Pentagon building into a records storage area after the war.

When the National Archives was absorbed into the General Services Administration in 1949, it appeared, at first, that the new organization would work. NARS' budget increased, as did its influence within the government. The administrators of the new agency, although never very interested in the Archives and its cultural role, were not hostile and tended to handle policy issues with benign neglect. But in time the main role of GSA — to efficiently and economically administer the physical resources of the government — came to dominate NARS as well. Preserving history became a bother, not a goal. Inevitably policy intrusions came, a tendency that culminated in the so-called Nixon-Sampson agreement of 1974, between President Nixon and the Administrator of GSA, which ignored the Archivist of the United States and his professional staff entirely, and provided for the destruction of Presidential papers and tape recordings.

Rather than go into details of the unhappy relationship with GSA, it is sufficient to say that the relationship between the Archives and its parent agency was less than successful. But this sad story has a happy ending. On Friday, October 19, 1984, President Ronald Reagan signed into law a bill reestablishing the National Archives as an independent agency, effective April 1, 1985. In a statement released by the White House at the time of the bill signing, the president said that he "concurred" in the assessment that the National Archives had "suffered as a result of its placement within the General Services Administration." He went on to call attention to the "irreplaceable national treasures" held by the Archives and stated that "the agency that looks after the historical records of the federal government should be accorded a status that is commensurate with its important responsibilities."

Obviously, all of us at the National Archives agree with the president's assessment. But rather than dwell on that part of the past, it would be more appropriate to recount how this legislation came to be. In the tradition of the founding of the National Archives, the independence bill was also the result of a coalition. Once again historians were prominent, firstly as individuals who formed the Emergency Committee to Save the National Archives and the Coalition to Preserve Our Documentary Heritage. In time the National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History assumed its current role as our allied disciplines' voice on Capitol Hill, and came to play a major role in this legislation. Genealogists provided the numbers in this case, and once again the press was crucial. Many other individuals were important, even critical, in the pursuit of independence, and in time I hope to acknowledge their contributions. But by now the lesson should be clear;

coalitions of knowledgeable and determined people are essential to the National Archives.

Public Law 98-497, The National Archives and Records Administration Act of 1984, will have a profound impact on the National Archives and its ability to accomplish its mission in the future. The name of the agency will be changed to the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA), and the next Archivist of the United States will be appointed by the president with the advice and consent of the Senate. But more important, the National Archives will be free to set its own priorities, to tell its own story to the Office of Management and Budget and the Congress, to rise or fall on its own merits. Great changes can be expected, but I am sure that all of these will be clearly aimed toward the accomplishment of the mission of the agency: to make available to the government and to the people the records of all parts of the government that have been determined to have sufficient historical value to warrant their continued preservation. It is probably futile to speculate on the changes that might occur in the next few years, but it does seem clear that there are other forces at work which will change the Archives in the future. Among a few of the emerging issues and problems that the National Archives must confront are the following:

First: the Archives' public visibility and usefulness in the development of public policy will increase. One pundit maintains that Richard Nixon did more for the National Archives than any president since Franklin Roosevelt. He is right insofar as public visibility is concerned. The phenomenal interest in genealogy that blossomed in the wake of the TV series "Roots" also helped to make archives much better known. Having emerged from obscurity, we must expect the information in the National Archives to be used more often by policy makers. This was brought forcefully home to me when I was subpoenaed by the U.S. Senate and ordered to produce "all material in the Archives" dealing with Alexander Haig for use during his confirmation hearings as Secretary of State.

Second: The new National Archives, and particularly the National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC) will have a much larger role in assisting the American archival community, particularly state and municipal archives, whose mission is also to preserve public records. There is an obvious need for this assistance. The National Archives is in the best possible position of any archival institution to provide this service because of its size, its variety of activities and records, as well as its ability to experiment while drawing on the widest pool of expertise.

Third: Technology promises to change the entire information industry in the United States, and the National Archives will certainly be changed in the process. Where these changes will lead is unclear, but our goal in using the new technology must be to aid us in the management and control of the records of the future. For example, National Archives staff are intensively studying the MARC format for the description of records to determine if it is applicable to the holdings of the National Archives. If so, the promise of NARA becoming part of a nationwide network of archival sources is greatly accelerated. In time technology may provide control over the life cycle of records and it may ultimately lead to connections between NARA and the broader network of information sources now being created. Thus access to

archival information, pioneered by the National Archives' use of microfilm, can be further expanded.

Access may also be enhanced by the new storage techniques offered by optical discs and other technological advances. These technologies have the added benefit of contributing in major ways to the massive preservation problem facing archives and libraries around the world. NARA has a great opportunity to assert national leadership here, since no other archives in this country will have the funds or expertise necessary to work in these areas.

Fourth: Archival education must have more attention from NARA in the future. Many of the current programs in basic archival education are fine and should grow and flourish. Remember, however, that Melville Dewey began formal library instruction in 1883 and most archival education programs are less than a decade old. Rapid change and increased complexity of archival problems, legal questions, and sophisticated preservation strategies, to cite but a few examples, will require a high level education. What the configuration of this instruction will be, I do not know. But it will probably not be entry level education because complex problems will require advanced training. The National Archives in Washington will be an essential part of this instruction, which should include Presidential Libraries and records centers, and should be undertaken in cooperation with several major universities. NARA, fortunately, already has, or has planned, facilities on the university campuses of Emory, Michigan, Stanford, and Texas.

Finally, since this article began with a description of the coalition that was formed to establish the National Archives, and stressed the importance of the coalition that was formed to secure the passage of the independence bill, it is fitting to close with a few words about the necessity for a new and permanent coalition to preserve archives. No one would deny that the study of history has experienced a certain renaissance in the past decade. The Bicentennial of the Revolution, the "Roots" phenomenon, and now the approaching Constitutional bicentennial all have contributed to this renaissance. As a nation we delight in historic sites, in genealogy, in historical museums, and even in TV historical epics. Our historical consciousness has been raised and we have all benefited. But at the same time, it seems unbelievable that so few people who are involved with reconstructing their small part of the past or in enjoying and benefiting from the "history boom" have grasped the connection between the preservation of records — primarily public records — and the preservation of history.

At a time of declining (or, at best, static) public support for cultural and educational institutions, archivists, academics, and others who know the value of records have not found a way to unite our various constituencies in ongoing support of our cause. We need to find more effective ways to get the attention and win the support, on a national basis, of the society and government whose documents we so carefully preserve; whose history we record and analyze; whose culture we proudly exhibit. The lesson — that without records there is no history — has not been fully impressed on our leaders or public spirited citizens. We must find a way to do so, and we know from the example of the National Archives independence battle that it *can* be done. Moreover, it must be done if archives are to flourish, museums prosper, and history (in all of its dimensions) is to find its rightful place in the sun.

FOOTNOTES

1. This article is based upon remarks by Robert M. Warner, Archivist of the United States, before the Annual Fall Meeting of the Midwest Archives Conference at the Harry S. Truman Presidential Library in Independence, Missouri, on November 2, 1984.

LEADERSHIP AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT RECORDS: THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON THE MANAGEMENT, PRESERVATION, AND USE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT RECORDS

RICHARD J. COX

Few dispute, at least openly, the value of local government records. For over a century historians, and the antiquarians who preceded them, have used local government records to document political administration, local history, and the lives of individuals and families.[1] By the turn of this century, progressive reformers and public servants began to recognize governmental records as administrative necessities.[2] Archivists, too, have professed the value of local government records. Unfortunately, their commitment has not resulted in providing them with adequate care and protection because of the weakness of state and, especially, national leadership.

The deplorable condition of local government records in the 1980s differs little from conditions in the early twentieth century. The Public Records Commission and the American Historical Association, the Historical Records Survey, and the committees of the Society of American Archivists, the National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators, (NASARA) the Association of Records Managers and Administrators, (ARMA) and the American Association for State and Local History, (AASLH) and the very recent state assessment and reporting projects sponsored by the National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC) all have reached a similar conclusion about the condition of American local government records over the past eight decades — that these records are mismanaged and neglected.[3]

The explanation of the devastating neglect of these records is complex. Local governments have failed to accept the responsibility for properly managing their own records.[4] Society in general has not valued its own heritage enough to cope with the large costs required to preserve the historical records of the political subdivisions.[5] Still, a large portion of the blame for the con-

dition of local government records rests with the American archival profession itself, if only because this profession wants and assumes the responsibility for managing and preserving the documentary heritage. Archivists may not have carried these records off to the dumps and incinerators or fed them to vermin, but they have failed to stop this destruction, at least partly because they have failed to develop and pursue any consistent strategy for caring for local government records in this country.

Attempts to administer local government records in the United States have been as varied as they have been unsuccessful. The earliest plans called for centralizing local records in the newly-created state archival repositories, an arrangement based on the convenience of historical researchers and the assumption that these institutions could provide better care. This was, of course, an unrealistic system proposed by eager and optimistic state archivists seeking to establish their institutions.[6] The development and improvement of micrographics systems offered an alternative to the centralization of original records but the immense resources required to support such a program are beyond the means of most state archives. The Historical Records Survey of the depression years promoted the idea that merely inventorying these records could help convince local officials to care for them better; surprisingly, the 1970s witnessed the resurrection of such efforts in a number of states,[7] even in the face of the obvious failures of the HRS.[8] None of these efforts have resulted in the development of a completely viable means of resolving the problems of administering local government records in the United States.

The recognition of these failed attempts led many archivists, beginning in the 1940s, to urge the local maintenance of these records. Eventually, some state archivists expanded their role to provide leadership for the pressing needs of local governments. The concept of such a partnership emerged in the 1950s, was advanced by Ernst Posner in his *American State Archives* in the mid-1960s, and seemed firmly established by the following decade. Published manuals, workshops, outreach programs, and state-run regional networks became accustomed features among the state archives, and the notion of state leadership and responsibility is, perhaps, the closest there is to a consensus for working with local government records.[9]

State archival leadership has proven to be the most effective approach thus far for the administration of local government records. Instead of struggling to centralize these records, some state archives have developed programs that concentrate upon the education of local officials in records matters and the creation of local programs that can be heralded as models for others to emulate. Leadership, as understood in this context, is the recognition by state archives that they alone cannot resolve all the problems or meet all the needs of local governments, that local governments have a fundamental responsibility for the care of their records, and that the most important goal is the preservation of the historical records of local governments regardless of whether accomplished locally or in a state institution.

Fortunately, there are some such energetic and innovative programs succeeding in the management and preservation of local public records,[10] but such programs are far too rare when compared to the volume of local government records requiring attention. The archival profession has still not completely embraced or accepted the importance and necessity of state leadership

in the preservation of these records.[11] That some states have developed creditable programs for local government records is commendable, but in the absence of a strong archival profession committed to a national agenda for these records, such efforts will remain exceptions rather than the rule. National leadership is needed to promote strong standards that local government officials can follow in the administration of their records. This leadership assumes the inherent interrelatedness of all information generated and used by local, state, and federal levels of government. It supports, as well, leadership by the state archives. Just as state archival leadership is all too often missing, the lack of national archival leadership contributes to the poverty of local government records programs in the United States.

A sustained national leadership in records administration is important for the development of effective records administration programs in local governments. Educational and instructional materials and courses for local government officials are essential but lack credibility until the archival profession strengthens its own educational standards. Rigid standards and definitions of certification — for both individual archivists and archival institutions — will aid local governments in procuring the information and individuals they need for creating modern records programs. Even now, national leadership could provide local governments with models of strong state or local programs while working toward national standards. National leadership is needed to create and promote the standards of archival administration in a manner that not only strengthens the archival profession but clearly communicates to all that there is a profession capable of administering all records regardless of format or location. There is a need for a national mechanism to sustain strong professional standards, cooperate with related professions, and clearly communicate to political subdivisions the rudiments of good records programs.

National leadership is also necessary for identifying what local government records need to be preserved for historical research. Appraisal is generally regarded as one of the weakest components of archival theory,[12] in part because appraisal decisions are made in virtual isolation. Over a decade ago one well-known urban historian argued that only a selective preservation of significant and representative local public records was required by the scholarly research community, and, very recently, an archivist posed the same issue as part of "statewide archival documentation plans."[13] Despite the value of such records to each locality, state archival resources are inadequate for providing comprehensive care to all of them. Archivists must carefully identify local government records based upon purposely composed appraisal criteria and the willingness of political subdivisions to cooperate in such programs.[14] Such selection decisions require intrastate appraisal policies to ensure that the records of historical trends and developments are being salvaged for future research use. National leadership is a minimum requirement for the coordination of such a broad appraisal strategy.

A national plan or agenda is necessary for coping with many issues specifically affecting local government records. Two examples of such issues should suffice. First, nearly all local governments that desire assistance with their records problems desire help with *all* of the records. Unfortunately, the management of current records and archival administration have become

separated over the last several decades, although there seems to be some movement back to the reunification of these functions. To preserve the historical records of local governments, archivists must offer a comprehensive records administration program that promises cost-savings, efficient retrieval of information, and the cultural benefits of the preservation of that government's memory.[15] Second, historical records are deteriorating rapidly and an efficient and effective conservation program must be developed. Such an effort, of course, would require tremendous resources, but, and even more important, national, regional, and state coordination. Few state archival institutions can care in this way for their own records and local governments have even less of a chance to develop adequate programs. Selective microfilming projects and regional conservation centers are perhaps among the most viable alternatives for coping with this problem, but they require significant cooperation among archival institutions and a stronger national leadership.

Despite the poor condition of local government records in the United States, there has been some progress in very recent years. The National Historical Publications and Records Commission has generously supported the development of some effective programs, most notably the establishment and strengthening of municipal archives, the support of regional networks, and the development and publication of manuals and inventories. With the assistance of the NHPRC, NASARA and AASLH have both provided a stronger national focus on these records with promises of greater things to come. Still, even stronger national leadership is needed that reaches down through the states into the localities and both educates and equips the local officials to work effectively with their records. A strong and steady commitment to a national agenda for the improvement and development of local government records programs is a precondition for major changes.

Four such agendas have already been proposed in the 1980s. In 1982, NASARA adopted a platform that it hoped would provide a basis for discussion of "ways to improve and strengthen the management of local government records throughout the United States," intending "to encourage a working partnership between state and local officials" with the state archives as the responsible leader for promoting this. That same year the American Association for State and Local History sponsored the Joint Committee on the Management, Preservation, and Use of Local Government Records. The committee met, deliberated, and concluded that the lack of leadership by the archival profession on both national and state levels is a primary cause for the poor administration of local government records. Perceiving that a major reason for this was the lack of tools and resources, the AASLH committee recommended the creation of an audiovisual program, pamphlet, guide, training packet, independent study programs, and a clearinghouse of information. Another agenda evolved out of the mid-1983 meeting in Atlanta that evaluated the first round of NHPRC-sponsored state assessment and reporting projects. Participants again underscored the leadership role of state archival institutions and the need for improved legislation, education, program standards, and resources. And, finally, Bruce Dearstyne's paper at the 1983 meeting of the Society of American Archivists in Minneapolis summarized and evaluated these earlier agendas, but stressed that local officials themselves possess the "first line" of responsibility for adequately managing their records.[16]

Unfortunately, all of these agendas lack one major element: a stronger commitment by the archival profession. The evaluation of the assessment projects led to adoption of the principle that "at least one prominent national organization or institution should assume national leadership responsibility in redressing the imbalance in archival and records management priorities which hinders progress in local records issues." Although this is, at best, only a generalized statement, it hits upon the fact that without committed national leadership, archivists are left with little more than pronouncements devoid of practical action. The work of the Joint Committee, for example, is leading to the production of materials that still requires leadership, on all levels, to be effectively used. Effective leadership requires a clear commitment to a precise strategy, but even the best strategy is useless without dynamic and aggressive leadership. The condition of local government records is a national problem and requires national leadership for resolution.

The issue of leadership and the origins of the Joint Committee are inexorably intertwined. The catalyst for the creation of the committee was H.G. Jones's book on local government records, a book initiated and published by AASLH.[17] Jones took as a major theme the necessity of national and state leadership, emphasizing that its absence was the major reason for the continuing poor management of these records.[18] The original grant proposal written by AASLH staff and submitted to the NHPRC in 1981 essentially paraphrased Jones's conclusions, which were repeatedly supported by members of the Joint Committee during its meetings and reflected in the final report that was issued in 1983. The committee justified a second grant in 1983 on the grounds of providing the necessary leadership. This proposal stated that "there is no voice of national leadership prepared to begin taking the steps necessary to solve these problems" and concluded that the initial work of the committee could only succeed if it "secures the support of all the professional associations that should be interested in good local records management...."[19]

The formation of the Joint Committee was completed with very careful attention paid to its role as the "voice of national leadership." Aside from a few individuals selected because of their experience and expertise managing or using local government records, the members of the committee consist of representatives of the Association of Records Managers and Administrators, International Institute of Municipal Clerks, National Association of County Recorders and Clerks, National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators, National Center for State Courts, and the Society of American Archivists (a representative of the International City Management Association was added in 1985).[20] The group is designed to avoid the problem that archivists and records managers have traditionally fallen prey to, communicating only within their own ranks and neglecting the very people whose records and concerns they are attempting to address.[21] This committee — composed of creators, archivists and records managers, and users — wrestled with some crucial questions. What did local officials perceive as their needs in records administration? Why did they so frequently avoid seeking the assistance of state archival institutions? How can local officials and archivists cooperate in resolving the problems of administering local public records? How can the associations of local officials assist in resolving the neglect of local records in this country?

The committee's first phase of work resulted in a series of productive and stimulating meetings about the management, preservation, and use of local government records in the United States. The product of these meetings was a report that suggested promoting the benefits of properly managing local government records; encouraging state agencies to assume stronger and more active leadership toward political subdivisions; developing new, and improving existing, orientation and training programs for local officials and records custodians; and developing guidelines for state and local legislation that strengthens the management of public records. None of these concerns are really new and, at best, merely echo the thoughts and opinions of a score of archivists over the past generation and more.

The difference in the work of this committee, however, was its commitment to national leadership. It called for a national body, armed with sufficient resources, to monitor efforts at the local level, to study appropriate issues, and to set and revise priorities concerning local government records. Led by the American Association for State and Local History, a total of nearly $200,000 was obtained from the National Historical Publications and Records Commission and the Andrew Mellon Foundation to continue the work of the committee for two additional years (through 1985).The present agenda, established in 1984, included several major goals. First, the committee intends to produce a brief, general audiovisual program, with accompanying pamphlet, that attractively presents the advantages and elements of records administration to local officials and records custodians. Second, it is working on preparing a more extensive manual on local public records administration that defines and describes the nature of these records, outlines the benefits of effective public records management and the techniques of such management, presents who is responsible, and provides a bibliography and other leads for further assistance. And, finally, the committee is establishing a clearinghouse that local officials and others will be able to use in seeking assistance to resolve their records problems and concerns. The audiovisual program, manual, and clearinghouse are intended to foster the support of other professional associations in this important work.

The agenda of the Joint Committee is, admittedly, an ambitious one, but progress has been considerable. The audiovisual program and accompanying pamphlet were completed and available for use in early 1985. A professional multi-media firm has packaged the audiovisual program itself. Also, in early 1985, the clearinghouse, renamed the National Information Center for Local Government Records, became operative with two staff members at AASLH headquarters to run it. Their primary responsibilities include marketing the audiovisual program and pamphlet, issuing press releases and updates on the work of the Joint Committee and other activities regarding the administration of local government records, and fielding inquiries requesting advice and assistance. Finally, Bruce Dearstyne of the New York State Archives will prepare the manual, which should be published and ready for distribution later in 1985. By 1986, then, there will be an important assemblage of tools and advice available for local government officials and records custodians that can supplement existing model state manuals, archival and records administration handbooks, and training and educational programs, all coordinated by the Joint Committee and the new national information center.

The implications for national leadership should be readily obvious. There are already professional associations and state archival agencies ready to use these tools to supplement existing outreach programs or to create the nucleus of one. With a free distribution of 100,000 pamphlets and 20,000 modestly-priced manuals, it is anticipated that in a relatively short time a large portion of the political subdivisions in this country will have received some exposure to the rudiments of proper records administration. And it is also anticipated, that local governments will apply considerable pressure on state archival institutions to provide statewide leadership. For some state archives, this will provide an opportunity to harness support that could be used to acquire sufficient resources and authority to develop effective local government records programs. For other state archives, the interest might be unpleasant, but, just the same, it could lead to effective local government programs. In one sense, the purpose of the Joint Committee is to awaken or strengthen the state leadership needed for improving the administration of local government records.

The success of this new effort is, of course, dependent upon the continued existence of the Joint Committee and the newly created National Information Center. If only a few tools are created but no national mechanism to promote them, improvement in the administration of local government records will probably be marginal. To some degree, the sustained interest of other professional associations, like the International Institute of Municipal Clerks, will probably prevent this from happening. More importantly, however, the Joint Committee, along with its National Information Center, has every intention of continuing beyond the time limits of its second grant. Details and funding remain to be worked out and will be a major subject of the committee's deliberations over the next year, but a number of prospects are possible. Additional projects may be identified that could be attractive to the NHPRC and the Mellon Foundation. Associations that are represented on the Joint Committee might finance the ongoing work of the committee, especially the National Information Center. Other associations, like NASARA, might have the resources to assume some of the responsibility for the work after 1985. Equally promising, perhaps, is the work of other associations with similar concerns for national leadership, such as the Society of American Archivists' Goals and Priorities Task Force and the Archives and Society Task Force.

The management of local government records in the United States, and the preservation of those having historical value, is an immense challenge. To succeed, energetic and imaginative leadership is needed on both state and national levels. There are some good state programs and even model records programs in local governments themselves, but national leadership is especially crucial. National leadership is needed to draw national attention to the problem, encourage and equip state archives to provide better and greater assistance, assist local governments to undertake the proper management of their records, and develop strong professional standards that clearly communicate the necessity of the work of the archivist at all levels of government. The AASLH committee is only a start in the development of the type of national leadership that is required, but it represents an opportunity to be seized. One final note about the AASLH's involvement in this work: despite this association's long work with history museums, historic preserva-

tion, and the interpretation and use of historical sources, it has been the only professional association to provide strong leadership in the management and preservation of local government records. Other national archival, historical, and government associations need to join with and support AASLH in this important labor.

FOOTNOTES

1. Herbert Baxter Adams in 1884 emphasized the locality — including its government — as a training ground for professional historians because it was a "natural" place to begin an analysis of the past, each individual being most familiar with their locality. See his *Methods of Historical Study,* The John Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, series 2, nos. 1-2 (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, 1884), pp. 5, 15-16, 26-27. This volume was as much a summation of recurring themes and interests of American historians as a presentation of new ideas.
2. In fact, this trend gave rise to the creation of the first state archives. See William S. Price, Jr., "Plowing Virgin Fields: State Support for Southern Archives, Particularly North Carolina," *Carolina Comments* 29 (March 1981): 41-47.
3. For the most recent summary, see Richard J. Cox, "Local Government Records Programs," in *Documenting America: Assessing the Condition of Historical Records in the United States,* ed. Lisa B. Weber (Albany, N.Y.: National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators in cooperation with the National Historical Publications and Records Commission, 1983), pp. 19-36.
4. Bruce W. Dearstyne, "State Programs for Local Government Records: Agents for Change," (Paper presented at the Forty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Society of American Archivists, Minneapolis, October 7, 1983)
5. These are, of course, subjects for other studies and essays of the sort that archivists have continued to ignore at the expense of the growth of their profession's theory: see Frank G. Burke, "The Future Course of Archival Theory in the United States," *American Archivist* 44 (Winter 1981): 40-46.
6. Solon J. Buck, "Local Archives: Should They Be Centralized at the State Capitol? Advantages and Disadvantages of Such a Centralization," American Historical Association *Annual Report,* 1913, 1: 268-71; Theodore C. Pease, "The Problem of Archive Centralization with Reference to Local Conditions in a Middle Western State," American Historical Association *Annual Report,* 1916, 1: 151-54; and Leon De Valinger, Jr., "The Place of County Records in the State Archival System," *American Archivist* 11 (January 1948): 37-41.
7. Luther H. Evans and Edythe Weiner, "The Analysis of County Records." *American Archivist* 1 (October 1938): 186-200; J. M. Scammell, "Local Archives and the Study of Government," *Ibid.* 2. (October 1939): 225-43; Dale A. Somers, Timothy J. Crimmins, and Merl E. Reed, "Surveying the Records of A City: The History of Atlanta Project," *Ibid.* 36 (July 1973): 353-59; and Mary S. Pearson and Robert S. LaForte, "The Eyes of Texas: The Texas County Records Inventory Project," *Ibid.* 40 (April 1977): 179-87.
8. Not only was the improvement regarding these records transitory, but the archival profession managed to ignore the HRS inventories and other publications for over thirty years. See Leonard Rapport, "Dumped from a Wharf into Casco Bay: The Historical Records Survey Revisited," *American Archivist* 37 (April 1974): 201-10.
9. Howard W. Crocker, "The New York State Local Records Program," *American Archivist* 20 (January 1957): 31-40; Charles E. Hughes, Jr., "Problems in Administering Local Records," *Ibid. 25* (April 1962): 151-57; David C. Duniway, "Where Do Public Records Belong?" *Ibid.* 31 (January 1968): 49-55; Ernst Posner, *American State Archives* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp.335-37, 340-41, 363-64; H. G. Jones, "North Carolina's Local Records Program," *American Archivist* 24 (January 1961): 25-41; John A. Fleckner, "Cooperation as a Strategy for Archival Institutions," *Ibid.* 39 (October 1976): 447-59; and David

Levine, "Regional Depository Systems: The Complications of Compromise," *Georgia Archive* 7 (Fall 1979): 6-9; Jones, *Local Government Records: An Introduction to Their Management, Preservation, and Use* (Nashville: American Association for State and Local History, 1980); "Assault on Paper Mountain," *History News* 38 (April 1983): 21-23; and Bruce W. Dearstyne, "Principles for Local Government Records: A Statement of the National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators," *American Archivist* 46 (Fall 1983): 452-57.

10. The development of the North Carolina local public records program in the 1950s is one of the best documented examples of what can be accomplished. But other innovative efforts have continued to appear, including New York's and Kentucky's use of funds for the National Historical Publications and Records Commission to foster the creation of model local programs.
11. H. G. Jones, "The Pink Elephant Revisited," *American Archivist* 43 (Fall 1980): 473-83.
12. So weak, in fact, that Richard C. Berner was forced to ignore it in his study of archival theory; see his *Archival Theory and Practice in the United States: A Historical Analysis* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1983), pp. 6-7.
13. Sam Bass Barner, Jr., "The Shame of the Cities: Public Records of Metropolis," *Midwestern Archivist* 2, no. 2 (1977): 27-34, a published version of a paper presented earlier at the 1971 meeting of the Society of American Archivists; and Dearstyne, "State Programs for Local Government Records."
14. As Dearstyne would argue, and rightly so, the development of public records programs at the local level would allow state archival institutions to utilize their resources more effectively in other needed areas such as statewide documentation strategies and public outreach programs.
15. Above all we must have balanced programs. For examples of what happens with records programs skewed one way or the other, see Ian E. Wilson, "A Noble Dream: The Origins of the Public Archives of Canada," *Archivaria* no. 15 (Winter 1982-83): 16-35, and Richard J. Cox, "The Need for Comprehensive Records Programs in Local Governments: Learning by Mistakes in Baltimore, 1947-1982," *Provenance* 1 (Fall 1983): 14-34.
16. Dearstyne, "Principles for Local Government Records" and "State Programs for Local Government Records;" "Assault on Paper Mountain," *History News;* and Weber, ed., *Documenting America,* p. 64. In the case of NASARA, it is in the process of expanding its membership to local governments and the Federal government, becoming the National Association of *Government* Archives and Records Administrators.
17. Gary Gore to H. G. Jones, 15 October 1976; Jones to Gore, 1 November 1976; Gore to Jones, 19 November 1976, and 24 November 1976; Jones to Gore, 26 November 1976; Gore to Jones, 2 February 1977 and 9 February 1977. Copies of this correspondence are in the author's possession due to the generosity of Dr. Jones.
18. Jones, *Local Government Records,* p. 20.
19. Copies of all records of the Joint Committee are in the possession of the author, a member of the committee. Those seeking further information about these records or the nature of the project should contact the American Association for State and Local History.
20. The original members of the committee include Edward N. Johnson, chair and a records management consultant; Richard J. Cox, former municipal archivist and records manager; Donna Culbertson, city clerk; Thomas G. Dibble, National Center for State Courts; Don H. Doyle, history professor; F. Gerald Ham, state archivist; A. K. Johnson, Jr., National Association for State Archives and Records Administrators; H. G. Jones, former state archivist and author of numerous studies in local government records; Charlotte Burrie, city clerk and representing the International Institute of Municipal Clerks; John Noble, municipal records manager and representing the Association of Records Managers and Administrators; William S. Price, Jr., state archivist and representing the Society of American Archivists; Oscar Soliz, district clerk and representing the National Association of County Recorders and Clerk; and James Summerville, American Association for State and Local History. In 1985 Picot Floyd, for the International City Management Association and Helen Kawagoe, for the IIMC, were added.
21. This was a problem even in the NHPRC-sponsored assessment and reporting projects. Few state archives made efforts to work closely with local government professional associations and officials but, instead, continued to emphasize communication with professional archivists and historians.

CASE STUDIES

EDITOR'S NOTE

With this issue *The Midwestern Archivist* offers the case study as a new feature. A case study describes and analyzes specific activities, generally based on the experiences of a single institution, dealing with a routine archival function or a special project or problem. It describes the project or activity and assesses the results in sufficient detail to allow for comparison to similar experiences elsewhere and thus helps form the basis for subsequent research on, and analysis of, related projects, programs, or problems.

As Francis Blouin affirmed in his article on the value of the case-study method in archival education (*American Archivist,* January 1978), the work of archivists consists of applying a relatively few general principles to specific situations. Case studies can provide an opportunity to observe this process in a variety of institutions. They can illuminate the means of analysis and decision-making about archival questions. Experienced archivists, as well as newcomers, can benefit from reports on the application of established principles and methods to specific settings.

This journal and others have published articles in the past which fit the criteria for a case study. However, by giving prominence to this particular format, the editorial board hopes to promote its refinement and its use as an educational tool. The two cases which follow originated as articles submitted during the time in which the editorial board was considering this new format. They offer an illuminating comparison of two survey and documentation projects in very different sets of circumstances. The board welcomes comments and suggestions on the case-study format as well as submissions of cases for future publication. Case-study guidelines are available from the board chair.

ESTABLISHING A VIETNAM WAR VETERANS ARCHIVES

ELAINE D. ENGST

In January 1981, the Department of Manuscripts and University Archives at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, entered into an agreement with the Vietnam War Veterans Archives and History Center of Santa Rosa, California. The Department agreed to become the repository for records collected by the Center, documenting the experience of individual soldiers during the Vietnam War. This article will consider the history of the project and the various strategies devised to survey and collect materials, examining the relationship between an archival repository and an advocacy group in collecting contemporary records.

The Department of Manuscripts and University Archives at Cornell University was established in 1942 as the Collection of Regional History to document everyday life in the region. In 1951, the focus was expanded by the formation of a university archives program. The extent of departmental holdings was increased further in the mid-1960's when collecting efforts were expanded, particularly in the areas of agriculture, architecture, city and regional planning, medicine and health care services, and politics. In 1972, the Cornell Program in Oral History was merged with the archival program to form the Department of Manuscripts and University Archives. Holdings of the Department total over 25,000 cubic feet, and present storage facilities offer space for substantial collection growth. The staff of the Department includes four archivists, ten support staff, and student assistants.

The Vietnam War Veterans Archives and History Center, as the veterans' project was ultimately called, was conceived and implemented by the efforts of two concerned individuals, one of whom was a veteran himself, under the auspices of a veterans' group. Initially seen as a library, the Center's development into an archival project and its association with an established repository was largely a response to requirements of federal funding agencies.

The project was initiated by members of Flower of the Dragon, a community-based veterans' organization in northern California, formed in 1973 to conduct various counseling and small business development projects. The work with individual veterans and their families revealed that many veterans had items from their war days. Some were interested in having a place where these materials could be maintained and made available to people who wanted to know about the experiences of soldiers in Vietnam. In 1979, the group submitted to various foundations a "concept paper" for a Vietnam Veterans War Memorial Library. At that time, the goal of the project was the provision of public access to information on the experience of the indi-

vidual veteran through "a broadly conceived collection of personal narratives ... the core of which will be oral histories. From the enlisted person to the general, the veteran will be provided the opportunity to articulate his or her own experience of the war, and a composite of these experiences will present a comprehensive overview of the war's military and social history." The plans included a major oral history project; the acquisition of a comprehensive collection of written personal accounts including letters, journals, and diaries as well as published works; and the purchase of a small reference collection.

During the course of 1979, a grant proposal was submitted to the Special Projects Division of the National Endowment for the Humanities for what had now become an archives project. As that proposal states, "Military reports, governmental documents, journalistic accounts and historical evaluations are the bulk of what information is currently available to us — and they are primarily summaries, spectator, and second-hand accounts.... Currently there is no major public archive which focuses on the Vietnam War or Vietnam veterans. Vietnam veterans have been reluctant to contribute to the collecting programs the military has initiated and ... universities seem to have only minor special collections of this nature." The original project had five major goals: 1) to plan and conduct a non-repository records survey of individual veterans and veterans' organizations, 2) to develop a core collection of oral history interviews, 3) to establish a national advisory board for the project, 4) to develop a variety of public education programs, and 5) to establish a formal relationship with an institution to serve as a repository for the collection. NEH reviewers were favorably impressed with the proposal in general, but felt that the project was too large and diffuse in scope. Under a planning grant of $17,496, awarded for a six-month period, project personnel visited several repositories and held discussions with veterans' organizations and other funding agencies. They confirmed both the lack of any major subject collections on the Vietnam veteran and the high level of interest and support for a project of this nature. Another result of these visits and discussions was a shift in focus away from developing an independent special library and towards a more clearly defined archival project. The role of Flower of the Dragon was to locate and collect records rather than to administer an archives or found a new repository. However, the oral history project and the development of public programs using primary resources were maintained as objectives.

The NEH Special Projects Division then awarded the project an additional $25,000 nine-month planning grant for March - November, 1980. During that period a National Advisory Board was established, and a one-day meeting was held in Washington. Members of the board included historians, journalists, and others involved in the study of the war or of veterans, as well as professional archivists. The group discussed the range of issues raised by the project. The members of the group agreed on the significance of veterans' records. One member stated, "We should collect anything and everything on the war." The need for a permanent repository was affirmed. There were discussions of funding needs, of the survey forms and methodology, and of the oral history program. A report of the meeting was compiled and distributed to participants.

Under this second planning grant, a pilot records survey was conducted in order to test survey forms and methods and to obtain information about

the nature of primary sources on the Vietnam War that were currently in private hands. For this pilot survey, questionnaires were mailed to a total of 40 organizations and individuals. The sample included current Vietnam veteran-related organizations, selected veterans, and other individuals with national reputations as activists in Vietnam veterans issues. Twenty-six organizations responded, half of them reporting that they had records. Responses were also received from six individuals, all of whom had materials. This survey showed that a wide variety of Vietnam War veterans records did exist and had not yet been given to any repository. Project personnel concluded that a mailed survey questionnaire could produce effective results.

During this time, an application was submitted to the National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC) for a one-year project to conduct the non-repository records survey in order to locate Vietnam War veterans' papers. An Archival Advisory Board, composed of archivists from the National Advisory Board, would help find a potential repository, compile a list of current and defunct Vietnam veteran organizations, and compile a list of individuals likely to own or have responsibility for Vietnam veterans' papers. However, the primary goal of the project was to locate personal papers and organizational records currently in private hands through the use of the mailed survey questionnaire. The basis of the survey would consist of lists of organizations and individuals which were to be compiled, internal networks within the veteran community, and contacts available through supportive programs, as well as use of articles in major newspapers, national magazines, and veterans' newsletters. Through these means, an estimated three thousand organizations and individuals could be directly surveyed by the project staff with a mailed questionnaire. The procedure ultimately chosen, however, was one using members of veterans' networks to distribute large numbers of questionnaires in person or by including them in mailings sent by the organizations for other purposes.

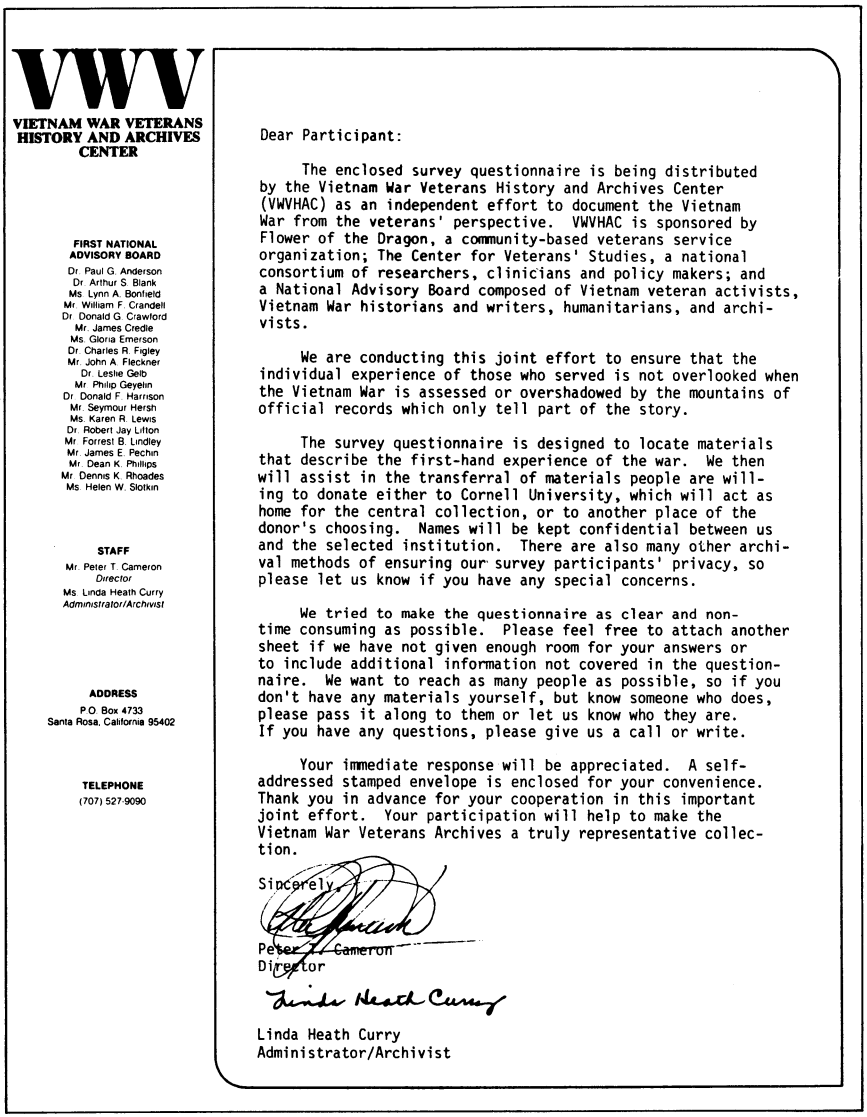
In late October 1980, the NHPRC notified the Vietnam War Veterans Archives and History Center, as the project was now called, that it had been awarded a conditional grant of $37,000 for the survey project. Before funds would be released, the project staff had to secure a formal written commitment from an archival institution agreeing to become the repository for materials located by the survey. Through experience under the two planning grants, the staff was aware of the problems in obtaining an agreement with a repository before the survey results had been received. Project staff had previously visited a number of repositories but no decisions had been made. In November of 1980, Linda Curry, the project archivist, held a series of discussions with staff members at Cornell University. For a number of reasons, a cooperative relationship was attractive. Cornell has one of the largest Southeast Asia programs and library collections in the country. The archival program was strong, with adequate facilities and stable support. Faculty and staff showed a high degree of enthusiasm for the project, and the veteran community generally perceived Cornell as politically neutral. At Cornell, efforts were made through formal and informal meetings to ascertain the interests of faculty and other potential users in such a collection. The Library, because of its Southeast Asia collections, was primarily interested in records documenting events in Vietnam itself. Other faculty members seemed more concerned about the experience of veterans after the war.

After considerable internal discussion about the advisability of undertaking a new collecting program in cooperation with a relatively unknown group based a considerable distance away, the Department of Manuscripts and University Archives responded with a limited commitment. The Department would become the repository for the Vietnam War Veterans' Archives and History Center project under conditions which included accessioning records collected by the project, not exceeding a total of 150 cubic feet for the first year (an amount deemed to be manageable for accessioning and processing); appraising records to determine which documents should be retained and which should be returned to the donor; and providing permanent maintenance and reference service. The Vietnam Veterans Archives and History Center was to be responsible for collection development field work and the actual physical transfer of material. In December 1982, both participants would reassess the entire project and decide on the future of cooperative efforts based on the survey results, the quality and quantity of records accessioned, the research use potential of the records, and the resources necessary to maintain and service the collection. It was also stated that Cornell could not expand its commitment of resources without external support.

With Cornell's commitment, NHPRC funds were made available for the records survey to begin. The first few months of the survey project were spent refining the final version of the survey form, an 8 1/2-by-14 inch double-sided questionnaire (Figure 1, Figure 2a. and 2b.). The questionnaire asked about the military background of veterans and the types and quantities of war-related materials that they held. Over forty-seven thousand questionnaires were ultimately distributed through offices that had agreed to pass them out to clients, employees, and/or members. The bulk of the questionnaires went to veterans' affairs offices at state and junior colleges across the country. Otherlarge distributors included the Veterans Administration Vet Centers located in major cities and the National Task Force on Agent Orange. These networks were seen as complementary because veterans' offices tended to provide access to latter-period Vietnam veterans with no emphasis on combat experience, the Vet Centers provided access to combat veterans with no emphasis on time period, and the Agent Orange Task Force to early-period Vietnam veterans with an emphasis on combat experience. Additional questionnaires were distributed by other organizations including the Vietnam Veterans of America, The National Congress of Puerto Rican Veterans, and Vietnam Veterans Against the War.

During the summer of 1981, the project and Cornell prepared a brochure to describe the project to potential donors and to answer some of the basic questions they might have. During the same period, there were major organizational changes. Because of concern over governmental funding cuts to Flower of the Dragon, the staff of the Vietnam War Veterans Archives and History Center decided to change corporate affiliation to the Center for Veteran Studies, a national consortium of researchers on issues regarding the Vietnam veterans. The latter group was expected to be in a better position to sponsor fundraising efforts.

In September 1981 the Archival Advisory Board (which now included staff of the Department of Manuscripts and University Archives at Cornell) met during the annual meeting of the Society of American Archivists in



VWV

VIETNAM WAR VETERANS HISTORY AND ARCHIVES CENTER

FIRST NATIONAL ADVISORY BOARD
Dr. Paul G. Anderson
Dr. Arthur S. Blank
Ms. Lynn A. Bonfield
Mr. William F. Crandell
Dr. Donald G. Crawford
Mr. James Credle
Ms. Gloria Emerson
Dr. Charles R. Figley
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Dr. Robert Jay Lifton
Mr. Forrest B. Lindley
Mr. James E. Pechin
Mr. Dean K. Phillips
Mr. Dennis K. Rhoades
Ms. Helen W. Slotkin

STAFF
Mr. Peter T. Cameron
Director
Ms. Linda Heath Curry
Administrator/Archivist

ADDRESS
P.O. Box 4733
Santa Rosa, California 95402

TELEPHONE
(707) 527-9090

Dear Participant:

The enclosed survey questionnaire is being distributed by the Vietnam War Veterans History and Archives Center (VWVHAC) as an independent effort to document the Vietnam War from the veterans' perspective. VWVHAC is sponsored by Flower of the Dragon, a community-based veterans service organization; The Center for Veterans' Studies, a national consortium of researchers, clinicians and policy makers; and a National Advisory Board composed of Vietnam veteran activists, Vietnam War historians and writers, humanitarians, and archivists.

We are conducting this joint effort to ensure that the individual experience of those who served is not overlooked when the Vietnam War is assessed or overshadowed by the mountains of official records which only tell part of the story.

The survey questionnaire is designed to locate materials that describe the first-hand experience of the war. We then will assist in the transferral of materials people are willing to donate either to Cornell University, which will act as home for the central collection, or to another place of the donor's choosing. Names will be kept confidential between us and the selected institution. There are also many other archival methods of ensuring our survey participants' privacy, so please let us know if you have any special concerns.

We tried to make the questionnaire as clear and non-time consuming as possible. Please feel free to attach another sheet if we have not given enough room for your answers or to include additional information not covered in the questionnaire. We want to reach as many people as possible, so if you don't have any materials yourself, but know someone who does, please pass it along to them or let us know who they are. If you have any questions, please give us a call or write.

Your immediate response will be appreciated. A self-addressed stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience. Thank you in advance for your cooperation in this important joint effort. Your participation will help to make the Vietnam War Veterans Archives a truly representative collection.

Sincerely,

Peter T. Cameron
Director

Linda Heath Curry
Administrator/Archivist

Figure 1

Berkeley. At this meeting, theoretical questions about the project and about the relationship between the Vietnam Veterans Archives and Cornell were discussed. One result was a decision to reduce further survey distribution and to concentrate on following up survey responses. The staff at Cornell prepared a set of donor instructions, a certificate-of-gift form, and a biographical information sheet, which were then reviewed and modified by the project staff in Santa Rosa and by the Advisory Board.

VWV
VIETNAM WAR VETERANS HISTORY AND ARCHIVES CENTER

P.O. Box 4733, Santa Rosa, CA 95402
(707) 527-9090

1. Name:_____ 2. Phone Number:( )_____

3. Current Address:_____

4. Permanent Address:_____

5. PLEASE CHECK each category which describes you personally:
   - [ ] Vietnam War Veteran
   - [ ] Vietnam Era Veteran
   - [ ] Career Military
   - [ ] Civilian in Vietnam (please explain):_____
   - [ ] Other (please explain):_____
   - [ ] Relative of Vietnam Veteran
   - [ ] Friend of Vietnam Veteran
   - [ ] Employee/Member of Veterans Group

NOTE: QUESTIONS 6-16 ARE DESIGNED TO TELL US SOMETHING ABOUT YOUR VIETNAM WAR EXPERIENCE. IF YOU ARE NOT A VIETNAM VETERAN, BUT RECEIVED MATERIALS FROM ONE, PLEASE TRY TO DESCRIBE HIS/HER EXPERIENCE IN THIS SECTION.

6. Which state did you live in before entering the service?_____

7. PLEASE CHECK the branch of service you were in:
   - [ ] Army
   - [ ] Navy
   - [ ] Marines
   - [ ] Air Force
   - [ ] Coast Guard

8. What rank(s) did you hold in Vietnam?_____

9. What was your job specialty or duties in Vietnam?_____

10. What unit did you belong to in Vietnam?_____

11. Dates in service: From _____ To _____

12. Dates in Vietnam: From _____ To _____ [ ] Never in Vietnam

13. Were you in combat? [ ] Yes, for _____ months [ ] No

14. Were you drafted? [ ] Yes [ ] No

15. Which campaigns/operations, if any, were you in?_____
    _____ [ ] None

16. What was your age in Vietnam?_____

17. What ethnic group do you belong to?_____

18. Do you have any letters that were written by you or someone else in Vietnam?
    [ ] Yes, I have about _____ altogether. [ ] No

19. Do you have any letters describing the readjustment you or someone else experienced after returning home from Vietnam?
    [ ] Yes, I have about _____ altogether. [ ] No

20. Which of the following items do you now have in your possession? CHECK ALL THAT APPLY:
    - [ ] Diaries, Journals
    - [ ] Scrapbooks
    - [ ] Orders, Plans, Maps, Reports
    - [ ] Unit Histories, Handbooks
    - [ ] Other (please describe):_____
    - [ ] GI Underground Newsletters
    - [ ] Calling Cards
    - [ ] Tape Recordings
    - [ ] VC Papers, Vietnamese Books
    - [ ] None

21 A. Do you have any photographs, slides or films taken in Vietnam? [ ] Yes, I have about _____ photographs, _____slides, and/or _____films. [ ] No

B. If Yes, which of the following kinds of pictures do you have? CHECK ALL THAT APPLY:
   - [ ] On Base, Routine Duties
   - [ ] Patrol/Maneuvers
   - [ ] Combat Action
   - [ ] Hospital/Wounded
   - [ ] S.E. Asian Cities/Countryside (where?):_____
   - [ ] Other (please describe):_____
   - [ ] Buddies, Unit
   - [ ] Civilian Volunteers
   - [ ] Vietnamese
   - [ ] R & R

Figure 2a.

VWV
VIETNAM WAR VETERANS HISTORY AND ARCHIVES CENTER

Side 2

22. Which, if any, of the following kinds of unpublished writing do you have on the Vietnam War experience (besides diaries, journals or letters)? CHECK ALL THAT APPLY:
[ ] Fiction [ ] Poetry
[ ] Non-Fiction [ ] Theater or Movie Script
[ ] Other (please describe):_____ [ ] None

23. Which, if any, of the following kinds of original artwork do you have on the Vietnam War experience? CHECK ALL THAT APPLY:
[ ] Drawings [ ] Sculpture
[ ] Paintings [ ] Posters
[ ] Music [ ] None
[ ] Other (please describe):_____

24. Do you have any mementoes, uniforms, medals, or other artifacts from the Vietnam War?
[ ] Yes, I have_____
_____ [ ] No

25. Do you have any written or taped interviews, newspaper clippings, or magazine articles about your experience in Vietnam (or about the Vietnam veteran whose materials you have)?
[ ] Yes [ ] No

26. If all this material were put together, about how much space would it take?
[ ] 1 shoebox or less [ ] 1 file drawer
[ ] 2-3 shoeboxes [ ] More than 1 file drawer (please specify _____ file drawers)
[ ] ½ file drawer

****

27. Have you already donated any of your materials to a library, archive, historical society, museum, or other repository?
[ ] Yes (please give the repository's name, city & state):_____
_____ [ ] No

28. Do you know of any (other) repositories that have collected Vietnam veterans materials?
[ ] Yes (please give their names, cities & states):_____
_____ [ ] No

29A. Do you have any materials you would be willing to donate to the VIETNAM WAR VETERANS ARCHIVES (located at Cornell University)?
[ ] Yes [ ] Maybe [ ] No

B. If Maybe, please explain your situation:_____

C. If No, is there anywhere else you would like to donate them? (please give repository's name, city & address):
_____

30. WHEN WE READ OVER YOUR ANSWERS TO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WE STILL MAY NOT BE ABLE TO TELL IF YOU HAVE ANYTHING YOU THINK SHOULD GET SPECIAL ATTENTION FROM US. Which, if any, of your materials do you feel has special interest or importance (either to you personally or to other people who haven't seen it yet)?
_____
_____

****

31. Would you be willing to personally distribute these survey questionnaires to people you know who have Vietnam War veterans materials?
[ ] Yes, I could pass out _____questionnaires [ ] No, can't help this way

32. PLEASE LIST the people, if any, to whom you would like us to mail a questionnaire.
[ ] Don't know of any

Name:_____
Street Address:_____City: _____ State: _____
Name:_____
Street Address:_____ City:_____ State:_____
Name:_____
Street Address:_____ City:_____ State: _____
(Please attach an additional sheet, if necessary, to answer this or any other questions.)

Figure 2b.

By this time, responses were beginning to come in and selection criteria were necessary. The responses could be divided into three general categories: No materials/No donation, Yes materials/No donation, and Yes materials/ Yes donation. A small proportion of individuals responded, about two percent of the total number of questionnaires sent to distributors. Because most of these questionnaires had been sent in bulk to distribution points, it is likely that most were never actually given to individuals. In view of this low rate of response, selection criteria could be simple. All respondents who listed a variety of materials and stated no serious reservations about donating materials were sent letters requesting donation. A number of forms indicated photographs only. Many of these veterans were willing to loan their photographs so that copies could be made. Because no funds were available for copying photographs, these forms were temporarily set aside. All responses were acknowledged and a sheet of suggestions for home care of various kinds of materials was sent to all respondents. During the last two months of the funding period, about 250 collections were requested for donation. At Cornell, a staff member accessioned and processed collections as they came in. Project procedures were also clarified. The Vietnam Veterans Archives and History Center provided the cover letter requesting donation of materials; other documents were on Cornell letterhead. Project staff answered general questions and any veteran-related questions; technical questions regarding Cornell's handling of materials and other specific donor arrangements were to be handled by Cornell staff.

NHPRC funding ended in January 1982, and efforts to find continuing sources of funding were unsuccessful. On January 20, the Vietnam Veterans Archives and History Center disbanded. A final report was prepared for the NHPRC, and all the project files were transferred to Cornell. At the time of the project's conclusion, the Archives had received twenty-five small collections (a total of about two cubic feet) of personal papers and other items. Of those collections, four were received as a direct result of the survey. Another two were sent in response to the earlier pilot survey. Most had been collected at Santa Rosa as a result of personal contacts by the project staff. Additional collections have been received since then, from the survey and from other publicity about the project, for a total of forty-four collections (about thirty-one cubic feet). Although collection development efforts have been limited, the project has been integrated into regular operations. The collection has received research use, notably by staff writers at the Boston Publishing Company, for their multi-volume work, *The Vietnam Experience,* and by WCNY-TV, Syracuse, for a PBS documentary, "Now Tell Us All About the War."

The results can be assessed on a number of levels. As a documentary project, the Vietnam War Veterans Archives acquired at least four major collections: the personal papers of a helicopter pilot; the records of Citizen Soldier, a veterans' anti-war and advocacy group; about 10,000 photographs, mainly official military pictures, collected by an Air Force officer; and, perhaps almost as significant, the survey responses themselves. The latter can serve as documents both recording attitudes about the war (A question that asked if any materials would be of special interest or importance was used by several respondents for lengthy comment on the war.) and showing the amount and kind of materials which people generated and kept.

As a survey project the results are most questionable. No sampling techniques were used. The initial limited survey idea was discarded for an attempt at saturating the population. The indirect approach seems to have produced a very low return, although it is not possible to estimate the actual number of questionnaires that found their way to individual veterans. The Agent Orange Task Force mailing, which was a direct mailing to individual members, received a considerably higher response rate — 12 percent as opposed to 2 percent for questionnaires sent to other organizations for distribution. The questionnaires that were returned indicated that veterans did have a wide variety of materials, including short-timer calendars, orders and maps, calling cards, diaries, letters, memorabilia, tape recordings, and especially, photographs, slides, and films. Also of interest were the number of people who reported having unpublished writings on their Vietnam War experiences.

From the number of positive responses, it is somewhat difficult to explain the very small percentage of respondents who actually donated material, and the small amount of material received from each donor. During initial negotiations about the project, the staff at Cornell overestimated the total quantity of papers to be expected. The "average" collection received was about a folder, less than 0.1 cubic feet. The volume restriction of 150 cubic feet placed on the whole collection was inappropriate. While the questionnaire response seemed to be proceeding at a rapid rate in September, by the end of the year it had slowed to a trickle.

Clearly, the final demise of the Vietnam War Veterans Archives and History Center played an important role. Not only has there been no active follow-up to the initial request letter, but respondents who attempted to contact the group in Santa Rosa would have been unable to do so. The characteristics of the veterans' experience may have been a factor. Most veterans would have been living with their parents at the time of their entrance into the military and frequently do not have materials in their immediate possession. General perceptions of an archival program as containing only important documents — the "who would want my junk?" attitude — may have been a factor. But timing may be equally important. Vietnam veterans are relatively young; often they still want to retain their papers. One veteran who did donate papers was very concerned that his two-year-old son would be able to come and look at them "when he was old enough." Although the donation of photocopies of original material which the donor wishes to retain is acceptable, this alternative may not be readily apparent to veterans. One veteran who visited Cornell was adamant about his being present while an Archives staff member photocopied his diary. The fact that Cornell is not located in a large urban area may also have limited the number of collections. Local publicity seems to have had very little effect, although several volunteers from the community have offered to work with the collections.

The fear by project staff that veterans would be skeptical of any non-veterans or of the institutional setting has not materialized. There have been no significant problems with donors. Veterans have been very reasonable about placing restrictions on their collections. Restrictions generally have been placed on use, particularly on quotations using personal names, rather than on access. Because many veterans expressed the expectation that they

would write about their experiences in the future, retention of copyright has been common. Basically, the attitude has been one of wanting others to use their material, of wanting to share their experiences, rather than the reverse. These feelings were often of a personalized nature, without overt political objectives. Several donors asked that researchers be informed of their willingness to provide further information. Two donors have travelled to Cornell to meet with Archives staff and to explain their papers in detail. A volunteer project advisor, a Vietnam War-era veteran who recently compiled a bibliography of war-related materials, has provided valuable assistance.

This experiment in cooperation between an archival repository and an advocacy group provides an interesting model for the collection of contemporary material. The effectiveness of a political action group as an archival collecting mechanism is still unclear, because this project ended before completing serious collecting efforts. The major problem for the repository was the failure to assess adequately the stability of the organization and particularly the availability of funding. Cornell was not sufficiently aware of the project's previous lack of success in acquiring outside support or in developing adequate funding strategies. Clearly, federal funding agencies play a major role in shaping projects of this nature. The various changes from the memorial library idea through the records survey were primarily responses to the concerns of NEH and NHPRC. However, neither of these agencies could be a continuing source of funding.

The second most important problem for the repository resulted from the lack of direct contact with the project staff, and from differences in intellectual and methodological assumptions. Cornell became part of the project well after an advisory mechanism had been established. The role of the National Advisory Board, apart from its archival component, was never made clear. The relationship between the archives project and Flower of the Dragon itself was not sufficiently defined, a situation made even more confusing with the transfer of corporate affiliation to the Center for Veteran Studies. But perhaps most fundamental was the question of the role of each of the partners. A certain degree of competition between the project and the repository was probably inevitable. The premature ending of the project makes any firm conclusions impossible, but significant progress was being made. It seems likely that the division of expertise and difference of focus and approach would have ultimately proved a major strength of the cooperative effort. Joint ventures of this nature have considerable potential for reaching into areas beyond the usual scope of archival collecting, but project participants must have a common awareness of project goals and must adopt general guidelines concerning both policy and procedures to realize this potential.

THE MINNESOTA CONFERENCE OF THE UNITED CHURCH OF CHRIST RECORDS SURVEY

ANNE A. HAGE

Between 1980 and 1983 the Minnesota Conference of the United Church of Christ surveyed the records held by its 160 local congregations.[1] The survey had its genesis in 1976, when enthusiasm for historical matters led the Conference to create a state-level historical committee. Among other responsibilities it was charged with encouraging and educating churches in the preservation of their historical records. The committee, composed of lay volunteers, soon recognized that it had little idea of the kinds or quantities of records which might be found in parish collections, let alone how they should be preserved. In its dilemma the committee turned to the Minnesota Historical Society, hoping that the society's field representatives might be able to conduct a survey for it. That notion was impracticable, but the society did encourage an application to the National Historical Publications and Records Commission for financial support for a full-scale survey.

Four years (and many grant applications) later, sufficient funds had been secured from federal, state, and private agencies to begin a four-goal project. The aims were: (1) to survey local church records; (2) to compile and publish a guide to the materials surveyed; (3) to heighten awareness of the significance of church records and the importance of preserving them; and (4) to train persons responsible for church records in appropriate preservation techniques.

The grant monies for the project, which took two and a half years to complete, totaled $48,000. Principal grants came from the NHPRC, the Minnesota Historical Society, and the F. R. Bigelow Foundation of St. Paul. The Greater Minneapolis Union of Churches, a small agency related to the denomination, provided additional grants. The original plans had called for a one-year project funded at $36,000. When it became apparent that the program could not be finished on schedule, an adjusted work plan and a second, smaller round of grants permitted continuation at a lower level of activity. The Conference's soft-match contribution, budgeted at $33,000, included the time spent by its executives, the time given by respondents and other volunteers, and the value of office space, equipment, and some services.

The project staff consisted of a full-time director and a half-time assistant for clerical and research tasks. After the first year both staff compensation and number of hours dropped as the funding diminished. The staff reported to Conference administrators and to the state-level historical committee,

which acted as nominal supervisor of the project. In practice oversight was loose, permitting the staff to act with considerable independence.

The Survey

The survey gathered information by a mail questionnaire which was filled out by the official historian or the pastor in each church (Figure 1 and Figure 2). The questionnaire was designed to be inviting and easy to complete, but at the same time to produce a maximum amount of information. Harmonizing these incompatible goals required painful choices as questions were added, dropped, or consolidated. At an early stage it was decided that the form must be limited to two pages and to use as much which space as possible. Consequently, as respondents quickly pointed out, the questionnaire appeared much simpler than it actually was.

The grant-application process offered an opportunity to make two limited tests of the form because the funding agencies asked to see both blank and filled-out samples. These tests led to revisions which improved both graphic and logical clarity. For example, using rectangular boxes rather than ruled lines yielded neater and more precise answers. In addition, questions about related materials were tightened and grouped into number parts, beginning with the most important materials. This arrangement, in effect dividing the questionnaire into units of work, was intended to make the form less intimidating. The numbering of parts and questions facilitated references to them in the instructions, which were also revised and expanded to reduce the difficulties experienced by test respondents.

Throughout the design process language problems, particularly definitions, received a good deal of attention. Common words rather than technical ones were used as often as possible. Ecclesiastical terms received special treatment, including the use of definitions, variants, and synonyms, because these names tended to be denomination-specific and to change over time.

In its final form the questionnaire asked for inclusive dates and quantities (number of volumes, envelopes, folders, or items) for twenty kinds of records grouped into six general categories: membership records; minutes of official boards and auxiliary organizations; "church life and activities," a rubric including photographs, scrapbooks, and newsletters; property records; historical accounts; and miscellaneous. A three-page set of instructions gave general guidance on completing the questionnaire along with sample answers for kinds of materials that might cause reporting difficulties. Respondents were asked to give the location of records and to indicate if they were kept in languages other than English. In style, the instructions attempted to strike a balance between the firm tone of "Be thorough" and a lighter one of "We'll be grateful if you just do the best you can."

The questionnaire, instructions, and an accompanying letter were tucked into the pockets of an illustrated brochure to make a handy kit (Figure 3). The first mailing went out in early September, in order to take advantage of the beginning of the churches' program year, with a return deadline of ten weeks. During the following relatively inactive period the staff made plans for locating records of "lost churches." Besides the 160 active congregations on the Conference register, another four to five hundred were either

INSTRUCTIONS FOR
CHURCH RECORDS INVENTORY QUESTIONNAIRE

Church records are kept in a variety of forms and ways, depending on the needs of the individual congregation. While it is difficult to reduce them to a few uniform categories, we ask that you do your best with this questionnaire form.

The questionnaire lists several basic types of church records. Not every church will have every kind, of course, and many churches will have additional types of materials. We are asking for general information about the type of records, the years the records cover, and the quantity of records. As you fill out the form, please feel free to use extra sheets of paper whenever necessary, keying your answers to the appropriate item number on the questionnaire.

If noncurrent records are not kept in the church building, please indicate their location by footnotes, or separate comments. Some churches have deposited their records with local, state, or denominational historical societies. Others may not yet have retrieved them from the homes of members or officers. Information about current location is important.

If your church is the result of a merger, please fill out a separate form for each antecedent congregation that belonged to one of the denominations now merged in the United Church of Christ. In addition, any records of discontinued congregations which happen to be in the possession of your church should also be listed on a separate questionnaire. (The Conference Office can send you extra copies if you need them.)

FILLING OUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please give the full, formal name of your congregation. On the third line of the form, under "former names," fill in both the official and unofficial names by which your congregation has been known.

Example: *Petham Congregational Church, also known as the "Grass Lake Church"*

Under "years covered" give the inclusive dates for each type of record. Records may not be complete or continuous. Indicate any large gaps you notice.

Example: *Deacons' minutes. 1889-1905, 1910-1927, 1963-1980. 3 vols.*

Under "no. of volumes, folders, or items" indicate the quantity of records. Any bound book or looseleaf book is considered to be a "volume." Please specify the number. Even if a record book has been only partly filled, count it as one volume.

Example: *Church record books. 1897-1980. 6 vols.*

Instructions--2

Your records may be arranged in file folders or envelopes. (If the materials have not been well organized, you may want to arrange them in file folders as you go through them.)

Example: *Women's organizations. 1889-1980. 3 vols., 6 folders.*
Sunday school minutes. 1910-1930. 1 envelope.

If older records and minutes of your church are in German or another non-English language, please specify.

Example: *Congregational meeting minutes. 1879-1916 [in German], 1917-1940 [in English]. 4 vols.*

Item 1. Church record books or registers usually include vital statistics (members, baptisms, confirmations, weddings, deaths, etc.); sometimes they also contain minutes.

When several different kinds of records have been kept in a single volume, make a note on the questionnaire form or on a separate sheet, giving the kinds of records included in the volume and the dates covered.

Example: *Membership records, consistory minutes, and congregational meeting minutes are combined. 1872-1905. 2 vols.*

Item 2. Membership lists and directories include the names of members in forms other than bound or looseleaf volumes. These may be lists, card files, printed directories, and so on.

Example: *Membership directories. 1937, 1940, 1945, 1951. 4 items.*

Items 10 and 11. Your church may have had several women's organizations, at different times, or at the same time--Frau-Verein, sisterhood, guild, ladies' aid, missionary society, and so forth. The names of these groups should not be listed separately. List all their records under the general heading, "Women's organizations." The same is true for men's organizations.

Item 13. Many churches prepare a consolidated annual report with yearly reports of the minister, the boards, the committees, etc. which is distributed at the time of the annual meeting. If your church has a file of these reports (or if they are included as part of the minutes of the annual congregational meeting), please list them separately.

Example: *Consolidated annual reports. 1944-1980. 2 folders.*

Item 14. If your church has significant records for other committees, boards, clubs, or organizations that are part of or related to the church, list them here and/or on an additional sheet. Specify the name of the organization along with the dates and the quantity of its records.

Example: *Boy Scout troop #798. 1947-1967. 5 folders.*
Couples' club. 1950-1952. 1 envelope.

Instructions--3

Item 15. If your church has a collection of unmounted photographs, list them here with a general description of the subject matter, the years covered, and some indication of the quantity.

Example: *Confirmation classes. 1950-1980. 3 folders.*
Buildings. 1976. 8 slides.
Various activities. 1950-1980. about 35 photographs.

If the pictures are mounted in albums, list the albums in Item 16 as scrapbooks.

Item 16. Some churches keep scrapbooks of photographs, newspaper clippings, special programs, and so on. List the dates covered and the number of volumes.

Item 17. If your church has a fairly complete and extensive collection of newsletters, Sunday morning bulletins, or orders of worship (whether bound or not), specify the years covered and the quantity. If you have only a few copies scattered over many years, list these materials under Part VI, Miscellaneous.

Example: *Church newsletter. 1945-1965. 3 vols.*
Morning bulletins. 1970-1980. 3 envelopes.

Items 18 and 19. These documents are difficult to list on a standard form. Please identify any you find and give the dates, if they are known, and the quantity.

Example: *Mortgages. 1880, 1920. 1 copy each.*
Blueprints of education wing. 1962. 1 set.

Item 20. Include any historical accounts which have been prepared for anniversaries or other occasions, whether they are printed, typed, or handwritten. Give the dates they were prepared.

Example: *75th anniversary booklet. 1928. 5 printed copies.*
Memorial talk. about 1935. 1 typed copy.

Part VI On a separate sheet please list any other materials that seem to have historical value but are not included in the preceding items. Important examples would be constitutions, by-laws, articles of incorporation, covenants, and statements of faith. Be sure to list the dates if they are known.

Other miscellaneous items your church might have include: sermons, hymnals, church manuals, collections of music, self-studies, tape recordings, official correspondence, list of the contents of the cornerstone, and so forth.

Example: *Sermons, programs of special occasions, orders of worship, 8 Sunday school lessons. 1889-1940. 3 envelopes.*

Correspondence with foreign missionaries, anniversary services, 1938 self-study, pastoral committee files. 1903-1939. 4 folders.

Finally, please be sure to add your name, address, phone number, the date, and the approximate amount of time used to complete the form.

Figure 1

CHURCH RECORDS INVENTORY
QUESTIONNAIRE
Minnesota Conference, U.C.C.
122 W. Franklin, Rm. 323
Minneapolis, MN 55404

Name of Church _____ Year organized _____

Street address _____ Town _____ Zip code _____

Former names of church _____

	Years covered	No. of volumes, folders, or items
PART I. MEMBERSHIP RECORDS		
1. Church record books. (Membership, baptisms, confirmations, etc.)		
2. Membership lists, directories.		
3. Cemetery records, plot plans.		
PART II. ORGANIZATIONS--MINUTES AND REPORTS		
4. Consistory, council, or cabinet minutes.		
5. Congregational meeting minutes.		
6. Deacons' minutes.		
7. Deaconess' minutes.		
8. Financial, treasurer's reports.		
9. Trustees minutes.		
10. Men's organizations.		

9/80

Church Records Inventory--2

	Years covered	No. of volumes, folders, or items
11. Women's organizations.		
12. Church school and youth groups.		
13. Consolidated annual reports.		
14. Other organizations. (Specify)		
PART III. CHURCH LIFE AND ACTIVITIES (see instructions)		
15. Photographs.		
16. Scrapbooks.		
17. Newsletters, bulletins.		
PART IV. PROPERTY RECORDS		
18. Abstracts, deeds, mortgages, etc.		
19. Blueprints, plans, etc.		
PART V. HISTORICAL ACCOUNTS		
20. Anniversary histories, etc.		

PART VI. MISCELLANEOUS (see instructions)

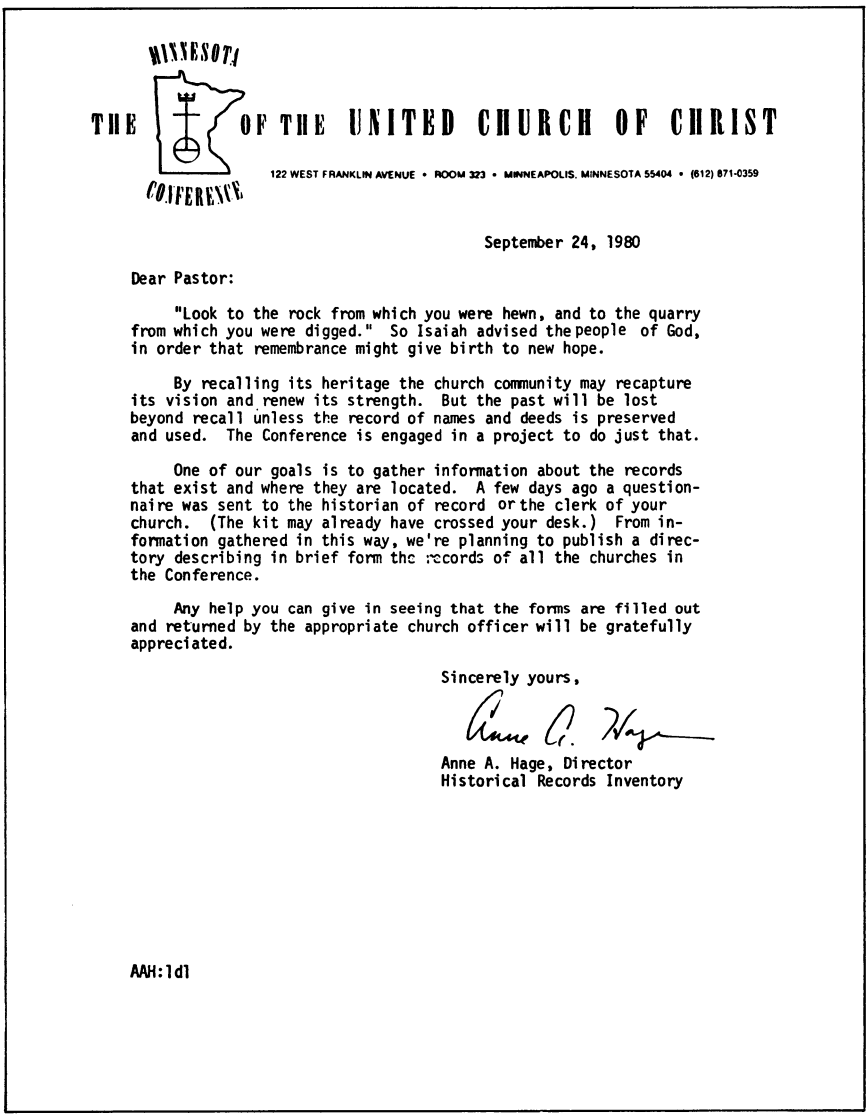
9/80

Name of person filling out questionnaire _____

Street address _____ Town _____ Zip code _____

Phone number _____ Date _____ Estimated time used _____

Figure 2



MINNESOTA
THE CONFERENCE OF THE UNITED CHURCH OF CHRIST

122 WEST FRANKLIN AVENUE • ROOM 323 • MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA 55404 • (612) 871-0359

September 24, 1980

Dear Pastor:

"Look to the rock from which you were hewn, and to the quarry from which you were digged." So Isaiah advised the people of God, in order that remembrance might give birth to new hope.

By recalling its heritage the church community may recapture its vision and renew its strength. But the past will be lost beyond recall unless the record of names and deeds is preserved and used. The Conference is engaged in a project to do just that.

One of our goals is to gather information about the records that exist and where they are located. A few days ago a questionnaire was sent to the historian of record or the clerk of your church. (The kit may already have crossed your desk.) From information gathered in this way, we're planning to publish a directory describing in brief form the records of all the churches in the Conference.

Any help you can give in seeing that the forms are filled out and returned by the appropriate church officer will be gratefully appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Anne A. Hage

Anne A. Hage, Director
Historical Records Inventory

AAH:ldl

Figure 3

disbanded or no longer affiliated with the denomination. After a search through yearbooks and denominational histories for the names and locations of inactive churches, the staff followed up various leads to discover whether any records still existed. Eventually records of nearly 100 inactive churches were located — about half of them in the archives of active churches, a third in the Minnesota Historical Society, and the remainder in denominational archives, county museums, or private hands.

Meanwhile, as the questionnaires were returned, each one was logged, acknowledged, and scanned for the quantity and quality of information supplied. Spurred by a reminder postcard in mid-November, 30 percent of the churches had returned the forms by December 1. A mail follow-up in January yielded additional returns or reports that work was in progress. In February, six months after the first mailing, the response rate had climbed to about 50 percent. Thereafter, nonresponding churches were contacted by letters, telephone calls, and field trips. By the project's conclusion, 80 percent of the active churches had participated in the survey.

The high rate of response was a surprise to everyone involved. From the beginning, experienced Conference administrators believed that fewer than half the churches would cooperate. Also unexpected were the quality of the returned questionnaires and the quantity of the records they disclosed. Most respondents answered all of the questions that were relevant to their collections and filled out the forms carefully. Nearly all appeared to have handled the materials on which they were reporting. Their effort and care is remarkable in view of the potential for disarray in collections maintained by a succession of pastors and lay volunteers, as well as the changes in record-keeping practices and formats over more than 100 years. The questionnaire asked respondents to estimate the amount of time required to complete it. According to their reports (probably understated), the average time was twenty hours per respondent. For some individuals, particularly those who had first to collect and arrange their materials, the estimated ranged upward of one hundred hours.

The questionnaires revealed substantial collections of records in local churches, in spite of the toll taken by fires, tornadoes, and other mishaps. Not surprisingly, the records most likely to be complete were those relating to membership and the official congregational minutes. Items frequently reported, through seldom complete, included financial records, minutes of women's organizations, bulletins, newsletters, and photographs.[2]

Preparation Of The Guide

Compiling and editing the guide began informally when each incoming questionnaire received a preliminary reading. At this time omissions in data were spotted, internal inconsistencies noted, and typographical errors marked. Mistakes and gaps in descriptions were cleared up in a number of ways, depending upon their seriousness, the importance of the collection, and the presumed competence of the respondent to cope with requests for more accurate information. Sometimes a telephone call proved sufficient; in other cases a tactful letter pinpointing the problem resulted in the necessary clarification. It was useful to submit draft entries to the respondents along with specific questions on problem areas. Questionable data were occasionally omitted from the final guide entry because there seemed to be no practical way to verify them. Sending edited entries to all respondents for verification never received serious consideration, because it seemed unlikely that they would make the effort to check every item by referring to their collections.

The preliminary reading of all questionnaires, which had familiarized staff in a general way with their contents, provided the background for devising

a format. The twenty items on the questionnaire were condensed to descriptions of the records in four categories: membership, organizations, property and finance, and church life and activities. Not every collection was large enough for this four-part classification and so many entries were very short. After the project assistant had compiled a first draft of the guide, the director edited and revised it, rechecking each entry against the questionnaire.

Once the format and editing procedures had been established, compilation proceeded reasonably smoothly. A number of minor difficulties surfaced, however, underscoring John Fleckner's warning that "even the most informal guide will require a substantial investment" of time.[3] Entries for merged churches puzzled the staff for some time. One church in the survey, established by the consolidation of eight congregations, represented an extreme example, but many churches had come into being through the union of two or three earlier bodies. Eventually, each congregation received a separate entry, with a cross-reference to the united body, except in cases where the collections themselves had been substantially merged. This latter situation, incidentally, had already created unforeseen problems for the respondents.

An unanticipated editorial problem, and one never satisfactorily resolved, was that of establishing the correct name for some churches. Over time, a few congregations had used a variety of formal and informal names. There were cases in which the name appearing in the original constitution or incorporation papers seemed never to have been used in actual practice. Determining the correct title for churches of German background proved to be especially difficult. During Anglicization and denominational merger, the formal name was by degrees translated, changed, and shortened, appearing in many variations. Because it proved impossible to formulate a general rule for handling such problems, each case was decided individually, with preference given to the best established or most frequently used form.

Entries in the guide were listed alphabetically by town or township, not only because this practice followed traditional usage in denominational registers but also because it appeared to be the most helpful order for users. Unfortunately, this arrangement created a potential source of confusion for researchers working from older histories or family records. The town listed in a roster as the location of a country church might actually designate only the distribution center for a mail delivery route, and the centers often changed as routes were realigned. Thus older churches that remained on the same site might be listed over the years under two or three different towns. Similarly churches in the inner-ring metropolitan areas, for reasons now obscure, might appear under the name of either the suburb or the central city. In both situations, the entries in the most recent denominational directory were used, again with appropriate cross-references, even though this procedure might conceal the true locations of some country churches. As an additional help in identifying congregations, the guide included an index of churches by county.

The guide was published in a edition of three hundred, with two hundred earmarked as complimentary copies for participating individuals and churches, professional journals, libraries, and so forth. Unanticipated demand required reprinting after six months.

Heightening Awareness

Soon after the project was launched, it took on the aspect of a vast promotional campaign. A variety of methods was used to publicize its goals, motivate cooperation, and demonstrate the significance of church records: speeches to lay and clerical groups; appearances at district and statewide meetings; news releases for the Conference's monthly house organ and the general press; and a series of workshops held at different locations around the state. Every effort was made to include what Fleckner called "multiple sources of influence."[4]

Measuring the success of an awareness program is difficult, but various indicators suggest some gains over the course of the project. The number of congregations with historians or historical committees nearly doubled; more attention was given to historical themes in celebratory programs and other gatherings; more congregations undertook translations of their old German records. Churches began to upgrade their storage areas and to use acid-free archival supplies. The questionnaire itself had an educational function since it came to be interpreted as an authoritative checklist of records meriting maintenance and preservation. To some extent, also, the goals of the project were institutionalized. For the first time preservation committees were created at the district level, and the Conference appointed an archivist, whose job description included educational work with local churches.

In its efforts at consciousness raising, the project was fortunate to be able to build upon and support an existing interest in denominational and congregational history. This doubtless explains why the survey became a community endeavor, involving all parts of the Conference constituency and attracting its time, energy, and funds.

Training in Preservation Techniques

Although for planning purposes the project involved three distinct outreach aims — conducting the survey, raising levels of awareness, and educating custodians in preservation practices — these goals actually tended to overlap and to reinforce each other. Thus the questionnaire, as noted earlier, was not only a survey instrument but also raised awareness and constituted a guide for records management. Similarly, the workshops, arranged primarily to introduce the questionnaire to respondents, and the newsletter, edited chiefly to acquaint parish historians and lay leaders with the importance and uses of historical materials, were also used for instruction in preservation techniques.

A series of ten workshops held in different areas of the state attracted 180 participants. Designed for the convenience of people who traveled up to fifty miles to attend, the seminars were held at host churches, from 9:30 a.m. to 2:30 p.m., including luncheon. At first, expenses were paid entirely from project funds; later a small "registration fee" helped to recover the cost. After a morning session devoted to the questionnaire, the afternoon program concerned preservation, including such topics as what materials to save and how to arrange them; temperature, humidity, and security controls in storage areas; acidity and paper deterioration; and the use of archival supplies.

Workshop presentations, fact sheets, and newsletter articles endeavored to adapt good professional techniques to the needs and limitations of parish custodians. Arrangements were also made to supply them with a limited selection of acid-free folders and boxes.

In addition to improving their on-site storage areas, churches were also urged to consider other options for long-tern preservation, including the transfer of noncurrent records to appropriate public or denominational depositories. Unfortunately, in this respect the awareness program backfired. As churches became persuaded of the importance of their records, they were less interested in relinquishing them. Congregations were also advised to microfilm their materials. During the course of the project the Minnesota Historical Society, which is the official depository for Conference records, agreed to microfilm important collections not available for permanent donation. At least a dozen collections were eventually donated or loaned for filming to the state Society. Other churches, too, took advantage of the microfilming program of the Utah Genealogical Society. When none of the foregoing options seemed desirable or practicable, custodians were advised to use a dry-copying machine for frequently consulted and fragile materials.

Evaluation

Generally, the Minnesota Conference's church records survey succeeded in meeting its goals. Among the factors contributing to this achievement, three or four are significant. The first factor was working within a single institution with desk space in the central state office and having access to formal and informal communication networks. A second factor was the participation of the Conference leadership. Even in an institution with such diffused authority as the United Church of Christ, the support of this group was crucial. The importance of these two factors suggests that a survey involving large numbers of volunteers may not succeed without the involvement of a supporting organization.

A third and pivotal factor was the availability of a pool of respondents with an interest in their own records and accustomed to contributing large amounts of volunteer time to church-related activities. These characteristics helped to compensate for their lack of experience. In addition, the project profited from efforts to fine-tune its strategies to the structure, practices, and symbolism of its constituency. As far as possible, for instance, project activities were scheduled with the cycles of the church calendar to avoid placing unnecessary demands on crowded agendas. Another effective technique was the use of a theological rationale in explaining the projects's goals.

Nevertheless, there were deficiencies, some of which might have been avoided by better management. Above all, the unanticipated level of response created more work than resources of time and funds could accommodate. The staff learned by hard experience the importance of thorough, early planning and the necessity of readjusting goals periodically. Staff energies could have been deployed more efficiently by the use of someone with public relations skills to assist in copywriting and the planning of promotion. Moreover, a carefully selected advisory board, recruited in the planning stage, might have provided valuable assistance in the shape of expert advice,

feedback, and influence. The bookkeeping arrangements caused a minor, though troublesome and time-consuming, problem. Accounting was handled by the Conference as part of its in-kind contribution and to satisfy requirements of the funding agencies. Unfortunately, the Conference's standard bookkeeping procedures failed to serve the project's accounting needs, making it difficult to obtain timely and useful financial reports.

Finally, on-site verification of survey responses would have improved the project. For some reason this step was not considered during the planning process, perhaps because it would have required a relatively large sampling and it risked antagonizing respondents. Nevertheless, verification would not only have given the survey data a sounder basis but would also have yielded useful information about records arrangement and storage conditions.

FOOTNOTES

1. The United Church of Christ was formed in 1957 through the merger of two denominations — the Congregational Christian Churches and the Evangelical and Reformed Church, the latter of German-immigrant origins. Both denominations were themselves products of earlier mergers in the 1930's. UCC congregations are autonomous though associated at the district and state levels. About two-thirds of the churches in the Minnesota Conference come from the Congregational tradition and one-third from Evangelical or Reformed backgrounds.
2. An analysis of two-thirds of the questionnaires, including both active and inactive churches, showed that 65 percent of the congregations held complete membership records from time of founding. Even those collections that were scored as incomplete often had only minor gaps. Nearly all churches possessed minutes of congregational meetings, the basic documents of church life; around 40 percent reported an unbroken series. Seventy-two percent reported minutes of church council or other lay governing body, with 20 percent reporting a complete series. Nearly all congregations had financial reports, through only 25 percent an unbroken series. Seventy percent had photographs, with about 10 percent reporting pictures spanning the life of the congregation. Just under 40 percent possessed scrapbooks. Of special interest is the fact that 90 percent of the churches held some minutes or other records of their women's organizations. In churches of Congregational background, 19 percent had women's records dating from the beginning of these groups.
3. John A. Fleckner, *Archives and Manuscripts: Surveys* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1977) p. 11.
4. Ibid., p. 8.

BOOK REVIEWS

Ethnic Genealogy: A Research Guide. Edited by Jessie Carney Smith with a foreword by Alex Haley. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1983. 440 pp. Index. Cloth. $37.50.

Jessie Carney Smith organized an Institute on Ethnic Genealogy for Librarians at Fisk University in the summer of 1979 for librarians, researchers, historians, archivists, and genealogists. Smith compiled articles by ten librarians and historians to provide an introduction to the problems of doing ethnic genealogy. This book includes most of the topics covered at the institute.

The book is divided into three sections: general information on sources, procedures, and research; utilizing major repositories for genealogical research; and sources available for specific ethnic groups. The article on basic sources for genealogical research contains good descriptions of the records used by all genealogists such as vital statistics, land, property, probate, and court records. It includes a bibliography of texts, reference works, periodicals, and repositories; illustrations of specific documents; and where to find different records. Also helpful are articles on the National Archives and Records Service and the Genealogical Society of Utah Library (also known as the LDS Library). The types of genealogical information to be found in census, immigration, naturalization, passport, military, veterans, and civilian personnel records are described. Published guides to NARS and the addresses of its seventeen locations are included. The LDS article describes the millions of records from around the world that have been microfilmed and are available in Utah or through inter-library loan.

Four articles are devoted to the unique records and research required for the genealogy of American Indians, Afro-Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanic Americans. Illustrations of documents and bibliographies for each group are located at the end of each article. The importance of knowing the history of the ethnic group and its migration and settlement patterns is stressed. The dominant culture's attitudes and policies towards different ethnic groups have also influenced the types of information recorded.

For example, in American Indian genealogy it is important to know the tribal affiliation of family members, the history of the tribe, and its naming customs. Generally, the policy toward American Indians has been a sequence of conversion, removal from traditional lands, placement on a reservation, and allotment of part of the reservation land. Each period generated different records. Initial contacts with whites produced baptismal or marriage certificates and deeds of land sales. The Bureau of Indian Affairs began keeping records once American Indians were on the reservations. Other important records are tribal council records, land claims, and the allotment registers of families.

Ethnic Genealogy is intended as a reference tool for librarians, archivists, genealogists, and historians, especially amateurs. It is excellent for all genealogists regardless of ethnic background. The bibliographies offer abundant leads for researchers. However, there are omissions. The Afro-American bibliography does not list the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture of the New York Public Library, one of the most important repositories for Afro-American history. In the American Indian article no mention is made of the Native American Archives Project. *American Indian Archival Material: A Guide to Holdings in the Southeast,* compiled by Ron Chepsiuk and Arnold Shankman, another Greenwood Press publication, is not listed in the bibliography. The omissions are probably due to the fact that none of the articles were written by archivists, who might be expected to search archival guides and literature more thoroughly. In spite of this it is a valuable reference guide to have on the bookshelf. Since amateur genealogists are a significant minority (or majority) of our researchers, handing them this volume could save us all time.

Patricia L. Adams
Western Historical Manuscript
Collection-St. Louis

Understanding Progress as Process. Documentation of the History of Post-War Science and Technology in the United States. Edited by Clark A. Elliott. Final Report of the Joint Committee on Archives of Science and Technology. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1983. 64 pp. Paper. $1.50

Certain publications termed reports prove to be objective examinations of situations or events. Others, by contrast, have the character of manifestos or calls-to-arms. *Understanding Progress as Process* belongs to the latter category. The sense of urgency conveyed in this document stems from a thesis that the documentary record of contemporary American science and technology is at serious risk. The work outlines a complex set of problems, mere attention to which contributes significantly to archival literature on surveys and appraisal.

The Joint Committee on Archives of Science and Technology (JCAST) was established in 1978 by a group of archivists and historians concerned with defining dimensions of unpublished documentation generated by research and development projects in the United States since World War II. The committee included representatives of the Society of American Archivists, the History of Science Society, and the Society for the History of Technology. Funded by the NHPRC, JCAST produced a preliminary report, *The Documentation of Science and Technology in America: Needs and Opportunities* in 1980. Renewed NHPRC support permitted further investigations, aided now by representatives of the Association of Records Managers and Administrators. The final product, reviewed here, is set forth in six well-organized chapters, plus an introduction and an "executive summary," and includes also notes, illustrations, and a short bibliography.

The manifesto character of the final report emerges with the very first paragraph of its introduction, where the reader is asked to imagine the plight of a researcher who wishes to undertake a definitive study of American science and technology using unpublished sources. To this end, we are told, the researcher must contemplate searching through hundreds of "dimly lit" warehouses with only "rudimentary lists" available to serve as guides. JCAST suggests that there is little at present to illuminate a systematic research tour of this magnitude. The committee estimates, based on rough knowledge of scientific and technological expenditures, that approximately two-thirds of all sources which ever existed were produced by private industry, with the remainder divided among government agencies, academic institutions, private research institutes, societies, and discipline-based history centers. Private industry has traditionally shown little interest in systematic preservation of historically important research and development records for public scholarly use. Even where mandates exist to review documentation for possible archival preservation in the public interest, as in the case with federal government and some academic research, key scientific records have been neglected.

Having posited this dismal situation, JCAST does not attempt concrete, straightforward solutions. The report instead issues a general appeal to the creative energies of archivists and historians concerned with science and technology. The report urges special efforts to raise the historical awareness of responsible officials in industry and government. Existing archival mandates must be enforced and new provisions for preservation created for institutions lacking them. Where no archives is currently preserving important records, an appropriate repository must be designated. JCAST regards institutional archives as the most effective solution in most cases, but the work of discipline-based history centers is also lauded. The committee strongly recommends that scientists' papers be appraised as institutional property rather than as private effects. Perhaps the central argument of the report is that documentation sought for a permanent archival record of science and technology must not only concern results, but the entire process which led to results: thus the title *Understanding Progress as Process*.

For readers who expect an explicit guide to action in the manner of an SAA Basic Manual, the JCAST report is surely a disappointment. There is not enough focus. There is no clear target audience, apart from already committed archivists and historians of science. Above all, no incentive is spelled out for those leaders of industry and bureaucracy who have the authority to improve the quality of records preserved. But as a joint statement of archivists, historians, and records managers putting forth intelligent ideas, the report will likely be used and cited for a long time in the future.

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Archival Choices: Managing the Historical Record in an Age of Abundance. Edited by Nancy E. Peace. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1984. 164 pp. Bibliography and index. Cloth. $23.00.

Nancy Peace's valedictory to the archival profession is *Archival Choices,* a series of seven topically arranged essays, each by a different contributor. The genesis for this volume in the Lexington Books Special Series in Libraries and Librarianship was a 1980 workshop on processing contemporary collections held at the John F. Kennedy Library. In this book the editor sought to describe archival practices in selected institutions, to examine archival theory as applied to contemporary records, and to stimulate new research. While it is too early to gauge the stimulus to further research, *Archival Choices* generally succeeds in its first two goals.

In a well-documented opening essay, the editor briefly surveys the last half-century of archival theory and practice. While the terrain she describes may be familiar to many archivists, she does extend her scope beyond the United States to highlight the contributions of European archivists, especially the work of Swedish archivist Nils Nilsson and West German archivist Hans Booms. She also helps set the context for the more specialized chapters that follow.

John Dojka and Shelia Conneen, drawing on examples taken from their experience at Yale University, explain how records management can be used as an appraisal tool in college and university archives. They demonstrate effectively the linkage between archives and records management and describe elements of a basic program design, noting that program components can be added or deleted, depending on the scope of the program. Five appendices help the reader understand how to conduct a survey and prepare a records management policy statement. In their enthusiasm for records management, however, the authors exaggerate what can be done with limited resources. A small program of surveying and scheduling records can be a very time-consuming activity, even with the cooperation of participating administrative units.

Francis X. Blouin, Jr., who has previously written about business records, turns his attention here to setting an agenda for their appraisal. Blouin's approach is largely historical, tracing the development of corporate archives in this country and drawing on the analysis of historians such as Arthur Cole, Thomas Cochran, Douglas North, Lance Davis, and Alfred Chandler. While acknowledging that the business practices of retaining minimal documentation and denying access even to these records are a problem, he concludes somewhat naively that "through continued research, active and patient dialogue, and carefully thought out selection, the record of modern U.S. businesses can be assembled in a thorough and efficient way."

In a chapter dealing with voluminous congressional collections, Patricia Aronsson is at her best in describing how congressional offices work and which staff positions likely produce the most valuable records. She also makes solid recommendations for a coordinated approach to collecting the papers of a state's delegation to Congress in which a number of institutions cooperate in the collecting effort.

Although smaller than other categories of records examined in this volume, literary manuscripts bring their own peculiar appraisal problems. In his

essay on the subject, Philip N. Cronenwett emphasizes the importance of a thorough knowledge of the writer whose works are appraised, knowledge of the genre and period in which the work was written, and an understanding of the various materials that form the collection. He also provides some general guidelines on appraisal and disposition of literary collections that serve as a good introduction to the subject.

Lawrence Dowler, in the best-written essay in the volume, discusses the sensitive topic of deaccessioning collections. He examines three aspects of deaccessioning: guidelines for deaccessioning, sale of deaccessioned material, and ideas that influence attitudes toward selling archival material. His examples show the complexity of these issues in light of current technology and the use to which research in archival materials may be put. He raises the question of selling not merely physical property, but also the copyright in research collections. He asks if archival institutions are to reap no benefit from a popular book and/or movie based on their holdings. There are no obvious answers, but the questions need airing.

The concluding essay is F. Gerald Ham's widely read and discussed paper, first presented at a plenary session of the Society of American Archivists in 1982. The title of his essay in fact provided the title for Peace's volume. Ham's essay is well enough known not to require summary here. Suffice it to note that his major contribution in this stimulating and wide-ranging essay is not that it plows much new ground, but that it integrates and synthesizes so many different strands of archival work and concern, achieving succinct and cogent argument for managing the historical record in an age of abundance. His essay and the archival choices discussed by the other contributors make this volume must reading for practicing and aspiring archivists.

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Ordinary People and Everyday Life: Perspectives on the New Social History. Edited by James B. Gardner and George Rollie Adams. Nashville: American Association for State and Local History, 1983. 215 pp. Index. Cloth. $16.00, AASLH members; $17.95, others.

This collection of essays grew out of a seminar series sponsored by the American Association for State and Local History during which prominent academic historians surveyed current work in the "new" social history for an audience of historical agency and museum professionals. The new social history emerged during the 1960s, a fusion of traditional American social history, radical history, the Annales school of French historiography, and studies of the English working class by E. P. Thompson and others. The new social history strives to explain historical process "from the bottom up," often employing interdisciplinary research and quantitative analysis of aggregate data to reconstruct the history of ordinary people and everyday life.

AASLH directed the seminar series and this resulting volume specifically toward historical agency professionals in the hope that they would be able

to apply current academic social history methods and findings to museum interpretation and public programming. This was an admirable goal, but unfortunately few of the contributors made the necessary linkages between scholarship and its practical diffusion. Only Barbara G. Carson and Gary Carson, historians of material culture and museum professionals themselves, offer concrete suggestions for museum interpretations that might help people to understand better past behavior, values, and the social relationships of ordinary people. Thus this anthology will be of limited usefulness to museum personnel. It will, on the other hand, be useful to graduate students and other academics who want a brief but informed introduction to current work in fields other than their own, and especially valuable to librarians and archivists who manage the sources on which the new social history ultimately rests. Not only does this volume provide a context for the research patrons in repositories, but it suggests topics and resources likely to be explored in the future. The growing interest in comparative studies of ethnic groups and family and community structures point toward even heavier use of public records; the increasing reliance on organizational records as indicators of cultural values will require more diversified collections.

Most of the essays in the anthology are concise, well-written, copiously annotated historiographical tours of their respective sub-disciplines, and many retain the rhythms and immediacy of their original oral presentations.

In his introduction, Peter N. Stearns summarizes the development, goals, and methodologies of social history. He urges museum people to follow the shift away from antiquarianism toward a fuller understanding of historical process. Howard N. Rabinowitz demonstrates how racial and ethnic history have been affected by the study of migration patterns, community formation, mobility, and family structure. He cautions historians against romanticizing cultural pluralism in their rejection of earlier melting pot theories of assimilation and argues for more comparative ethnic studies and more studies of intergroup conflict. Elizabeth H. Pleck attributes the development of women's history more to feminism than to the new social history movement itself. She believes the most interesting questions now revolve around the varieties and definitions of feminism in the 20th century. Archival collections from women's organizations will be vital to this research. Kathleen N. Conzen's analytic essay on the new urban history traces an early preoccupation with descriptive quantification to more recent attempts to examine cultural values that underlie measurable behavior. She too calls for more comparative studies and more attention to the cultural baggage people brought with them to the city. Robert P. Swierenga argues for the need to study the rural communities many of these people left behind and the radical changes that have occurred in agrarian life in this century. Maris A. Vinovskis introduces current research in family history by considering four aspects of family life: childbearing, early child development, adolescence, and old age.

David Brody's fine essay traces the evolution of labor studies from descriptive works on trade unionism to "shop-floor history." He is concerned, however, that too much social history is still descriptive rather than explanatory. In his discussion of politics and social history, Samuel P. Hays notes the tendency for social historians in one field not only to work independently of all others, but also to ignore the larger context of political history.

Hays's point is well taken. This volume demonstrates that social history can provide fresh insights into the everyday lives of ordinary people in the past. Clearly, we are all historical actors. Historians should not forget, however, that very often others set the parameters in which ordinary people acted. Unless the new social historians articulate their findings within the context of political and economic history, they can not explain much to the rest of us.

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Guide to American Indian Resource Materials in Great Plains Repositories. Compiled by Joseph G. Svoboda. Lincoln: University of Nebraska-Lincoln, 1983. 401 pp. Index. Spiral bound. $15.00, plus $1.25 postage and handling.

Guide to Catholic Indian Mission and School Records in Midwest Repositories. By Philip C. Bantin with Mark G. Thiel. Milwaukee: Marquette University, 1984. 446 pp. Index. Spiral bound. $15.00.

Researchers concerned with locating primary sources related to the American Indian should be encouraged by the number of archival guides published in this area during the 1980s. The *Guide to Records in the National Archives of the United States Relating to American Indians* (1981), and *American Indian Archival Material: A Guide to Holdings in the Southeast* (1982) are two other notable examples.

The guides reviewed here are regional in coverage with Philip Bantin's work encompassing twelve midwestern states: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. The "Great Plains" region covered in Joseph Svoboda's guide includes ten states — Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Texas and Wyoming — and three Canadian provinces, Alberta, Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

The guides are alike in format and arrangement. The contents are arranged in alphabetical order, first by state and thereunder by city and name of repository or institution. The entries are numbered consecutively throughout with a lengthy index keying terms to entry numbers rather than pages.

Although similar in geographical coverage, appearance and organization, the guides differ greatly in scope. Svoboda's volume is much broader and incorporates "research materials" dealing with all aspects of the American Indian. Manuscripts, official records, photographs, taped interviews, newspapers, and microforms are described in the entries. The guide to Catholic records has a narrower focus, as the title suggests, and it is limited to unpublished sources. While materials in larger repositories are described, many records covered in Bantin's guide are housed in dioceses, abbeys, provincial

houses, mother-houses and tribal archives. As a result there is limited duplication under the five states shared by both projects. For example, in Bantin's guide, no repositories are listed for Lincoln, Nebraska, indicating the University and State Historical Society do not hold mission and school records. Where the same body of material is mentioned in both guides, Bantin's description is more comprehensive.

The *Guide to Catholic Indian Mission and School Records* was funded by NEH and Marquette University. In addition to a survey, information was obtained through telephone calls and visits when necessary. The guide consists of 277 entries which include name, address and telephone number for each repository; information on hours, access, and copying facilities; a history of each Catholic mission, school or religious order; and a description of the holdings.

The history provided for each Catholic entity is a major contribution of the guide. These chronologies, primarily the work of Mark Thiel, are detailed even when the body of records is small (two pages are devoted to the history of Sacred Heart Church in Miami, Oklahoma, although it houses less than one cubic foot of records).

The holdings are described according to the system of arrangement used by the repository. Records lacking organization are described by type of material. The descriptions are comprehensive and often reach the folder level (the "Parrish Files" in the Diocese of Rapid City, consisting of only .7 cubic foot, are described in three pages).

Archivists planning to produce comparable guides would do well to use Bantin's volume as a model. The methodology is sound and the result is a finding aid and reference tool that users in several disciplines will find extremely helpful for many years.

The guide published by the Center for Great Plains Studies contains 2,251 entries describing holdings in 94 repositories. As noted in the foreword, many of the responses to a mail survey were uneven and inconsistent. It is unfortunate the project staff was unable to follow up the survey in order to make the guide a more comprehensive research tool. While entries for smaller repositories are usually brief, the collections in large repositories are described in more detail because the information could be taken from published guides, the titles of which are provided to inform the user of their availability.

Descriptions of holdings for major repositories are divided according to type of material. Entries for manuscript collections generally contain the title, span dates, volume, and content description. The entries for other formats vary between repositories. This reviewer found it cumbersome to locate different types under large repositories when the entries continued for several pages. By utilizing an outline format with consistent indentions and recognizable sub-headings between different materials, this drawback could have been alleviated. Other than the name, no additional information is provided about each repository (such as address, telephone number, and hours) but should have been. Regardless of these deficiencies this publication synthesizes an impressive amount of information about American Indian resources.

Entries in these two guides are confined to repositories within geographical boundaries; however, they are not limited to regional audiences. Researchers across the country searching for documentation on American Indians will

find these publications very valuable and archivists and librarians should make a point of having them available in their repositories.

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Oral History: An Interdisciplinary Anthology. Edited by David K. Dunaway and Willa K. Baum. Nashville: American Association for State and Local History, 1984. 450pp. Index. Paper. $17.95. Cloth. $29.50.

The modern profession of oral history has evolved gradually since its inception as a Work Progress Administration enterprise during the 1930s Depression. Although the nearly fifty years that separate that time from the present seem rather short — and oral history's development to date rapid indeed — its growth has, in fact, been uneven. There have been great bursts of energy separated by periods of consolidation and even retrenchment. During the 1960s, and again in the 1970s, oral history experienced dramatic growth in number of projects and in application, punctured by considerable difficulties in obtaining adequate funding and administrative support.

Indeed, despite the apparent explosion of interest in oral history and in its practice by a wide variety of users, the field is still badly lacking in the resources necessary to realize fully its promise. It has seen substantial progress, to be sure, but often progress fueled by interest without resources, rather than by resources in support of interest. That reality accounts in great part for the lower than apparent real growth in oral history programs, and for some of the many difficulties it faces in attaining wide acceptance as a valid research tool. Certainly these difficulties are clearly perceived by professional oral historians, and have been addressed with varying degrees of effect. Without a growing — or even consistent — resource base, however, oral history has faced an uphill battle in its quest for acceptance.

Chief among the problems facing oral history has been the question of education and training for its practitioners. Barbara Tuchman's caustic comments on oral history's shortcomings summarize quite clearly one perception of its product: the badly organized, poorly researched, and ineptly conducted interview that frustrates rather than rewards the user. While much oral history interviewing has improved in scope and quality by any general measure, there have been very few efforts to train prospective oral historians in their craft. How-to manuals have proliferated, but only a handful of these have actually addressed more substantial issues than the operation of recording equipment, basic project outlines, with perhaps a fleeting look at ethics, research, and a preparation of an interview framework.

A growing list of authors have addressed these other issues in articles aimed at exploring both theory and practice, but the oral history profession has lacked any compilation of these. This has presented a critical need, for without an easily useable body of literature the field has been without a necessary teaching resource and an important justification for its claim to status as a profession.

Even the Oral History Association, the profession's single unifying force, has been slow to respond to this need and to promote guidelines for quality and address the issues that clearly separate genuine oral history from the use of taped interviews to gather all manner of related but hardly comparable information. A major stumbling block to the education of oral historians has thus become the lack of any compilation of the growing number of writings produced on the subject, many of which have been available only in difficult to locate publications. *Oral History: An Interdisciplinary Anthology* is a welcome if belated answer to that need.

Editors Willa K. Baum and David K. Dunaway have done a splendid job in gathering a sample of the very best writings on oral history in a single volume. The work is divided into six sections, with a seventh devoted to publication of the goals, guidelines, and evaluation criteria of the Oral History Association, thus giving added publicity to that organization's attempt to give form and substance to the profession it serves. The six major sections of the book include The Gateway to Oral History; Interpreting and Designing Oral History; Oral History Applied: Local, Ethnic, Family and Women's History; Oral History and Related Disciplines: Folklore, Anthropology, and Gerontology; Oral History and Schools; Oral History and Libraries. A total of thirty-seven articles appear in the work, written from a variety of perspectives and on occasion illuminating disagreements on procedure, as in the case of interview restrictions. The book gains notable strength from this approach. Two of the articles (Louis Starr's and Willa Baum's) contain bibliographies that provide information on a number of future writings on oral history.

The book is well balanced, with attention to the history of oral history, its design and application, and a view of its relationship to allied fields. The latter will provide the only disappointment to archivists, since (with one notable exception) neither archives nor archivists receive more than passing mention in a handful of the articles. The exception is William Moss's excellent "Oral History: An Appreciation" which appeared in the *American Archivist* in 1977.

The lack of an archival perspective is especially unfortunate since a number of those authors who mention archives do so only in the context of storage for oral history materials. Since a definite segment of archival thought today sees archivists as participants in the process of creating oral history, this will be of little help to archives administration in that respect.

Major responsibility for this lack, however, must rest with the archival profession, which has only recently considered oral history a part of its ongoing operations. Most archival consideration of oral history has seen it in the context of the special project, rather than as a component of the archives' basic mission. The fuller realization and exploration of this concept will surely produce articles on archives and oral history on a scale comparable to those on libraries and oral history.

The editors have selected articles that focus on oral history's relationship to a wide variety of purposes, including those of folklore, anthropology, and local history. These pieces in particular are key reading for archivists charged with the management of collections in any of those areas, for they cover both the similarities and differences that exist between oral history and these fields.

The book is especially useful because of its broad sample of uses and users, among them schools, libraries, academic institutions, and professional writers.

Baum and Dunaway have produced an important and highly useful work. Once again, the American Association for State and Local History is to be commended for seeing a market and moving to provide a product. The result is quite literally 'must' reading for archivists, from whom will hopefully come additional writings on oral history's relationship to their profession.

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Archives and Manuscript Control Format. OCLC Online Systems Series. Dublin, Ohio: OCLC, 1984. Appendices and index. Loose-leaf. $19.00.

On November 1, 1984, OCLC brought online the new *Archives and Manuscript Control Format* (AMC). The format, devised by SAA's National Information Systems Task Force (NISTF) and approved by ALA's Committee on Machine-Readable Form of Bibliographic Information (MARBI), adapted the previous MARC Format for Manuscripts to accommodate current archival practice. The original format, published by the Library of Congress (LC) in 1971, greatly relied on the standard library conventions used in the MARC Format for Books. Most archivists, however, rejected this as their standard for communication, becoming even more alarmed when the second edition of the *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* (AACR2) appeared in 1978 with little, if any input from the archives community.

Reaction to the imposition of controls from outside the profession brought the formation of NISTF in 1978, to examine the archival needs in the converging areas of communication and automation. NISTF identified common data elements, since accepted as the profession's standard of information exchange. Concurrently, Steve Hensen at the Library of Congress took AACR2, Chapter 4 rules for manuscripts, augmented them with more relevant explanations and examples, and produced a cataloging manual of modern archival descriptive practices. NISTF then combined the data elements it defined, with LC's revised cataloging practices, to produce the AMC — a new and unique format within the MARC structure. OCLC, in turn, converted the old MARC Format for Manuscripts it had online since 1976, and its existing 45,000 manuscript records, to reflect the new AMC.

As a rule, the OCLC system applies the MARC formats as published by LC and requires that system records be entered in conformance with AACR2 and LC's interpretation thereof. The format document OCLC has issued to explain all these rules and applications is a readable, user-oriented guide delineating each field and subfield within the AMC. Introductory sections explain the nature of MARC and OCLC, what the format is designed to do, what you are allowed to do with it, and various system components and conventions. There is a separate section for each fixed field and variable field tag group. Individual fields are explained in a scope note with indicator,

subfield, printing, and indexing specifications. Although the typographical errors are noticeable, especially the consistent misspelling of Steve Hensen's name, they are not numerous. The style manual OCLC uses is unconventional and punctuation and grammatical irregularities are distracting. The layout itself is clear, and examples help clarify points when the author lapses into computerese; I refuse to acknowledge 'subfield' as a verb.

Many of the redefined free-text note fields, such as the Case File Characteristic Note (565), Linking Entry Complexity Note (580), and the Actions field (583), need more explanation and actual format examples. The definitions OCLC uses merely paraphrase rather than amplify those found in the NISTF standard elements dictionary. Since many of these fields and elements contain new applications, clearer direction must be given on their preferred use, whether it comes from standard rule books or community consensus. The loose-leaf format of the document makes incorporating future changes an easy operation.

Novice and veteran alike must realize, however, that this one document is not meant to answer all their questions. OCLC manuals on cataloging and input standards, code lists, cataloging rules and updates, and training aids and sessions must be available to provide the most complete current interpretations and applications of the format. An alliance should be forged between the archivist unfamiliar with OCLC applications and the librarian unacquainted with archival practice. Together, these users of the AMC should contact their OCLC networks to learn more about the system in general and, specifically, to make known their interest in the new format. Likewise, users must talk with each other, as was done at a recent conference on the AMC held at the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. (A summary and format tagging examples are due from Lisa Weber of SHSW shortly.) This communication must take place to insure uniform application and recognition of the format as our professional standard of information exchange.

But how does all this change really affect the average archivist? Is OCLC any more relevant to our profession today than ten years ago? Answers to these questions, of course, are individual to each institution but certain pros and cons can be seen in OCLC's adoption of the AMC and, indeed, in the AMC itself. Unlike any other MARC format, the AMC is not specific to one type of material but rather controls collections of all types of material such as maps, machine-readable files, rare books, or a combination of media. While this is perfectly rational from an archival control perspective, MARC and OCLC have segregated different types of material in the past to the point where the OCLC system allows database searches to be qualified by format designation. Under the new definition, therefore, if you are searching a collection of maps it might be found in either the map format (MAP) or archives control format (AMC). The inclusion of non-manuscript material is complicated further by OCLC allowing users the alternative to exclude manuscripts and enter them in the book format. The user, therefore, is required to conduct qualified searchers under both the books (BKS) and manuscripts (AMC) formats to insure access to all manuscript materials. This particular system application negates the authority of the AMC as the only acceptable format for archival communication. While the former MARC definition is beyond OCLC's control to alter, it might consider eliminating

this latter system option and show it seriously supports the AMC's position as the profession's standard.

The other unique feature of the AMC is in its very nature — it is a 'control' format for any and all types of material considered archival collections. The AMC has the capacity to link records and show the hierarchical ties between parent and component parts of collections. Record numbers, names, and vertical relationships are cross-referenced. More examples of this might clarify to government and corporate archivists, long shy of the OCLC system, the relevance of this new feature to their control activities. Adding detailed format examples of the interdependence of the Linking Entry Complexity Note (580) and the Host Item Entry field (773) would be a good start.

The actual 'control' features of the format exist in various note fields, especially the Actions note (583) which allows online recording of the archival actions taken throughout the life of a collection. The problem with using a system such as OCLC for control functions is that most archivists do not have constant and immediate access to an OCLC terminal where such ongoing communications take place. We are asking an international database to serve as a local control system and it is not a very practical expectation. Here again, OCLC or any system applying MARC as its authority, must use the format as defined by LC. Each system, moreover, applies the format differently. Whereas RLIN segregates the bibliographic and control fields in the AMC, OCLC masks from public view those fields of a private or sensitive nature. Only authorized users can access certain control fields and complete these transactions.

While immediate communication with OCLC may not be convenient, action data entered onto the system is recorded in machine-readable form for purchase on magnetic tape. The tape data then can be loaded into a local automated system where daily transactions are conducted more easily. The emergence of local systems, including OCLC's own LS 2000, makes this option very attractive and gives more control over local data manipulation. Keying this information only once is also a great cost advantage.

As a cataloging/bibliographic tool, OCLC, perhaps obviously, excels. AACR2 and Hensen's manual are the basis for the bibliographic conventions employed by the system and examples are drawn directly from these volumes to make the transition easier. While providing these uniform guidelines, OCLC also allows individual application of rules as dictated by institutional practice. Whether good or bad, the rules define the basis for common communication and archives should be encouraged to use them correctly and consistently. Time and trial will codify and clarify specific interpretations.

While many old complaints about OCLC still surface, including limited record length and no subject search capability, they are being addressed by constant system improvement and expansion. As long as we must take a format, such as the AMC, and fit it into an already existing system, such as OCLC, problems will arise. Until a system can be created to meet archival specifications, such as the system Max Evans and Lisa Weber envision, we must accommodate our needs to the tools at hand. Although OCLC is a handy tool for many institutions, it must be evaluated in light of individual needs, facilities, goals, and clientele. Keeping the proper perspective on what any system can or cannot do, being realistic about your demands, and lob-

bying for change when it is required, make for a cordial if not harmonious relationship between user and system. OCLC is showing a willingness to promote archives and their cause. Member archives, in turn, must accept their responsibility to support the system. The channels for communication appear clearer now. Let's hope the dialog continues to elicit improvements.

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Information Management, Machine-Readable Records, and Administration: An Annotated Bibliography. Compiled and edited by Richard M. Kesner. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1983. 168 pp. Index. Paper. $8.00, members; $11.00, others.

I admit it: I didn't read every entry and I haven't "mastered" the bibliography and the works it summarizes as recommended by the author in his preface. A person can stand only so much *Datamation.* I was interested, then, to discover something entirely unexpected — an article on computer image enhancement used to help decipher faded or otherwise illegible documents. But when I misplaced the note I had made of it, I couldn't seem to find it again using the index. Image enhancement? Nothing. Paper? Documents? Writing? Analysis? Enhancement? Illegibility? What else could I look for? The article does not seem to be indexed anywhere. I finally found it in chapter 4 (Machine-Readable Records and Archives), section D (Quantitative Research, Reference Services, and the User), citation number 377. The division of this bibliography into chapters and sections is generally a good thing, but some items resist logical classification therein. The index is generally a good thing, but only for the items indexed. I assume the lost citation is an isolated instance.

There are about three times the number of citations in this work as in its predecessor, *Automation, Machine-Readable Records, and Archival Administration: An Annotated Bibliography,* also compiled by Kesner and published by SAA in 1979. Kesner's introduction attributes this in part to the increased publication activity relating to EDP applications in archives and management of machine-readable records during the intervening three years. The remaining increase is accounted for by a broader selection of works concerning specific technologies or their uses, such as videodisc, office automation, and data communications and networks, included because of their potential effect on archival administration. The introduction also contains some predictions about the increasing sophistication and decreasing cost of computer-related technologies available to archivists. Archivists are frequently admonished to embrace them or be replaced by more highly automated information providers. The arrangement of the bibliography is clear enough that it shouldn't be necessary to consult the introductory matter, except that it contains at least one reference to a work that doesn't appear among the numbered citations and isn't covered in the index.

The book's physical presentation is mostly adequate for its purpose. Although the center margins could have been wider to allow for binding, the

citation entries are quite readable. The introductory narratives, in a larger and lighter typeface, are not. The indentation separating the citations from their annotations is odd. It reminds me of the surprise white spaces we used to see in some computer-generated type, but this seems to have been planned that way. Running heads would have helped support the purpose of the chapter and section divisions. Statistical comparisons made in the introduction would have been clearer expressed in numerals than they are in words. The front matter is curiously numbered *backwards* from *x*. The title on the cover and title page is as shown above, but in the preface and introduction *Archival* precedes *Administration,* which seems to make more sense.

The predicted trends in technology development and publication activity have continued in the nearly two years since the book was published. Optical character readers, apparently covered only briefly in three items, are becoming cheaper and more adaptable to different character sets. Many articles in the past two years describe libraries' experiences with online public access catalogs. They contain analyses of problems very likely also to be faced by public archives serving their constituents, so these articles make good reading now. The bibliography remains valuable to return to, but perhaps we also need an annual literature review that surveys the significant new writing (or developments) in information management and machine-readable records as they apply to archival administration.

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Archives & Manuscripts: Conservation. A Manual on Physical Care and Management. By Mary Lynn Ritzenthaler. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1983. 152 pp. Appendices, index, illustrations. Paper. $10.00, members; $14.00, others.

A conservation manual has been long overdue in the archival profession. The first printing of three thousand copies of this manual sold out in nine months, the fastest in SAA's publishing history. The second printing incorporates revisions, most notably an index compiled by Laura K. Saegert that greatly enhances this outstanding manual for "persons having curatorial or administrative responsibility for archival and manuscript collections." The author is one of the most qualified archival conservators in the country, and was recently appointed senior conservator in the National Archives' Conservation Laboratory. She served as director of the SAA Basic Archival Conservation Program when the manual was written. Her expertise and enthusiasm for the subject, obvious to those who participated in the workshops she conducted, come through in this manual.

Ritzenthaler presents the National Conservation Advisory Council's definitions of conservation and conservation personnel and offers a philosophy that "provides the foundation for an overall conservation program that includes storage, handling, and preventive maintenance." A number of principles are set forth as guidelines for implementation of conservation programs and procedures.

The manual includes a concise history of papermaking and excellent descriptions of the materials found in archival collections: papers, inks, animal skins, cloth, adhesives, and photographic materials. Sections on the causes of deterioration, creating a suitable environment, and storage and handling of materials should be required reading in all repositories. Institutions considering the establishment of a conservation workshop will find the sections on administration, implementation, procedures, and lists of supplies and equipment most helpful. The manual is liberally illustrated with drawings by Edward R. Gilbert and photographs, forms, and surveys from numerous sources. All clarify the descriptions, instructions, and warnings in the text.

Appendices include a glossary of 39 conservation terms; instructions for basic procedures; an evaluation of the literature and an annotated bibliography; sources of audio-visual programs, supplies and equipment, and funding; and annotated lists of regional conservation centers and conservation organizations. The most practical, and certain to be the most frequently used section of the manual, is Appendix B — Basic Conservation Procedures: Instructions. Ritzenthaler offers easy-to-follow, step-by-step directions for relaxing and flattening documents, removal of paper fasteners, surface cleaning of paper records, testing for ink solubility, testing the pH of paper, paste preparation, mending with long-fiber Japanese paper, polyester encapsulation, treatment of leather bound volumes, examining and removing framed material under glass, and reprints of the Library of Congress's instructions for construction of phased boxes and the Center for Occupational Hazards's "Thymol and o-Phenyl Phenol: Safe Work Practices." Original illustrations by Pamela Spitzmueller enhance this section. The author wisely advises that these treatment procedures not be attempted by the inexperienced. Instructions for more sophisticated procedures, such as deacidification, are omitted, but discussed in the text. One can only hope that SAA will issue a follow-up manual and offer workshops on advanced conservation procedures for those archivists who have mastered the techniques in Ritzenthaler's manual and are ready to move ahead.

This manual is rapidly becoming a classic. It is well worth the purchase price and should be mandatory in every institution concerned with the preservation of library and archival material.

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Archives & Manuscripts: Administration of Photographic Collections. By Mary Lynn Ritzenthaler, Gerald J. Munoff, and Margery S. Long. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1984. 176 pp. Appendices and index. Paper. $14.00, members; $18.00, others.

This most lavish volume of the SAA Basic Manual Series aims to help archivists, librarians, manuscript curators, and picture specialists in "setting priorities and making sound decisions" in the management of photograph collections. An outstanding collaborative effort, this book serves as a thorough and concise introduction to the basics of photographic administration.

The special strength of this volume is the clear definition it provides of the major issues facing every photographic administrator. Optimum management practices are suggested with the realization that most repositories will not presently be able to meet them. While encouraging a thoughtful analysis of existing photographic collection conditions, services, policies, and procedures, the manual challenges the reader to set goals and meet the professional standards expressed.

The manual is attractive and easy to read. The authors have done a fine job of integrating a wealth of photographic examples, excellent illustrative diagrams, and samples of administrative forms throughout the book. Essential technical information is offered alongside thoughtful analyses of how such information may best be used. The technical overview of photographic processes is particularly well done.

There are seven major sections in the manual. The first "Photographs in Archival Collections," reviews the characteristics, nature, and uses of photographs, and touches on some of the major photographic genres and movements. Well written and full of vivid examples, this section could easily be expanded to an entire manual. The second section, "History of Photographic Processes," offers a concise discussion of the uses of photographic process identification information in conservation, image identification and interpretation, and image appraisal. The chemistry, history, and identification of each process, beginning with daguerreotypes and ending with color processes, is reviewed. While the amount of technical detail presented here may discourage some readers, it is essential information to any photo collection manager. The impact of this chapter is heightened by the inclusion of an excellent group of illustrative examples. "Appraisal and Collecting Policies," the third section, reviews the factors to be considered in setting collection policy guidelines and procedures, such as lead files and collection documentation files. The discussion of appraisal and collecting policy makes good use of examples and sample forms.

"Arrangement and Description," the fourth section, discusses both the planning and implementation of archival arrangement of photographic collections. The importance of an institutional mission and goal statement precedes a review of principles of provenance and original order, and might benefit from expanded treatment in future editions. Options for dealing with different types of photographic accessions, such as photographs in manuscript collections as opposed to individual photographs are discussed. Difficulties routinely encountered with archival arrangement are reviewed. The chapter provides basic steps in processing a collection, from the initial collection checklist through description. This chapter represents one of the most complete and well reasoned arguments for archival arrangement of photographic collections yet written. The step-by-step exploration of the arrangement and description process relates archival principles to the complex requirements of photographic holdings. This section should be expanded in future editions. Such weighty problems as implementation of the MARC audio-visual format, subject indexing of photographic collections, identification of photographs, and automation of photo collection data, not to mention special format indexes on microfilm or videodisc, deserve further discussion.

"Preservation of Photographic Materials," section five, begins with a warning. Archivists are told to turn their attention to collection examination and preservation, rather than restoration. The nature of photographs and causes of photographic deterioration are summarized. The importance of adequate environmental controls and proper storage materials are reviewed. The storage requirements of particular processes and formats of photos such as collodion prints and lantern slides are detailed. Some restoration procedures such as opening and flattening rolled prints and cleaning and removing stains are explained with warnings. The inclusion of these techniques may encourage archivists untrained in conservation procedures to experiment with their photographic holdings, and they should be discouraged. The need to integrate conservation into daily archival activities from field work to exhibition is stressed. The section on the elements of a photographic disaster plan and those of an integrated conservation program should be expanded. Sample plans or checklists would be an appropriate addition to the appendices.

The sixth section, "Legal Issues," focuses on ownership of photographic collections, copyright, and privacy rights. Deeds of gift, deposit agreements and bills of sale are discussed with suitable examples. The impact of legal issues on reproduction rights, exhibitions, publication, and other researcher use are briefly reviewed. This troublesome area deserves further discussion, and would be an excellent area for a survey of archival practice. The technical portions of this section may be daunting to the casual reader. This chapter would benefit from the inclusion of additional examples and more summary charts.

The final section, "Managing a Photographic Copy Service," discusses the reproduction services necessary to meet research, preservation, and exhibition requirements. The benefits of an in-house copy facility are compared to those of a commercial firm. Copy formats, from xerographic copies to microphotography, are overviewed. Some preservation copy standards are suggested, as are the basic steps in setting up a copy room and implementing a copy service. Forms, policies, and fees merit expanded discussion.

The appendices of the volume provide a wealth of supplemental detail including an outstanding bibliography, a fine list of archival suppliers, and a good list of funding sources for photographic collections. The modest glossary is the only truly weak link in an otherwise outstanding production. SAA and the authors are to be congratulated on a job well done.

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CONTRIBUTORS

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