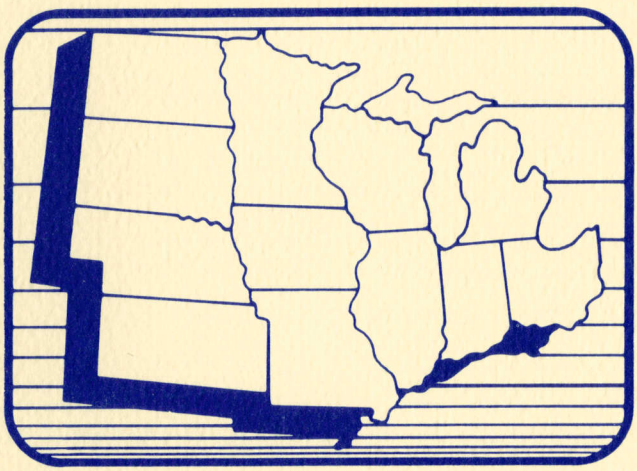
The Midwestern Archivist



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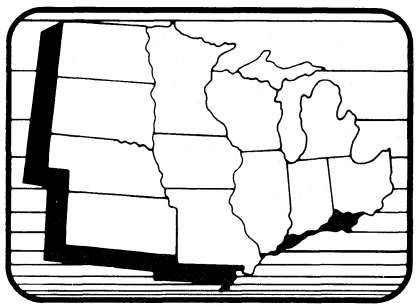

ADOPTING AND ADAPTING RECORDS MANAGEMENT TO COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES

MARJORIE RABE BARRITT

ABSTRACT: A comprehensive records management program has proven an elusive goal at many college and university archives, partially because of the development of college and university archives out of the manuscript tradition. A 1987 survey of archives at twelve universities showed that the archives are modifying records management to suit their particular situation while continuing traditional archival services. Elements of an archives and records management program are discussed with particular emphasis on adopting and adapting certain records management techniques to fit individual college and university archives.

Introduction

In 1987, two consultants—one a director of a state archives and the other a NARA administrator—told the staff of the University of Michigan Archives and Records Program that the program did not "do" records management.[1] In truth, the staff was not operating a comprehensive records management program, but was using selected records management techniques and traditional archival procedures. Furthermore, it seems likely that records management, as practiced by the University of Michigan Archives and Records Program and other colleges and universities may never meet the records management program criteria of a director of a state archives or of a NARA administrator. What it might accomplish, however, is the documentation of complex, modern institutions of higher learning.

A comprehensive records management program includes most, if not all of the following activities: evaluating and controlling the creation of records, forms, and filing systems; managing active files; conducting systematic records surveys; using those surveys to develop retention and disposition schedules; transferring selected inactive records to a records center for temporary storage; transferring records to the archives for permanent retention; using micrographics for security, preservation, and/or space reduction; managing vital records; and developing a records management procedures manual.[2] A comprehensive records management program has proven an elusive goal at many college and

university archives. Perhaps it is elusive because for some it is the wrong goal. It is the wrong goal because it disregards the traditions of those college and university archives that have developed out of an historical manuscript tradition and because it requires greater institutional support than many college and university archives are given.

Records Management and the Historical Manuscript Tradition

Archival literature gives credit to government archivists for the development of records management programs. As Maynard Brichford described it in an address to the New England Archivists in April of 1979, "Faced with huge masses of records and the indiscriminate desires of scholars that everything of interest to them be saved, archivists turned their attention to the records-making and records-keeping procedures in the officies of origin...As archival concerns merged with management concerns, the field of records management developed."[3] State records management programs were developed following the federal example. The onset of this phenomenon occurred, for the most part, during and after World War II.

College and university archives did not follow the federal and state example; they were not quick to develop comprehensive records management programs. As late as 1979 Brichford could make the comment that "few universities have adopted major programs....Many programs have a 'low profile'....Many other university records management programs are 'invisible' or non-existent."[4] The reluctance to adopt comprehensive records management programs on the part of college and university archives may be explained by their roots in the historical manuscript tradition and by the modest support accorded many archives by their parent institutions.

Long after federal and state governments began developing comprehensive records management programs to cope with the mass of modern records, at many colleges and universities records were being saved, if they were preserved at all, as manuscript collections. Records management programs as developed by state and federal governments were considered alien at college and university archives that had developed out of an historical manuscript tradition.

Some colleges and universities attempted to cope with modern records responsibilities by separating records management from the archives; at some public institutions in states with strong records management programs the university records were included in the statewide records system. Both the historical manuscript tradition of many pioneering college and university archives and the development of records management programs separate from archives at other institutions tended to create an intellectual climate in which collegiate archival and records management programs were seen as separate and distinct.

The Elusiveness of Comprehensive Records Management Programs

The University of Michigan is representative of the many college and university archives and records programs that have developed out of an historical manuscript tradition. In 1935 a young history professor was given $1,200 and two charges: to collect documentation of the history of the state of Michigan

and to collect documentation of the history of the university. A governing bylaw written two years later created the Michigan Historical Collections as the institution to house these documentation efforts. The bylaw made no distinction between the historical manuscripts collections and the university archives.[5] From 1935 to 1979 there was no differentiation between the staff and procedures that were used to collect university records and historical manuscripts documenting the state of Michigan. In 1979, for the first time, staff was hired specifically to collect, preserve, and process university records. At that time the first effort to introduce records management techniques was begun.

To help the staff understand how other universities "do" records management and to assess the support provided by other institutions to their archives programs, the Bentley Historical Library conducted a survey in January 1988 of twelve "peer" institutions.[6] The results of this survey provide evidence to support an hypothesis regarding the elusiveness of comprehensive university records management programs.

The survey included six large public and six medium-sized private universities.[7] The six public universities had enrollments between 30,000 and 50,000; the six private institutions' enrollments were between 9,000 and 17,000. Budgets figures for the archives ranged from $37,000 to $750,000; professional staff from one to seven; support staff from zero to seven; stack space from 2,400 linear feet to 50,000 linear feet; holdings from 2,500 to 50,000 linear feet; and accessions over the last five years from 600 to 10,000 linear feet (see Table 1).

Ten of the twelve archives reported operating under a written authorization—usually from the trustees or corporation—which defined the university community's responsibility to university records and/or defined university records. It is not enough to have a written authorization spelling out the respective responsibilities of university units and the archives for university records. Such an authorization needs to be interpreted; the information that will enable units to act on the authorization needs to be disseminated to them. Most respondents use a records management manual. Others use brochures, workshops, and personal contact.

TABLE 1
INSTITUTIONAL STATISTICS

	low		mean		high	
	Public	**Private**	**Public**	**Private**	**Public**	**Private**
Student body	30,000	9,000	39,706	13,056	50,000	17,000
Archives budget	37,000	65,436	64,982	247,185	100,000	750,000
Professional staff	1.5	1	2.39	2.93	6	7
Support Staff	0	1.5	.78	3.48	2	7
Stack space (linear ft.)	2,400	10,000	17,200	30,000	32,000	50,000
Holdings (linear ft.)	2,500	10,000	12,250	30,000	22,000	50,000
Accessioned in last five years (linear ft.)	600	1,500	3,360	5,750	6,133	10,000

Statistics on institutions from survey conducted in January 1988. Figures given are for 1988/89 academic year.

Many college and university archives have responsibility for more than university records—a result of originating as manuscript repositories. This is a complicating factor because nonuniversity records often do not fit into a records management program, yet they must be collected, processed, and preserved for research use. All twelve archives in the survey have responsibility for the collection and retention of faculty papers, student organization records, and alumni papers even though these materials are not defined as official university records. Nine of the twelve university archives accession nonuniversity historical manuscripts.

In response to the question, "Is records management a function of your repository?," nine archives answered yes, two answered that it was an informal function, and one institution is planning to implement a records management program in the near future. The survey then listed specific services, some corresponding to traditional archival procedures and some to records management techniques, and asked which of the services the archives provided (see Table 2). All twelve archives offer traditional archival services: archival storage, administrative reference, photocopying for reference use, consultation with individual units, and on-request surveys. All but two archives routinely prepare finding aids for accessioned records. Those two prepare finding aids only for selected units because most of their units create records inventories as part of the transfer procedure.

In contrast, the survey found that services that correspond to records management techniques were not uniformly provided. The centerpiece of comprehensive records management programs—a systematic and thorough survey of the institution's records and subsequent scheduling of all records series—is not the centerpiece of the respondents' programs. One archives had carried out a comprehensive survey with grant funds but was unable to follow up with comprehensive schedules and transfers. Another respondent reported having a systematic survey two-thirds complete. All respondents reported doing on-request surveys and nine archives schedule records series as a result of the on-request surveys.

Records center storage (temporary storage for scheduled records that may never be given permanent archival retention) is provided by eight archives. Certain genres of records—financial, personnel, student folders—are found in many units. Efficient records management would dictate that campus-wide guidelines or schedules should be created for these genres of records. Eight archives have campus-wide guidelines for financial records, three have guidelines for personnel files, and four for student folders.

Most of the archives surveyed are not doing records management as it is defined by state archives and by NARA. Not all the components of a comprehensive records management program are being used, and the records management techniques used are not applied to all units in a systematic manner. There is little evaluation or control of the creation of records, of forms, or of filing systems; management of active files is not standardized, but is a byproduct of consultation with individual units; records center storage is not an integral part of one-third of these programs; micrographics are used mostly for reference and only occasionally for security, preservation, and/or space reduction.

The inability or reluctance to adopt a comprehensive records management program may have several causes. First, colleges and universities are often

decentralized administratively, and as a result archivists work in an overall environment of relative autonomy. In such an environment mandates from governing boards are not an effective substitute for state and federal records laws. Second, most college and university archives are modestly funded which limits their ability to carry out extensive records management programs. Third, those college and university archives that developed out of the historical manuscript tradition may be reluctant to substitute records management techniques for traditional archival procedures. Failure to adopt comprehensive records management programs may also be explained by a change in the way archivists justify their work. In his 1974 article, "A University Archives and Records Management Program: Some Operational Guidelines," William

TABLE 2
SERVICES OFFERED BY ARCHIVES IN SURVEY TAKEN JANUARY 1988

	I	WM	WS	PS	MSU	UM	H	MIT	S	Y	NW	C
Archival storage	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Records center storage	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y[1]	Y	N
Finding aids	Y	Y[2]	Y	Y	Y[2]	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Administrative reference	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Document delivery	N	Y	Y	Y[5]	Y	Y	N	Y	Y[5]	N	Y	Y[1]
Arranging for microfilming	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y
Photocopying	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Consultation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Workshops	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y
Boxing	Y[3]	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
and moving	Y[3]	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Box/folder lists created by archives prior to transfer	N	N	Y	Y	N[2]	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y[5]	N[4]
Systematic survey	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y[1]	N	Y	Y	N
On-request survey	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Schedule records series	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y
Charge for service (excluding copying)	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y[1]	N	N	N	Y

I=University of Illinois; WM=University of Wisconsin/Madison; WS=Wayne State; PS=Penn State; MSU=Michigan State University; UM=University of Michigan; H=Harvard; MIT=Massachusetts Institute of Technology; S=Stanford; Y=Yale; NW=Northwestern; C=Cornell

1. Selected units only
2. Departments are required to prepare a records inventory when transferring records. Finding aids are prepared for a few selected units only.
3. For less than ten feet
4. Beginning on a contractual basis
5. On occasion

Saffady states that some university archives have justified their existence and budgetary allocations by assuming full records management responsibility.[8] If archives in the 1970s justified their operations by cost saving through records management, archives today are more likely to promote their archival and records management function as part of the administrative responsibility of the institution and the existence of archival information as an institutional asset. Higher education has discovered the past as a marketable commodity. Colleges and universities, for example, rely on their past and their alumni's remembrance of that past for fund-raising. Many archives play an increasingly important role in development.

Instead of instituting comprehensive records management programs, the college and university archives in the survey are creating selective records management programs that fit their institutions. They are introducing records management techniques that are suitable to their particular situation and expanding the use of those techniques as funding permits. At the same time they are continuing the archival services and procedures that have been a part of their operation, many of which grow out of the historical manuscript tradition.

Adopting and Adapting Records Management Techniques

Among those institutions surveyed, college and university archivists do not adopt records management techniques to enhance administrative service and reference or to provide space saving and cost effectiveness—although these are important outcomes of such techniques. Rather they adopt and adapt selected records management techniques that will allow them to maintain more efficiently cultural facilities focusing on the preservation of records for research use.

In performing this cultural mission it is not necessary or advisable to wait until the archives is adequately supported to begin the adoption and adaptation of records management techniques. Rather, archives should begin with what is possible; adopt records management techniques suited to a specific situation and adapt them to specific circumstances.

Two steps should precede the implementation of any records management techniques: the development of a collecting policy and the assessment of the archives' gaps, weaknesses, and strengths in relation to the collecting policy. It may be that the collecting policy for college and university archives seems self-evident; they collect university records. But college and university archivists cannot, nor should they want to, accession all university records. They must collect selectively. In addition, a collecting policy helps archivists to be proactive. Most college and university archivists tend to be reactive—mostly because of understaffing. Too often they fill their stacks with records they are offered rather than records they should hold but need actively to seek.[9] Assessing the gaps, weaknesses, and strengths is accomplished by reviewing the holdings in each of the collecting areas. Are all units represented? Are the holdings as current as possible? Are important records series represented?

Having reviewed current holdings and established a collecting policy, an archives often begins implementation with central administrative units. College and university archives are sometimes criticized because they have documented from the top down, but central administrative units are stable, usually well organized with decent filing systems, and are therefore conducive to thorough

documentation. Also beginning at the top offers important visibility for a job done right. As an alternative archives could choose one central administrative unit, one administrative unit from a college or school, one department, one campus-wide committee, one student organization, and one support unit as beginning points. The initial survey and accession could then become a model for each type of unit.

Surveys are the first step in any program. They should result not only in an initial accession, but in the periodic transfer of historically significant records series, and the destruction of series without permanent value. Ideally the generating unit should be advised about every records series it creates. The survey should identify records series that ought to remain in the unit until destruction and include recommendations for a destruction date. It should also identify series that should be transferred to records center storage, if it exists, until destruction, and series to be transferred to the archives. Recommendations about genres of records that must meet statutory or regulatory rules—such as financial records, student folders, or personnel files—should also be given.

It will be difficult for most college and university archives to administer a completely standardized records retention and disposition schedule; colleges and universities are decentralized and idiosyncratic institutions, whose administrators are moved as much by recommendation and persuasion as by directives from above. The traditional manuscript practices of personal contact and individual arrangements for survey and transfer may never be completely replaced by routinized and standardized schedules, however efficient.

Other records management techniques can be introduced within the limits of a program's capacity and modified to meet specific needs. Records center storage is generally proposed for the temporary storage of records scheduled for destruction, but it may be used for the off-site storage of records to be transferred to the archives at a later date, or the storage of archival records with lengthy closure dates. If an archives has the resources to transfer and store inactive records scheduled for destruction at a later date to a records center administered by the archives, it assures the timely destruction of the records and alleviates space problems in the transferring unit. Most archives, however, do not have those resources. As an alternative, an archives can use records center storage only for inactive records that the unit is not yet ready to release to the archives but that the archives ultimately wishes to have. By housing in a records center the records that have historical value but that cannot be immediately accessioned, an archives can increase the probability of their eventual formal transfer to the archives.

College and university archives may choose to develop a manual that covers the institution's records-related policies and the archival procedures and records management techniques used by the archives to carry out those policies. The importance of a manual cannot be overlooked. As records management techniques are extended, as more units' records are surveyed and retention and disposal recommendations are prepared, general guidelines or recommendations may be included in the manual. Information on general filing procedures that support efficient maintenance of active files and the transfer of inactive files should also be included in a manual. Specific boxing, labeling, and transfer directions will make the originating unit better able to prepare for transfer and make the transfer more efficient.

Conclusion

Most college and university archives will operate modestly funded programs for the forseeable future. Archives with limited support may not be able to implement and maintain a comprehensive records management program, but selected records management techniques may enable such an archives to work more efficiently. A comprehensive records management program may not be a practical goal for many college and university archives, but the adoption and adaptation of records management techniques offers college and university archives their best chance of meeting the challenge of adequately documenting campus communities.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR: Marjorie Rabe Barritt is associate archivist with the University Archives and Records Program for the University of Michigan which is housed in the Bentley Historical Library. This article grew out of papers presented at the spring 1988 Midwestern Archives Conference meeting in Chicago and the fall 1988 SAA meeting in Atlanta. The author wishes to thank William K. Wallach, assistant director of the Bentley Historical Library, for his advice and comments.

NOTES

1. In 1987 Edwin C. Bridges, director of the Alabama Department of Archives and History, and Frank Burke, acting archivist of the United States, were asked by Francis X. Blouin, Jr., director of the Bentley Historical Library, to review the library's programs.
2. Based on techniques listed in Wilmer O. Maedke, Mary F. Robek, and Gerald F. Brown, *Information and Records Management* (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Glencoe Press, 1974); and William Benedon, *Records Management* (Los Angeles: The Trident Shop, California State University, 1969).
3. Maynard Brichford, "Records Management: A General Introduction for Archivists," paper presented at the New England Archivists annual spring meeting, Hanover, New Hampshire, 28 April 1979, p.1.
4. Ibid., 6.
5. Board of Regents of the University of Michigan, "Bylaws of the Board of Regents," Sec 12.04, The Michigan Historical Collections (Ann Arbor: December 1985, updated July 1988), 70.
6. The Bentley Historical Library houses the Michigan Historical Collections, a manuscript collection documenting the State of Michigan and its peoples, and the University of Michigan archives.
7. The institutions surveyed were: Cornell University, Harvard University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Michigan State University, Northwestern University, Pennsylvania State University, Stanford University, University of Illinois, University of Michigan, University of Wisconsin/Madison, Wayne State University, and Yale University.
8. William Saffady, "A University Archives and Records Management Program: Some Operational Guidelines," in *College and Research Libraries* (May 1974): 204-210, reprinted in *College and University Archives: Selected Readings* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1979), 97-103.
9. See the section on collecting policy (page 3) in the very useful document prepared by the Sub-Committee on Standards for the College and University Archives Committee of the Society of American Archivists, "Guidelines for College and University Archives," approved by the full committee in Nashville, 3 October 1978. These standards relied heavily on the University of Wisconsin System Archives Council's, "Core Mission and Minimum Standards for University Archives in the University of Wisconsin System," 1977.

ARCHIVAL EDUCATION: THE NEXT STEP

SUSAN E. DAVIS

ABSTRACT: Archival education has undergone rapid changes in recent years. Developments thus far have been based on certain assumptions and therefore have focused more on the various venues for archival education than on the actual content of courses. The current concern about professionalism will dominate the next stage. As a result, future developments will concentrate on four areas: the range of audiences for educational programs; the content of these programs; teaching methodology; and control or regulation of archival education. Certification may also play a major role.

Education for archivists has been a topic of great concern for as long as most of us can remember. We have devoted a great deal of attention to the profession's traditional affiliations with history and library science; we have discussed the pros and cons of classroom training versus hands-on experience; and we have considered the relative merits of certification of individuals, accreditation of educational programs, and accreditation of archival institutions.

While we have gone over the same ground time and time again, progress indeed has been made. In 1988, the Society of American Archivists (SAA) approved new guidelines for graduate archival education, guidelines that more thoroughly examine the scope of archival theory and practice.[1] The expanded programs of several institutions reflect these guidelines and the profession's interest in more comprehensive archival education.[2]

Archivists now have available to them a far more extensive range of educational opportunities than they did even five years ago. This is due in part to the establishment by SAA of an Education Office which serves as both a sponsor of educational programs and a clearinghouse for information on archival education. The workshops generated and/or sponsored by this office already have had a positive effect on the development of the profession. And, last but not least, the profession has embarked upon a program of individual certification.

The achievements of these past few years are indeed significant and move archival education and, thus, the entire profession in certain positive directions. Until now, the development of archival education has been based on a series of assumptions. First, the consensus has been that there is one fundamental core of knowledge to be learned, consisting basically of the elements outlined in Section II of the 1977 Guidelines for a Graduate Minor or Concentration in Archival Education.[3] There is less agreement on the place of more specialized

areas of technical and managerial expertise or subjects taught in related disciplines. Second, we maintain that archival education represents a graduate curriculum that must combine coursework and attention to theory with practical experience in an archival repository. And third, we recognize that continuing education is necessary, both to keep pace with new developments and to fill in the inevitable gaps.

In coming to these conclusions we have placed more emphasis on the nature of the various forums for archival education, i.e. graduate courses, practica, and workshops sponsored by archival associations and institutions of higher learning, than we have on the content of the actual programs. In part we have fallen into this trap, emphasizing format over content, because of yet another assumption—that there is a typical career path that most archivists follow. Individuals somehow discover archival work and enter the profession via an educational program and/or employment. They advance to increasingly responsible positions requiring additional and more specialized knowledge and training. We cringe self-righteously at programs that purport to impart all relevant knowledge in a few days.

These assumptions might all work quite nicely if we had some semblance of control over entry into the profession. But, while we seem to accept the logic of these assumptions, at the same time we ignore the fact that anyone can still claim to be an archivist. As Richard Cox has pointed out, "Community sanction of the archival occupation is probably the weakest element of archival professionalism....Archivists do not, in any substantive way, control entry to their ranks. It seems that virtually anyone can become a 'professional' archivist by simply declaring to be one."[4] And we cannot solely blame these practitioners as long as archival employers persist in hiring for archival positions those without adequate credentials. How can we effect change in this area? And how does this question of professionalism affect archival education? One goal of certification is to improve this unhappy situation, but in terms of archival education, certification really pertains only to full-time archivists. And the topic of archival education affects not only full-time archivists, but also those individuals for whom archival work makes up even part of their job descriptions. The problem of "part-time" archivists will undoubtedly continue since it is unlikely that institutional lines will ever be so neatly drawn as to separate job functions purely by category of material.

Our future remains closely linked to our identity as a distinct profession. We have had difficulty in defining what makes us archivists and often expose that confusion to the public. Are we a "professionalizing vocation," as Mary Jo Pugh has proposed, striving to improve, to set new goals, and move towards them?[5] Or are we a "semiprofession" or "mimic profession," as Richard Cox suggests, based on our shorter training and lack of autonomy and legitimized status.[6]

Our ability to grapple with this issue and to build a clearer self-identity will determine the image we consequently present to others. And that, in turn, will affect the way we view archival education as preparation for our profession as well as the steps we take to strengthen its development. Professionalism is the overarching theme that will shape the future of archival education. This theme will manifest itself not in discussions of history versus library science, or theory versus practice, but rather in the framework of what we teach, to whom,

how, and within what guidelines. These issues are all closely linked and represent the next steps in the development of archival education. It is clear that changes in the way we view each of these areas—audience, content, methodology, and control of archival education—will contribute to our ability to shape our image as a profession.

The issue of audience affects both graduate programs and continuing education. In order to assess the audience for graduate education, we must take a closer look at the connection between the job market and the type of student entering graduate archival education programs. For a number of years, the profession experienced a sizable crossover from history to archives, due to the glut of historians on the teaching market. Now, the students in graduate archival education programs are coming in greater numbers from library science, where the majority of the graduate archival education programs are situated. In 1976, the M.L.S. was the preferred degree for fewer than half the jobs advertised in the SAA *Newsletter* that required a master's degree. Ten years later, in 1986, the statistics were very different: the M.L.S. degree was preferred in over two-thirds of the archival jobs advertised.[7] Many feel, however, that this shift from history to library science has had an adverse effect on the quality of the students, and that the intellectual background of the library school population is inferior to that within a history department.[8] In addition, library science educators are expressing concern that the overall level of library science students is on the decline as the inevitable result of the profession's low status and pay scale relative to other lines of work. This trend should concern us if we want to maintain both the numbers and the quality of students entering graduate archival education programs. Both the profession at large and the sponsors of graduate education programs will need to develop better methods of recruitment. How might we identify promising college students as well as those already pursuing related graduate programs? This is an area in which the Archival Educators Roundtable, for example, might become involved.[9]

Evaluating the market for continuing education is more complex, but is also affected by the growth of graduate education programs. The consensus among many is that entry level archival jobs are now being filled in greater numbers by individuals whose graduate education included archival coursework.[10] The assumption is, therefore, that they arrive on their first job with a basic level of archival competence. This was less often the case for previous generations of entry level archivists, who were often forced to play catch-up in many basic areas of archival activity. This trend, as well as the move towards certification, may create new distinctions between pre-employment training and continuing education.

As a result of higher expectations for pre-employment training, beginning professional archivists may need less remedial work in the basic elements of archival theory and practice. Continuing education could then follow the more appropriate agenda outlined by Mary Jo Pugh at SAA's 1987 Education Conference in Savannah. In her paper, she defined continuing education as that which "involves educational activities which are beyond those normally considered necessary for entrance into the field, and enhance individual competence for the job now held or aspired to in the near future."[11] She goes on to divide continuing education into three categories: that which updates an individual's education to make it comparable to students receiving a like degree at the pre-

sent time; that which upgrades the level of formal capabilities; and that which acts as a refresher or review of once familiar material to sharpen skills and knowledge.[12] This framework represents a comprehensive approach to continuing education and covers different but complementary ground from that contained in the revised Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education Programs.

This by no means implies that the need for basic archival education outside of graduate education programs will be eliminated. As stated earlier, the profession lacks the authority to dictate job qualifications to prospective employers. But, more important, we need to acknowledge that archival records are under the jurisdiction of many who are not and never will be full-time archivists. Librarians, curators, museum staff, and others count archives as part of their responsibilities. In addition, archival repositories number among their personnel both paraprofessional staff and administrators, two groups that would clearly benefit from and have indeed shown interest in archival training. To ignore that audience because we prefer not to simplify or condense archival training is unwise. We need to keep the lines of communication open and get our foot in the door in the hopes of strengthening those operations. Without our input, these individuals will continue to handle archival records and administer archival programs, often poorly, putting archival material at risk. In many respects, this audience could be a substantial consumer group for archival education offerings.

To serve them, we need to develop more introductory training modules in archival basics, to be sponsored by archival associations and/or institutions of higher learning.[13] In doing so, we must acknowledge that such courses and workshops cannot supplant a comprehensive graduate level archival education program. That distinction must remain clear. A broader understanding of the potential clientele for the full range of archival education opportunities will help redefine the nature of both pre-employment and post-employment training. It will also help clarify our own sense of professional development by distinguishing between archival education for archivists and archival education for nonarchivists.

Another area that warrants our attention is the content of these various archival education programs. We have until now paid more attention to the venues for archival education than we have to what is being taught. We count the number of courses listed in the SAA Education Directory without really distinguishing between fundamental archival topics and electives of varying relevance. The syllabi for most basic archives education courses devote a class each to a menu of topics. But little attention is paid to what is being taught under those headings. The archival profession needs to devote more attention to the content of these courses. What should an introductory class in reference include? What kind of assignments and exams might be appropriate?

Steps have already been taken in this direction. At the SAA Education Conference in Savannah, SAA President William L. Joyce asked David Klaassen, as chair of the Committee on Education and Professional Development (CEPD), to develop an Education Plan, following in the footsteps of the GAP report. Since then, a subcommittee of CEPD has been involved in developing a series of objectives for archival education. Following the structure of the revised graduate archival education guidelines, these draft statements elaborate on each element in the guidelines, specifying the kinds of

knowledge in each area that an archivist should have. For example, where the guidelines include a paragraph defining appraisal and acquisition, the objectives devote a page to further elaboration on the skills required for competence in this area—such as being able to define various kinds of value, understanding the distinctions between appraisal and records scheduling, and being able to develop a collection policy encompassing documentation strategies, cooperative collecting goals, and ethical considerations, among other points. Once these competence objectives have been revised by the various interested parties within SAA, they should be useful as working documents for archival educators, students, and the institutions sponsoring education programs who wish to refine, expand, or standardize their courses.[14]

Efforts have also been made to standardize continuing education offerings. SAA has been developing a series of workshops on archival fundamentals. For each workshop, SAA contracts with an archivist to develop a lecture outline, exercises, handouts, audiovisuals, and readings. The archivist responsible for creating the workshop teaches the finished product at least once, in order to evaluate the results. SAA can then hire others to teach the same topic, using the workshop package. This enables SAA, regional associations, and other interested groups to identify topics appropriate for such a broad-based approach and to offer a relatively consistent product at a reasonable cost.

A re-evaluation of the content of archival education programs should also compel archivists to confront substantive gaps in the curriculum. One of the criticisms of both archival education and archival literature has been their orientation toward the description of procedure and practice at the expense of the development of theory.[15] Critics accuse the profession of being "intellectually underdeveloped."[16] Much of this can be attributed to the fact that most archivists work at full-time positions that leave little room for active research and writing. For the majority of archival educators—a group with perhaps more natural inclination towards intellectual research and development—teaching is an add-on to an existing full-time schedule.

In his 1981 article, "The Future Course of Archival Theory in the United States," Frank Burke laments the lack of archival theory and makes an eloquent case for an academy of archivists.[17] Terry Eastwood responds to Burke in a subsequent article about the British Columbia program, pointing out that developing theory "is not a question of creating rigid laws, which in any event do not exist even in the physical sciences, to explain reality, but rather a question of recognizing patterns in the generation and management of archives in any given legal and social reality and at any time."[18]

Many are convinced that the profession already has a core of theory, and that both the interest and the capacity exist within the profession for the development of a more comprehensive body of archival theory. But it is also evident that we had to reach a point in the development of archival practice where we were ready to step back and view the larger picture. We appear now to be at the point where the kind of research and writing produced within the profession over the next few years will be more theoretical in nature, following Eastwood's broader definition, and will deal more with the role of archives in society and why records are created, and not just how to manage them once they exist. In doing so, we will pay closer attention to our European colleagues who have been investigating archival issues far longer than we.

European countries in general have more comprehensive programs for archival education. These programs are generally located in national archives, universities, and special institutes. While the curriculum often covers topics not commonly encountered in American repositories, such as diplomatics and paleography, the comprehensive nature of the programs and the emphasis on areas such as administrative history and the development of recordkeeping practices might set a good example for their American counterparts. In addition, foreign archives tend to offer several distinct archival career paths. In many countries, the archival profession is divided into three levels: paraprofessionals who carry out arrangement and description and other activities under the supervision of professionals; professional archivists who may design, implement, and oversee daily activities; and finally, administrative archivists whose concerns are management, planning, and external issues.[19] Archival training is designed to meet the needs of each level. In 1939, Samuel Flagg Bemis advocated a similar arrangement for American archivists, focusing on two "classes" of professional archivists and suggesting appropriate education for each.[20]

Another issue that will become increasingly important to archives and archivists is the standardization of method and format. And this is an area where progress has been made closer to home. For example, in the last decade, library science has made tremendous strides in terms of automation and other technical advances. These trends are evident in library school course offerings as well as in the methods libraries now use to manage their resources. Archives, especially where they exist within libraries, have inevitably felt the effect of this trend. The development of the USMARC AMC (Archival and Manuscripts Control) format...makes it possible for archivists to integrate descriptions of archival materials into library-based bibliographic databases and networks that already exchange data using the USMARC format. But another requirement for such integration is that archivists learn (or, in some cases, relearn) how to use certain cataloging tools, such as *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules,* 2nd ed. (AACR 2), and Library of Congress Subject Headings. As the trend towards automation of collections and procedures continues—and it certainly will—archivists will benefit from closer bonds with libraries, and by extension, library science education programs. As Terry Eastwood has pointed out, "A library school brings knowledge and facilities of automation and its application to control and retrieval of information which are precious to archivists and in a combination not duplicated or even comparable elsewhere in the university."[21]

Closely linked to the content of archival education is the question of teaching methodology, another area that archival educators will be heeding. The fact that the Archival Educators Roundtable, established only three years ago, currently numbers fifty-three, attests to the fact that many archivists are involved in some aspect of teaching archives. Although no formal study has been done, it is probable that few archival educators came to the profession with teaching credentials. Furthermore, there is no body of literature on approaches to teaching archival theory and practice. This phenomenon is not peculiar to archivists; a large proportion of college and university faculty lack education training.

In certain respects, students in archival programs have benefited from the fact that their faculty tends to comprise practitioners who are well-versed in the reality of archival work and can speak from experience, not merely from text. But

the profession's call for more fully developed archival education programs encourages the pursuit of education for the educators. Past SAA sessions on teaching appraisal, testing and evaluating in archival courses, and teaching ethics, as well as parallel sessions offered by the regionals, are steps in the right direction. The profession should do more in terms of both publications and continuing education. And, archival educators affiliated with colleges and universities could take advantage of any in-service training offered by their institutions.

Archival education does not operate in a vacuum. The changes archival education has undergone reflect the larger trends within the profession. But until now, archival education programs have been started and expanded without the official oversight of the archival community. As a result, we have had little success in regulating their orientation, substance, or quality. The advent of certification and the acceptance of the revised education guidelines (to be followed at some point by revised practicum guidelines) may enhance the profession's influence on its own education programs.

It is too early to predict the success of archival certification. We do not yet know how many will achieve certification by petition, how many will take the test, or at what rate archival employers will use certification as a criterion for hiring. Statistics for all of these categories will undoubtedly be used to judge the effectiveness of the certification program. At the moment, neither the procedure nor the requirements for recertification have been established. How well certification is accepted by archivists and employers will determine its impact as a regulatory mechanism for the profession. Should certification be deemed even a moderate success, it will set minimum standards for professional status. Pre-employment training will come to reflect the core knowledge on which the certification exam is based. Students will look for graduate archival education programs with a proven record of success in preparing students for both examination and employment. Perhaps this requirement will provide an unprecedented level of quality control for graduate archival education programs. At a minimum, it will allow students to distinguish among programs that do follow SAA education guidelines and those that do not, as well as those that are taught by certified archivists and those that are not. One hopes that a clear connection will exist between the SAA Graduate Archival Education Guidelines and the body of knowledge on which certification is based.

Continuing education will feel the effects as well. In light of the changes wrought by certification, continuing education could take two forms. Some continuing education programs will be designed to serve the needs of professional archivists who seek to guarantee their recertification. Other programs will be aimed more at support staff or individuals in other professions who need to expand their skills to cover the range of materials within their jurisdiction. Some programs may, of course, serve both needs. But a clearer distinction will exist between pre-employment educational programs—generally defined as multi-course graduate archival education programs—and post-employment or continuing education offerings.

In either case, students will require more structure from the courses and workshops in which they enroll. The profession will need to establish a formalized system of continuing education units (CEU's) that parallels systems in

related disciplines. SAA already offers CEU's for workshop attendance, a feature of which few may be aware. Such arrangements are already common practice in the field of library science continuing education and would form a necessary part of any recertification process.

So where does that leave us? Archivists acknowledge that their roles have become more complex as the nature of organizations, communication, and recordkeeping have changed. As the profession has grown in numbers, so have the national and regional associations that serve and represent the archival profession. We see the results of this growth in the length, structure, and scope of SAA and regional meetings, the expansion of the SAA office, and the increasing number of education programs claiming to prepare students for archival careers. But we need to ensure that these developments are reflected in the nature and scope of archival education. It is not enough merely to list a multitude of single courses; our concern must extend to the content, quality, and approach to what is taught. Our future status as professionals is closely related to our ability to establish and maintain a comprehensive and progressive program to educate archivists. Thus, the issue of archival education should permeate the profession for many years to come.

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NOTES

1. *American Archivist* 41 (Summer 1988): 380-89.
2. The University of Maryland and the University of British Columbia are two institutions whose programs offer more than the now-standard three-course sequence.
3. *American Archivist* 41 (January 1978): 105-6. An examination of numerous syllabi and reading lists indicates that most archival education courses focus on the topics listed in the guidelines and covered by the SAA manuals.
4. Richard J. Cox, "Professionalism and Archivists in the United States," *American Archivist* 49 (Summer 1986): 236.
5. Mary Jo Pugh, "Priorities for Continuing Education," paper presented at the Society of American Archivists Education Conference, Savannah, Georgia, 13 February 1987, p. 3.
6. Richard J. Cox, "Professionalism," 239.
7. Analysis of job postings in SAA *Newsletter,* 1977-87, provided by Timothy L. Ericson.
8. Several archival educators, in conversation with the author, expressed concern that those entering library school are more technically oriented and lack the background or interest in historical resources and method considered typical of graduate students in history.
9. The Archival Educators Roundtable was established by SAA in 1986 as a mechanism for those involved in archival education to meet and share ideas.
10. This is an area where few statistics exist. The profession needs a comprehensive survey to determine the relationship of education and job placement.
11. Mary Jo Pugh, "Priorities," 1.
12. Ibid., 1-2.
13. Workshops should encompass all the basic elements of archival work, as outlined in both the 1977 and 1988 education guidelines and covered by the SAA Basic Manual Series.

14. SAA Committee on Education and Professional Development, "Archival Education: Objectives," 1988.
15. Richard J. Cox, "Professionalism," 235.
16. Terry Eastwood, "Marshalling Resources for Continuing Education for Archivists," paper presented at SAA Education Conference, Savannah, Georgia, February 1987, p.1.
17. Frank G. Burke, "The Future Course of Archival Theory in the United States," *American Archivist* 44 (Winter 1981): 40-46.
18. Terry Eastwood, "Nurturing Archival Education in the University," *American Archivist* 51 (Summer 1988): 235.
19. Michael Cook, "An International Standard for the Training of Archivists and Records Managers," *UNESCO Journal of Information Science, Librarianship and Archives Administration,* 4 (April-June 1982): 116.
20. Samuel Flagg Bemis, "The Training of Archivists in the United States," *American Archivist* 2 (July 1939): 154-61. "Archivists of the first class" would direct major municipal, state, and national archives, and would be recruited from doctoral programs. "Archivists of the second class," for whom a master's degree would suffice, would be responsible for divisions or for smaller public or private repositories.
21. Terry Eastwood, "Nurturing," 243.

LET ME HEAR AN AMEN: GOSPEL MUSIC AND ORAL HISTORY

ELLEN GARRISON

ABSTRACT: In the last decade a substantial number of articles have appeared urging archivists to become activists in creating records to capture historical and cultural experiences that do not generate traditional written records, and to employ new techniques to insure adequacy of documentation.[1] The difficulties and successes which the Center for Popular Music has experienced in developing its resources for gospel music research demonstrate the utility of one such tool—oral history—in capturing critical information needed to understand such ephemeral phenomena, and support the view that archivists should develop a multi-dimensional approach to collection development.

Founded in 1985, the Center for Popular Music at Middle Tennessee State University (MTSU), located within 100 miles of three of the seven chapters of the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences, is one of twenty-three centers of excellence located on six Tennessee Board of Regents campuses. The mission of these centers is to improve the quality and enhance the reputation of public higher education in the state. Through the Centers of Excellence initiative the legislature provided supplementary funds to programs that had already achieved substantial success in a given field in order to enable them to reach their full potential.

The recognition that MTSU had already won in popular music scholarship easily met the legislature's criteria. In 1982 one of the eight albums documenting Tennessee's musical heritage produced by the university-based Tennessee Folklore Society had been nominated for a Grammy award. The work of English professor Charles Wolfe on such varied topics as the history of the Ryman Auditorium and the development of Appalachian ballads had appeared in both scholarly and popular journals. And *Billboard* magazine had praised the university's recording industry management program, one of the few such four-year programs in the country.

Building on these earlier achievements the Center for Popular Music's five-person staff has developed complementary programs in three areas. First, the center has sponsored publications ranging from a directory of music collections in Tennessee and a microfilm edition of the magazine issued by a major gospel song book publisher from 1915 to 1986, to a scholarly journal, the *JEMF Quarterly* (soon to be renamed *American Vernacular Music*). Public programming—the center's second arm—has included such diverse activities as a symposium on women in American musical life which brought together schol-

ars, performers, and industry executives to share their experiences; costumed performances of Civil War music by center staff at an area national park; and a National Public Radio program on Tennessee black music scholar and collector John Work, III.

Third, the center has established an archive and research library that now holds nearly 7,000 monographs, over 35,000 pieces of sheet music; 274 serial titles; over 36,000 sound recordings; more than 3,000 photographs; 34 linear feet of vertical files; and 30 linear feet of manuscript collections, including holograph music of Johnny Mercer, scrapbooks, photographs and other papers of Ferdinand Grofé, the black music collection of rare record dealer Ray Avery, and center-generated audio and video tapes of the Tennessee Banjo Institute, the Dove (gospel music) Award ceremonies, the Memphis Blues Celebration, local rock bands, Gospel Arts Day at Fisk University, Uncle Dave Macon Days, and other regional music events. Since opening in February 1987 this collection has served more than 2,800 individuals from thirty states and five foreign countries.

Establishing a collecting focus for its research holdings quickly became a priority. Clearly the center could not realistically hope to acquire, catalog, and service all the materials in the universe of popular music. As a first step the staff concentrated on assembling for campus use a core collection with a representative sample of all musical genres (folk, jazz, rock, country, religious, ethnic, show) in a variety of formats (sheet music, discs, video and audio tapes) and spanning two centuries of American musical life. Then the center concentrated its research resources on topics and genres not collected by other repositories.

A survey of bibliographies like D.W. Krummel's *Resources of American Music History* plus the center director's own knowledge from his years of scholarly and professional experience in the field quickly pinpointed repositories that concentrated on several genres of American music: country music (Country Music Foundation), jazz (Rutgers and Tulane), blues (University of Mississippi and the Center for Southern Folklore), and show music (the New York Public Library and UCLA). At the same time the survey revealed significant gaps in documenting rock and roll and vernacular religious music, from 17th century New England hymns to contemporary "Jesus metal."

The Center for Popular Music therefore decided to make such documentation a priority in its collecting efforts. In selecting vernacular religious music, especially gospel, as one collecting focus the center was inevitably committing itself to acquiring oral history materials for reasons that can best be explained by a quick side trip through the history of southern gospel music.

The origins of popular religious music lie in the participatory singing tradition of American churches, especially those in denominations that emphasize individual conversion experience, a personal relationship with the deity, Bible-based theology and worship, and lay rather than clerical leadership. Congregational hymn-singing has always been an integral part of worship services in most Baptist, Methodist, Presbyterian, and Campbellite churches, and numerous sacred and secular publishers have supplied the needs of these congregations since the 1700s.

Later singing schools developed as entities separate from worship services. Such schools played an important role in the religious and social life of rural

and frontier communities without full-time clergy. Talented amateur musicians also found in singing schools and, later, community singing conventions an opportunity to display their skills at sight reading and choral direction as well as singing. These all-day events often saw friendly rivalries between local virtuosos, and at many singing conventions local vocal groups began providing special music during intermissions.

In the early twentieth century a new type of publication developed to meet the needs of these singing conventions. To sustain interest in the gatherings, companies like J.D. Vaughan and Stamps-Baxter each year produced numerous convention song books which included hundreds of new compositions. Some were written by the staff of Vaughan, Stamps-Baxter, and their many smaller counterparts, but local musicians penned hundreds of others. In return for their songs, contributors received multiple free or discount copies of the song books which they themselves sold at local singings. Rival publishers also began sponsoring tours and convention performances by popular local groups as a way of promoting the company's song books. Thus the early era of commercial gospel music (ca. 1910-1945) was dominated by music publishers.

Shortly after World War II song book publishers' influence in commercial gospel music began to wane as technology changed music production and distribution methods, and increased urbanization permeated religious as well as secular music. Gospel groups no longer depended on publishers for support. Instead they reached audiences through and generated substantial revenues from radio broadcasting, albums produced by the growing number of small independent record companies, sale of their own folios and song books, and appearances at gospel concerts promoted by entrepreneurs like Wally Fowler. As the gospel music business thus became professional as well as commercial, developments in secular popular music also affected the music itself.

The growing power of the gospel performers and the impact of popular musical and performance styles, as well as the changing social and moral values that these trends reflected, created tensions and disputes within the gospel music community. The inclusion of new up-tempo songs with sentimental, optimistic lyrics frequently led to declining sales of a publisher's song books in conservative areas. Popular gospel quartets that appeared at singing conventions often disappointed fans, who found that the embarrassed performers could neither follow traditional shape-note music nor lead familiar hymns.

This same type of schism recurred in the 1960s as performers of rock-influenced contemporary Christian music challenged the supremacy of what by then had become traditional gospel quartets. The largest selling performer of quartet-style gospel music, for example, devoted an entire volume as well as numerous interviews and sermons to condemning "Satan-inspired" Jesus-metal groups like Stryper, and his son served as narrator for the anti-rock segments of a video that became popular with many ministers as the catalyst for youth discussion groups on contemporary Christian music.[2]

Acquiring the hymnals, sound recordings, song books, serials, videos, and other products of this evolution in vernacular religious music proved relatively easy for the center, especially since many are available in microform. However, documenting the process by which these changes occurred proved more difficult. Gospel music has been too image-conscious for much of the "story behind the story" to appear in print. Understanding the rivalries among song book pub-

lishers, the transition from community to commercial music, or the recent controversy over "pop gospel" requires information and insights locked in the memories of the participants. Only through the reminiscences of Don Butler (now executive director of the Gospel Music Association) for example, can one learn of his dismay on discovering that sales representatives of one convention song book publisher once surreptitiously destroyed volumes produced by another in order to prevent their use at the Tennessee state singing convention.[3]

Fortunately many men and women with similar recollections are still alive and able to tell their stories, making oral history an obvious and important collection development tool for the center. It was equally fortunate that the center could enlist the help of two Middle Tennessee State faculty members already well-respected and knowledgeable in the world of gospel music: Charles Wolfe, professor of English and author of the *Encyclopedia of Southern Culture* article on gospel music, and Don Cusic, faculty member in the university's recording industry management program and former gospel music editor of *Record World.*

In his seminal article on the role of oral history in documenting the twentieth-century James E. Fogerty argued that the researcher/scholar is an "unfortunate " choice for creating oral history interviews and maintained that "worthwhile oral history" requires a "well-structured oral history project" conducted by trained interviewers.[4] Although the documentary resources created by these two men does not meet these criteria, an analysis of their work will illustrate its unique contribution to the center and the value of oral history to the center's goal of documenting the evolution of vernacular religious music in spite of the problems of working with the researcher/interviewer which Fogerty accurately describes.

Neither Wolfe nor Cusic considers himself an oral historian[5] and both men seem to be well aware that there are differences between their own interest in and approach to oral documentation and a formal oral history program as described by Fogerty.[6] Neither attempts to select interview subjects in order to provide systematic documentation of a subject, and to some extent neither plans an interview to cover specific topics.

Don Cusic focuses on interviewees and subjects in demand by the popular music publications for which he writes; interviews are not, for him, an end in themselves or a way to create an historical record but source material for his writing.[7] He has found his journalism credentials are an asset in obtaining interviews since his articles provide a ready answer when an interviewee asks "What's in this for me?"

Academically trained in English at the University of Kansas, Charles Wolfe describes himself as "a cultural historian" and regards oral history as one among several tools he uses to obtain material for his own scholarly publications. When possible he looks to oral interviews to fill the "information gaps" in his research and to provide the "key anecdote" to illuminate and enliven the articles that he produces.

Like Cusic, Wolfe has relied on his own curiosity and on discovering what he calls "targets of opportunity" in selecting interview subjects, and he acknowledges differences in intent and methodology between oral history and his own work. The oral historian, in his view, "has more of a game plan," "structures an interview," and "seeks to have people cross-check themselves."

Because both men conduct interviews to meet their own short-term research needs rather than to fill gaps in the documentary record neither has ever obtained release forms from interviewees. When questioned about the ethical issues involved in depositing these interviews in the center and thus making them available to the public Don Cusic responded that "most interviewees would be honored" since they viewed the interview as "a kind of immortality." Charles Wolfe, after remarking that he had never considered the question before, finally concluded that since all of his interviews had been viewed by his subjects as "public statements"—in fact some asked him to turn off the tape when discussing sensitive subjects—and he had always identified himself to interviewees as an MTSU professor, archival deposit would not pose ethical problems.

The lack of release forms is troublesome but not catastrophic for the center. Much written documentation arrives in all repositories without release forms from all those involved in its creation; in many cases the creators of the documents, like Wolfe and Cusic's interview subjects, are unaware that the material is in the center. The center therefore handles these interviews like such written documentation; researchers are allowed access to and may make copies of such material as long as their objective is research. But the center's researcher registration form makes clear the expectation that any other use of the interviews, including publication, must be approved by the document's creator. Nor would the center itself use the interviews in public programs or publications without attempting to get clearance from the interviewee.[8]

Thus in many ways the Wolfe and Cusic interviews fall short of an oral history program which meets the standards set by Fogerty. But Charles Wolfe and Don Cusic have preserved invaluable documentation of American vernacular religious music that would otherwise have been lost. Both have brought to their interviews an intimate knowledge of the people and problems at the heart of gospel music that could not have been obtained solely by the extensive pre-interview research that Fogerty recommends[9], and both have overcome the primary problem of gospel music oral history.

Decades of research and interviews have taught Charles Wolfe that "there is no way you can keep yourself distant from your interviewees." It can be, in his words, "messy." Gospel musicians, today as in the 1700s, do not regard themselves as businessmen or performers or entertainers but as ministers called to spread the gospel through music. The history of gospel music, and even the music itself, is secondary to this ministry, and an interviewer must be prepared not only to listen but to respond to extended religious and theological discussions. Wolfe, a Southern Baptist and the grandson of gospel performers, has no difficulty working in this environment. Over the years he has learned the "rhythm" of a gospel interview:

> You talk a while, sing a little, talk some more.
> About ten the cobbler and coffee come out.
> And then talking seriously (i.e. theology) begins.
> Usually I can leave by 11:00.

Both men have also overcome the second obstacle to collecting the oral history of gospel music: the suspicion and hostility (verging, Wolfe says, "on mild paranoia") of men and women who are unaccustomed to being interviewed;

who too often have been exploited or patronized by outsiders purporting to seek information; and who, because of their Bible-based religious orientation, are what Cusic describes as "remarkably ahistorical."

Wolfe has found that the key to interviewing in this milieu is "to give them the dignity of taking what they have to say seriously." An intern who accompanied Wolfe on one interview but who ignored Wolfe's advice fared less well. The intern's announcement, shortly after finishing his cobbler, that he found his host's religious views incomprehensible was, Wolfe recalls "like waving a red flag at a bull." The interviewee immediately launched into an effort not only to enlighten but also to convert the intern, which ended at 3:00 a.m. with all parties exhausted and the purpose of the interview completely forgotten.[10]

Because they combine the tact and respect that this intern so obviously lacked with vast knowledge of secondary sources and a rapport with the gospel music community, Charles Wolfe and Don Cusic have helped the Center for Popular Music move toward its goal of documenting the development of this significant genre of American vernacular music.[11] And in spite of occasional administrative difficulties, this partnership between an archive and these researcher/interviewers has demonstrated the validity of Fogerty's argument[12] that oral history can help create "a total fabric that brings the records to life and reveals...a collection of real people" whose "aspirations, motives, ideals and beliefs" contributed to the development of this music's structure and identity.

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NOTES

1. See for example F. Gerald Ham, "The Archival Edge," *American Archivist* 38 (January 1975): 5-13; Linda Henry, "Collecting Policies of Special Subject Repositories," *American Archivist* 43 (Winter 1980): 57-63; F. Gerald Ham, "Archival Strategies for the Post-Custodial Era," *American Archivist* 44 (Summer 1981): 207-216; special issue of *American Archivist* 50 (Fall 1987), devoted to documentation strategy in New England; Helen Samuels, "Who Controls the Past?", *American Archivist* 49 (Spring 1986): 109-124; and Larry Hackman and Joan Warnow-Blewett, "The Documentation Strategy Process: A Model and A Case Study," *American Archivist* 50 (Winter 1987): 12-28.
2. Jimmy Swaggart, *Religious Rock 'n' Roll: A Wolf in Sheep's Clothing* (Baton Rouge, La.: Jimmy Swaggart Ministries, 1987).
3. Interview with Don Butler, Murfreesboro, Tennessee, 8 October 1987. RIM 427 Records, Center for Popular Music, Middle Tennessee State University.
4. James E. Fogerty, "Filling the Gap: Oral History in Archives," *American Archivist* 46 (1983): 156.
5. All references hereafter to and about Drs. Wolfe and Cusic are based on interviews with Dr. Don Cusic, 30 September 1987, and Dr. Charles Wolfe, 1 October 1987.

6. Don Cusic in fact started an interview conducted for this article by saying "Now remember, I don't do oral history; I'm a journalist who keeps his tapes."
7. In spite of his disclaimers Cusic has preserved and deposited in the center several hundred interviews drawn from more than a decade of work.
8. This is an admittedly less than ideal solution but seems to be the best that can be done with existing interviews, some conducted more than a decade ago. The center has now developed its own release form which both men will use in the future.
9. Fogerty, "Filling the Gap," 154.
10. It should be noted that the writings of oral historians themselves, including the article by Fogerty cited above, also stress the need for interviewers to treat subjects with both tact and respect.
11. Both Wolfe and Cusic have also helped the center obtain documentary materials other than their own interviews. Don Cusic, for example, arranged for deposit in the center of video tapes of the 1987 and 1988 Dove Award shows, and Charles Wolfe frequently collaborates with the center in locating and purchasing gospel sound recordings and rare convention song books.
12. Fogerty, "Filling the Gap," p. 153.

USING COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES AS INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS: A CASE STUDY AND AN EXHORTATION

MARK A. GREENE

ABSTRACT: Not much has been written recently about encouraging the use of primary source materials by undergraduate and other students. Most of the attention paid to this form of outreach has, in any event, been focused on manuscripts repositories. College and university *archives* have special difficulties convincing students and faculty that their primary sources are relevant to the curriculum. It is an effort that can result in tangible benefits for the archives, however, and should receive high priority.

Most of what has been written in archival literature and said at professional conferences regarding the use of primary sources in undergraduate teaching has been focused on manuscripts repositories.[1] As difficult as it is to overcome the *general* reluctance of teachers and students to work primary sources into a course curriculum, it is probably even more difficult when the primary sources in question are the college's own archival records.[2] No one seems to have done a survey to determine the reasons, but some good guesses would be:

1) A college archives documents the history of the institution. There remains, it appears, a strong prejudice in the minds of most teachers and students against institutional history as being so stiflingly narrow, dry, and bureaucratic that no one but a small and dreary band of economic historians or historians of higher education could possibly be interested in it.
2) Those who view institutional history as boring and pedantic probably characterize institutional archivists as mousy antiquarians who might know the entire genealogy of the school's first president but who would not have the interest, skill, or background necessary to relate their holdings to a liberal arts curriculum.
3) College archivists who have administrative rather than faculty appointments may be seen as even further beyond the academic pale. Will they not always give priority to answering the petty questions of an alumnus or satisfying the bureaucratic demands of the dean rather than to serving the needs of the curriculum?

One way or another, if college and university archives are going to become

partners in the curriculum, these stereotypes must be overcome. Easy to say, hard to do.

The difficulty has to do not only with the image others have of college and university archivists, but also with the image some of the archivists have of themselves. Archives are administrative units, meant to serve their institutions first and scholars second.[3] Yet schools are unique institutions, in that their core function is not "production," "work," or fundraising but teaching (occasional mixed signals from administrators notwithstanding). The bottom line at a college is not the endowment, the legislative appropriation, or the alumni fund but the quality of instruction.[4] Advancing the use of archival records in the curriculum should be considered an important part of, rather than an alternative to, the "administrative" duties of the archivist.

Much depends, of course, on the particular situation and mission of any given archives. When Carleton College hired its first professional archivist in 1985, most faculty and students did not know an archives existed at the college, and those who did seemed to hold the aforementioned stereotypical views of it. However, the new archivist had several things going in his favor. One was that his job description—the closest thing to a mission statement that the archives has to date—attaches high priority to stimulating "the use of archival materials as a resource and laboratory relevant to the educational program of the College." Thus, the archives started with the administration behind it in attempting to broaden curricular use of its holdings. It also started with a small student body and faculty (1800 and 170 respectively), on a campus with only one library (containing the archives), and in a town where the two college archives (Carleton and St. Olaf) are the only repositories of unpublished primary source material.

On the other hand, the archives is commensurately small: the archivist is the only professional, with support consisting of only thirty hours per week of undergraduate work-study help. The archivist also faced a pretty stable faculty, most of whose course curricula had been set for years; among the 95% of the faculty with PhDs were some—especially in the history department—who looked askance at the archivist's paltry master's degree in history. Moreover, the archivist in this case did not feel comfortable cultivating the types of personal contacts with faculty—or even students—that might come from "schmoozing" at cocktail parties or over dinner. A different type of approach was necessary.

Significant in the planning process for building curriculum use of the Carleton Archives was Timothy Ericson's booklet, *Academic Outreach: The Use of Archival Materials on the College Campus,* and the solicited advice of other archivists at small colleges.[5] These sources supplied several course assignments, covering a wide range of disciplines. Not a single one of these assignments has yet been of *practical* use at Carleton, in the sense of having been adopted or adapted by a faculty member, but gathering this information was vitally important in stimulating the archivist's own ideas and in giving him needed moral support.

The first direct and formal approach toward soliciting faculty interest came a few months after the archivist arrived on campus. Each fall, all twenty or thirty new faculty visit the library for a brief orientation session. The archivist had secured a presence in this session for the archives, and gave a ten-minute spiel

outlining what he naively imagined to be the range of possible topics and assignment types the archives could support. New faculty, he reasoned, might not have their syllabi tightly nailed down and might even be desperate for new ideas. New teachers proved not to be *desperate,* but by and large they have been the most receptive to suggestions for involving the archives in their curriculum. In the first two years of these orientation talks the archives was approached by four professors about developing course assignments for classes in botany, Afro-American history, American studies, and education. These courses are illustrative of the range of connections possible between the archives and the curriculum.

The education course, for example, is entitled "Youth, Culture, and Schooling." In it, the students work in three-person groups to do projects on some aspect of adolescence. For three years now, the archivist has been invited into class to outline sources available in the archives. Although the students have other options for approaching their research, each year two or three of the groups do draw heavily on archival material. Each group requires an initial interview with the archivist to refine its topic—an interview that usually results in the students being urged to read the relevant background material in the published histories of the college. When they return, their requests are usually for such things as student handbooks, underground newspapers, subject files from the student senate and the dean of students office, course catalogs, and yearbooks.

The first four-hour lab for a course called "Biology of the Vascular Plants" is an introduction to the history and evolution of botany, using material from the library's rare books collection and the college archives. The material is preselected by the professor in consultation with the archivist, so this assignment requires little additional work beyond explaining to the students how to handle fragile material. The archives material used for this assignment includes primarily 19th century course catalogs and early 20th century student papers.

For a course in American studies on "Issues in Higher Education"—the first two weeks of which examined the evolution of higher education in the U.S.—the archivist was asked to give a lecture on Carleton's origins and growth as compared to that of the class's main case study of Harvard. This course, unfortunately, was a one-time-only affair (the faculty member, who was also associate dean of students, left for another job the next year), but it illustrates that the archives can support the curriculum in ways other than as a resource for term paper or assignment research.

For a course on "20th Century Afro-American Protest Thought," the archivist was invited to give a bibliographic instruction talk discussing the nature of a primary source and illustrating the types of relevant primary sources available in archives. This did not produce any student research; additionally, the course was taught by a visiting professor and not repeated. An early lesson one learns when attempting to increase undergraduate use of the archives: failures happen.

In addition to the library orientation presentation, every year the archivist reads Carleton's course catalog and sends formal letters to professors teaching courses that might take advantage of the archives' holdings; he also occasionally informs professors by letter concerning specific accessions. Until recently, this strategy had not repaid the effort. At one point the archivist was encouraged to address the entire English department faculty on how the archives might be

used for rhetoric courses (Carleton's equivalent to freshman English). He was granted a cordial reception but the only interest he was able to elicit was in the archives' holdings of the department's recently defunct literary magazine. **Failures happen.** Recently, however, a professor teaching a course in visual anthropology received a memo outlining our holdings of photographs and illustrated publications and encouraged a student to use these materials for a term paper.

Even more important than these direct methods had been indirect contact with faculty and students through the archives' outreach program. Through brochures, exhibits, and publications, the archives has sought to illustrate that its holdings can be used for *interesting research*—research that transcends the narrow bounds of "institutional history." These efforts also attempt to show that the archivist is liberally educated enough to develop and support curricular use of the archives, and that the *academic* use of archives material is as important a part of the archives' mission as is administrative support. Finally, the exhibits and publications are part of a general attempt to make the archives more visible, accessible, and inviting.

To this end, the archivist undertook a weekly column in the campus newspaper during 1986 and 1987, developed three exhibits per year (one for each academic term) for display units near the archives in the library building, won administrative financial support for writing and publishing an illustrated history of the astronomy program at Carleton, and composed several lengthy features for the alumni magazine.[6] Most of the magazine articles drew heavily on exhibit text, while the exhibits often drew on research for the column, so several birds were killed (or at least wounded) with the same stone.

The exhibits are mounted on a shoestring budget in second hand display cases by someone (the archivist) with no direct exhibit training. But students taking study breaks in the library read them. Faculty taking breaks from meetings in nearby seminar rooms read them. Faculty and students read the newspaper column and the alumni magazine as well. Most student newspapers—at least at small colleges—*do* seem to be desperate for material, and the archives column quickly became one of the most popular features. The exhibits and the writings are usually aimed at relating Carleton history to some broad theme in U.S. history. Recent efforts have focused, for example, on the gradual secularization of a college founded by the Congregational Church, Carleton's long struggle to achieve and define true racial and cultural diversity on campus, the response of students and administration to the nation's wars, and the changing roles and expectations of women at the school.

All of this research and writing has been a lot of work. Where has it gotten the archives? The question is answered in part by raw statistics: reference/research use of the archives has increased 200% since 1985. Successes have ranged from minor to major. Biology professors have seen in exhibits photographs that they thought were excellent illustrations of changing land-use patterns on and around the campus and have requested copies for use in class. The history of the astronomy program got an economics professor interested in the history of his department, which brought him down to the archives and led to his directing one student to the archivist for term paper sources. Students have seen in exhibits and newspaper columns various items or incidents about which they wanted to give oral reports for their Spanish and

German courses. Students have also discovered topics for term papers in American studies, sociology, and religion courses.

The first religion paper, indeed, was an example of a best case scenario. The brief biography of Carleton's first dean of women in an exhibit on women at Carleton prompted a junior in a course on women in American religion to investigate the dean's views on women's role in the Congregational Church. The student wrote an "A" paper and reported favorably to her professor about the assistance she had received in the archives. The professor came to talk to the archivist about giving a bibliographic instruction presentation to the entire course during the next year. Before the term was out, the professor also invited the archivist to her survey course in U.S. religious history to give a lecture on how the founders' ideals for Carleton reflected mid-19th century Yankee protestant ideology (a lecture assisted by handouts of photocopied archival material). Failures do happen, but success often breeds success.

Along with the explicit link between outreach and undergraduate use of the archives there has been an implicit connection. The more visible and accessible the archives, the more likely are students to discover on their own unexpected or extracurricular uses for the archives. The archivist never would have known about an assignment in another religion course to do an essay on ritual and symbolism had not a student decided on his own that commencement would be a good example and that a tape of the previous year's graduation exercises would furnish useful evidence. Despite the popularity of the archives with the biology department, it took a student from a geology class asking for historical photos of a certain part of campus to make clear that other natural sciences might be interested in the archives' holdings, too. There has been a gratifying increase in the use of the archives by undergraduates doing research for extracurricular projects. Student senators interested in cleaning up the campus lakes and in restructuring the student activity fee have come to the archives for facts and background, and members of student organizations have begun coming to the archives for information and material to mount anniversary and informational exhibits.

The Carleton archives' three years of experience in the realm of using archives to support undergraduate education suggest one general strategy for success: go beyond the traditional. Do not rely on the traditional direct approach with faculty, for example, individual letters and phone calls or even presentations to departments. Instead, reach out indirectly to students and teachers in as many ways as possible. Do not rely on traditional disciplines in planning outreach. History and political science have been failures in encouraging student use of the archives at Carleton. Biology and religion have been the biggest successes, followed by American studies, and the social sciences. (Across the river at St. Olaf, the archivist has had her best success with the religion, music, and women's studies departments.) If students of geology and Spanish can find relevant material in the archives, it is easy to believe that almost anyone can.[7]

Do not rely on traditional uses. The bulk of undergraduate use of the Carleton archives is not in the form of extensive research for term papers and class assignments. From photographs being used as teaching aids to yearbooks being examined for examples of the psychology of prejudice, brief "raids" into archival sources constitute legitimate use. If an archives is to have value to the undergraduate curriculum it cannot be an ivory tower within the ivory tower,

looking down upon anything but research for senior theses. Use of any kind begets further use, it would seem, and use of collections is, of course, one of the primary reasons for an archives' existence. The use is legitimate, moreover, even though the bulk of it (at Carleton, at least) is not directly related to traditional provenance-based record groups or "unpublished sources" in the narrowest sense (that is, manuscript or even first generation typescript). Much of what gets used in the Carleton archives takes the form of mimeographed and stenciled reports, minutes, and circulars, or typeset items such as freshman handbooks, college fundraising brochures, and the student yearbook.[8] Record groups get raided for folders bearing on a particular subject. But although "published," subject oriented, and quickly raided, the material is still primary, and it presents a different set of challenges to undergraduates previously acquainted solely with hardbound books and *Newsweek* magazine as sources.

Unlike graduate students, who have years to spend on a project, undergraduates usually have a week or two at most; it is up to the archivist to be a teacher to some extent, providing the necessary background or explaining the importance of a folder's provenance. The archivist as teacher may be, for some, the most nontraditional concept of all. But it is an important one. Archivists can be teachers not only by properly orienting undergraduates to the material they use in the archives, but by stepping into the classroom. Bringing the archives into the classroom is as legitimate an avenue of educational support as bringing students into the archives. This can encompass more than simply traditional courses on the history of the institution or even on the methodology of primary source research. Rather, archivists can enter the classroom to give bibliographic instruction and serve as guest lecturers in a wide variety of disciplines. It is the archivist's responsibility to make the sources in his or her archives relevant to the liberal arts curriculum; if the archivist cannot do it, then nobody can, or at least nobody *will*.

At Carleton, part of the battle had been won from the start—the administration expected the archives to have an academic as well as an adminsitrative mission. Success as an adjunct to the curriculum (as well as success in serving administrative reference needs) has led to tangible rewards from the school's resource allocators.[9] All colleges and universities exist primarily to educate, and successful performance as an academic support unit ought to carry weight with even the most hidebound school administration, but until we as archivists firmly believe that undergraduate education is an important part of our mission, no one else is likely to believe it. Using college and university archives as instructional materials should be viewed as an opportunity of great potential. It is up to us to exploit that potential, not to the exclusion of our administrative role, but as an integral part of it.

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NOTES

1. See, for example, Howard B. Gotlieb, "The Undergraduate and Historical Manuscripts," *American Archivist* 23 (1960): 27-32; Ted L. Underwood, "Undergraduates as Historians," *History Teacher* 7 (1973): 18-23; Martha C. Slotten, "The Fruits of Two Hundred Years of Collecting Manuscripts: Their Use in the Teaching of Undergraduates at Dickinson College," *Manuscripts* (Summer 1973): 155-61.
2. A few articles have looked at the use of college and university archives proper: Ernst Posner, "The College and University Archives in the United States," first published in 1952, reprinted in *College and University Archives: Selected Readings* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists 1979), 80-88; Clifford Shipton, "The Reference Use of Archives," in *University Archives,* papers from the Allerton Park Institute No. 11, ed. Rolland Stevens (Champaign, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1965); Maynard Brichford, "The Illiarch," first published in 1970, reprinted in *College and University Archives: Selected Readings,* 27-30; Nicholas C. Burckel, "The Expanding Role of a College and University Archives," *Midwestern Archivist* 1 (1976): 3-15. Though not interested in students' use of archives, Edith James Blendon's "University Archives: A Reason for Existence," *American Archivist* 38 (1975): 175-80, and David Potts' "College and University Archives as Windows on American Society," *American Archivist* 40 (1977): 43-49, are good summaries of some of the mainstream research that can be done in college records. Few articles on research use of college and university archives by students *or* scholars—or even on the use of other primary source materials by undergraduates—have appeared in the last decade. See Ellen Gartrell, comp., "Archives and Undergraduates: Outreach on the College Campus, a Selected Bibliography" (unpublished, 1986).
3. See, for instance: Thornton W. Mitchell, ed., *Norton On Archives: The Writings of Margaret Cross Norton on Archival and Records Management* (Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1975), 4-5; S. Muller, J.A. Feith and R. Fruin, *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives,* trans. Arthur H. Leavitt (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1968), 65.
4. I use the word "college" advisedly, since this statement may be less clearly true of modern research universities.
5. Timothy L. Ericson, ed., *Academic Outreach: The Use of Archival Materials on the College Campus* (River Falls, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, River Falls, 1984). Among the archives and archivists kind enough to supply me with material were (in no particular order): Anne Pearson, Oberlin; Ken Cramer, Dartmouth; Martha Slotten, Dickinson; Anne Kintner, Grinnell; Teresa Taylor, Bryn Mawr; Daria D'Arienzo, Amherst; Florence Hoffman, Denison; Joan Olson, St. Olaf.
6. The column, which ran in *The Carletonian,* was entitled "Raiders of the Lost Archives" (with apologies to Marion Matters, et al). The booklet, published in 1988 by the college is a *A Science Not Earthbound: A Brief History of Astronomy at Carleton College.* Among the articles published in *The Carleton Voice* are "The Way We Were: A Look at Student Self-Government at Carleton" (Winter/Spring 1989): 55-56; "Carleton and Women" (Spring 1988): 6-15; and "Carleton and the Church(es)" (Winter 1988): 60-61.
7. However, ideas about how to attract math and computer science students would no doubt be eagerly received by many college and university archivists. Tim Ericson, in a letter to the author (11 November 1988), suggests appeals to faculty in business administration, computer science, and mathematics on the basis of the abundant statistical data held in most college and university archives. Ericson also points out that, in larger schools the "History of..." courses taught by departments of physical education, journalism, social welfare, education, agriculture, etc., may be more receptive to archives sources than history courses taught by the history department. Carleton does not have departments or programs in many of these fields.
8. These user preferences may also have implications for collection policies, but I rather suspect not. Reports and circulars are already extant in most record groups, and official college publications have long been identified as archival records. I have, indeed, argued elsewhere ("University History: How Important Is It, and How Can It Best Be Documented?" Midwest Archives Conference, Spring 1987) that collecting policies that serve the administrative goals of the college will inevitably produce a wealth of material on "extra-institutional" topics. The fact that undergraduates will often have little interest in provenance, record groups, or institutional history narrowly defined may suggest that traditional descriptive methods are insufficient

for college and university archives. The question of arrangement and description is, however, best left for another paper.

9. Between 1985 and 1989 the Carleton archives' budget has increased 185%, not including the addition (separately budgeted) of two microcomputers and other electronic hardware. The staff has not yet been enlarged, but the school has had a moratorium on such increases since 1980.

BEYOND USMARC AMC: THE CONTEXT OF A DATA EXCHANGE FORMAT

JILL TATEM

ABSTRACT: Archivists' discussions about use of the USMARC AMC format so far have failed adequately to address goals and system design and implementation issues. The article focuses on one commonly articulated goal, improved end-user access to archival collections. It examines the issues of data quantity, data quality, and user-system interfaces and concludes that unresolved problems in all three areas present significant obstacles to end-user access to archival collections via current bibliographic descriptive networks.

The archival literature in recent years has been full of praise and promise for the USMARC AMC (Archival and Manuscripts Control) format. Archivists have been told that its use is inevitable[1] and that it is the best news for archivists since acid-free folders.[2] Many of these publications have done an excellent job of explaining what USMARC AMC is and how and why it came about. What has been missing is discussion of what USMARC AMC use can do (and, equally important, cannot do), what archivists want it to do, and how to ensure that the ways archivists use the format further professional goals.

Almost without exception, the reason for using the USMARC AMC format given in the archival literature to date has been the opportunity to become part of the larger information world.[3] Unfortunately, all too often the advantages of participation in this vast information community are assumed—as if they were so obvious as not to need enumeration. Conversely, the disadvantages are brushed aside as being too trivial for discussion among right-thinking and progressive archivists.

If archivists' discussion of goals has been superficial, exploration of system design and implementation issues has been virtually nonexistent. In the absence of discussion of other elements of information systems in which the format is used, the implication is that these undefined advantages will be ours as a necessary consequence of USMARC AMC use. If archivists are to exploit USMARC AMC fully and creatively they must begin a more critical and rigorous examination of their goals, and issues of system design and implementation.

The work of SAA's National Information Systems Task Force (NISTF) which led to the development of the USMARC AMC format was a remarkable achievement. With respect to professional goals one of NISTF's realizations was that "...a national information system probably would be justified on the

basis of its usefulness to archival organizations rather than to end users..."[4] The discussion in the archival literature since this statement appeared, however, has drifted away from organizational utility as justification for use of the format. USMARC proponents today consistently justify the format by referring to improved access to archival materials for end-users.[5] Since this has become the single most widely articulated goal, it is reasonable to ask if using USMARC AMC makes it easier for end-users to find archival collections when they ask, "Where can I find information about XYZ?"

Asking this question makes obvious the significance of archivists' failure to examine system components other than the format. There has been considerable confusion about the distinctions between the USMARC AMC format, the data recorded using the format, and manipulation of the data. However, it is the entire system (format, vocabulary, descriptive conventions, policies on descriptive levels, depth of subject analysis, the user interface, and other elements) that governs what end-users discover about our collections. Thus, benefits to be derived from use of the USMARC AMC format can not usefully be discussed without including the other components of information systems of which USMARC AMC is one part. The question becomes whether use of the USMARC AMC format as currently implemented within bibliographic networks and in-house systems makes it easier for end-users to find archival collections relevant to their information needs.

Three broad issues seem pertinent to that question: 1) Access: how much information about archival records is available in online catalogs and how readily available is it; 2) Data Quality: is it clear what entities are being described and are the analysis and vocabulary used to construct those descriptions understandable; 3) User Interface: how difficult is it for users to extract meaningful information from the system. Each of these issues, in turn, presents even more questions.

Access

In determining how much information exists, the most obvious measure is the number of series/collections that have been cataloged. A variety of published reports give both totals and an idea of trends. One early report claimed 47 repositories had entered 70,000 bibliographic records into the RLIN database as of 1 August 1986.[6] Another noted 45 repositories and 86,000 AMC records in RLIN in May 1987.[7] As of December 1988 the RLIN database included 160,000 AMC records.[8] OCLC as of August 1986 was cited as having 50,000 AMC records[9] and in July 1988, 80,000.[10] The Western Library Network, which implemented the AMC format less than a year ago, has around 500 records.[11] The rough total is nearly a quarter of a million records.

These figures only detail records in national databases. Micro-computer systems using software such as Cactus's Minaret and Michigan State's MicroMARC:amc and regional networks may boost the totals. In that regard, another interesting figure comes from the SAA automation survey of November 1987 that 70 repositories were currently using the USMARC AMC format and another 43 planned to do so within one year.[12] Assuming they all have done so, a questionable assumption, that represents 113 repositories out of 261 survey respondents.

For comparison, as of the 1985 issue, *The National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections* (NUCMC) had described 56,435 collections in 1,321 repositories.[13] These figures are, at best, suggestive, but what they seem to indicate is that more records in fewer repositories are in online catalogs than in the manual equivalent of a national database. However, because NUCMC is now entering records into the RLIN database, this may be a distinction without a difference. What is encouraging is the speed with which this database is being constructed. Considering that the AMC format was not published until 1984 and that additional time was necessary to prepare for its use and actually create bibliographic records, this growth is a remarkable achievement.

A corollary question needs to be asked. At what level are those bibliographic records available—national, state, regional, institutional, repository? In practice, if end-users can only access the records cataloged in their home institutions it does them little good that many thousands more are out there somewhere. If access is possible, what practical obstacles stand between end-users and the records? Are the records, for example, available in an online public access catalog (OPAC) searchable at little or no cost? Can users search the catalog from their homes or offices or do they have to go to the repository? Or do they read a print out or catalog cards?

Even if end-users are affiliated with an institution that is a member of one of the national networks can they search that database? Many public catalogs are part of turnkey systems that allow access only to the bibliographic records of a single institution. If end-users want to search the union catalog of a bibliographic utility they must rely on a librarian intermediary. In any case, researchers almost always need some institutional affiliation because, as individuals, there is nothing available to them similar to BRS's AfterDark or Dialog's Knowledge Index.[14]

Because access is by institution, the membership figures of the national utilities might be instructive. As of October 1988, OCLC membership was 9,400, RLIN reported 99 members, the Western Library Network included 300 members[15].

Data Quality

Once end-users get access to archival bibliographic records, do the conventions and standards archivists use produce descriptions that make sense to them? Since descriptive cataloging data largely rest on application of the *Anglo-American Cataloguing Rules (AACR 2),* the effectiveness of those rules in producing descriptions intelligible to end-users is critical. Unfortunately, there is a substantial body of library literature devoted to attacking *AACR 2*'s effectiveness. As archivists become more experienced with *AACR 2* they will, undoubtedly, join whole-heartedly in pointing out its flaws. For example, one popular complaint revolves around rules 24.12 through 24.14 and what they do to institutional names. University archivists have discovered that the bizarre consequence of consistent adherence to the rules is that, within one university, some schools are entered directly under their own names while other schools are entered as subunits of the university. Those trained in cataloging can understand and sympathize with the reasons for these rules and the principles behind them. But most researchers have never even attended SAA's workshop on

library descriptive standards let alone semester-long graduate classes in cataloging. To them the results of following these rules must appear the cheapest and most self-indulgent form of self-aggrandizement.

Equally important are local descriptive policies. Are archivists describing material at a consistent level, i.e. record group, subgroup, series, etc.? If archivists are not consistent, are the principles guiding archival descriptive level choices intelligible? Do archivists know why cataloging is sometimes at the series level and at other times at the record group level or does it just "feel right"? If it is the latter does it also feel right to researchers? Alternatively, if archivists are consistent—for example, series-level and only series-level—was this policy reached because the records dictated this approach or is it a matter of administrative convenience?

Also important is the question of how much information archivists give users. Are end-users discovering five screens of biographical notes and, if so, should they? Do end-users ever want to know this much and, if so, at what point in their search? At the other extreme, are archivists mimicking the librarian's superficial subject analysis and assigning the equivalent of the library's average 1.4 subject entries per record? What fields and subfields are used? While it is a triumphant reaffirmation of the obvious it should be noted that if information is not part of a record researchers can not use it to find the record.

Is the vocabulary archivists use understandable to users? Among librarians, complaining about *AACR 2* is becoming second in popularity only to the tradition of Library of Congress Subject Headings-bashing. It is an understandable tradition. Who wants to explain to researchers why the catalog contains the heading *Military Education* but not engineering education because that is called *Engineering—Study And Teaching*?

User Interface

Assuming that bibliographic records are available through an OPAC, does the system's manipulation of the database help or hinder end-user retrieval? What fields and subfields are indexed and are they indexed in one file or separately? How many characters in the field are indexed? Can the user specify what data elements of the record to display? Are authority records available to users to guide them through the vocabulary? Are there suggestive error messages or are users simply faced with the discouraging "No records retrieved"? Can the user review the session's search history? Are printers available? Are truncation, stemming and soundex searches available? What about keyword, Boolean, phrase searching and adjacency? What are we doing to help the browser, who, to paraphrase Justice Potter Stewart, can't define it, but will know it when she sees it?

Answers to most of these questions of access, data quality, and interface suggest that there are significant barriers for end-users to overcome before they find archival collections. The current distribution system divides the universe of machine-readable catalog records among multiple bibliographic networks and local catalogs, effectively hiding many records from specific users' reach. Recent studies of how people use OPAC's have concluded that they like using them even though they do not perform effective searches. Frequently discussed obstacles to effective end-user searching include inability to formu-

late search strategies, misunderstanding of Boolean logic, and ignorance of the subject vocabulary used by librarians. Simply put, users do not understand either library descriptive practices or the existing capabilities of OPAC's. The current generation of catalogs does little to assist users in navigating even the limited capabilities available. Many users do not even understand what entities compose the universe described in online catalogs.[16]

All of which suggests that there is little reason to conclude that end-users are better off today than they were in 1982, when USMARC AMC was still a glimmer in the eye of the National Information Systems Task Force. There is a large mass of information to find. But archivists have not done enough to help users find it. Viewed in one way this is a continuation of the long-standing and often justifiable criticisms of archivists' idiosyncratic manual practices. The profession is simply using fancier tools—computers instead of card catalogs and registers—to achieve the same inadequate results. Archivists have not taken advantage of the opportunities presented by a structure for archival information exchange because still, eleven years after NISTF was formed, the basic questions have not been answered.

The first question is, what do archivists want these catalogs to do and who should they serve? Are they finding aids or "electronic pathfinders" to finding aids? Are they an outreach mechanism to alert potential users to the existence of collections or are they comprehensive management information systems? With whom do archivists intend to exchange information—other archival repositories, records creators, or researchers? As a beginning effort to answer these questions it would be instructive to survey institutions that are USMARC users to discover why they chose this approach, if their expectations have been met, and if not, what unmet needs they have identified. Information about how many and what types of institutions are AMC users would also be useful, as would reasons for nonusers' disinterest.

The second question is, what do specific types of users want these catalogs to do. Although this article discusses users as if they all had identical information needs, it is unlikely that they do. Calling for user studies is not an original thought. If, however, archivists are going to embark on the expensive process of developing online catalogs in order to assist end-users in discovering archival materials it is imperative to discover what users want to know. If, as seems probable, different users have different expectations then archivists will have to develop mechanisms to mediate conflicting needs.

The third question is, if there is no exact match between the expectations of catalog creators and catalog users, where and how is compromise reached. Contained within this question is the issue of how over-burdened archival staffs, many of whom lack experience and training in the theory and techniques of bibliographic description, are to add to or convert finding aids into the AMC format.[17] If archivists do not want to see use of the USMARC AMC format become a dividing line between the have's and have-not's of the archival community, then the profession must act to make online catalogs appealing and affordable to all institutions. Who will benefit from archival participation in the wider information community and who will bear the costs? Are the economic incentives of sharing resources such as cataloging data and holdings exchanged through interlibrary loan that were responsible for the growth of the bibliographic networks in the 1970s relevant to archives?[18]

Avra Michelson's article in the *American Archivist* has alerted archivists to a second facet of the issue of expectations: the problem of indexer inconsistency.[19] The most surprising aspect of her research is how surprised people have been at the results. Indexer inconsistency is not a new problem and there is no reason to expect that archivists would be immune to a disease that has plagued all other segments of the information business.

Prescriptive indexing literature, however, begins with the instruction that the nature of the collection and the information needs of the users must be the foundation of the index.[20] At the risk of being labelled an "idiosyncratist", this prescription suggests that describing different collections for different users will always entail certain differences in approach to analysis and vocabulary. Consistency, if it is the result of assigning descriptors regardless of user or collection context, may be neither possible nor desirable, particularly if it results in a smaller descriptive vocabulary. Rather than achieve profession-wide consistency, all archivists may be able to do is to explain what we are indexing and how. If, however, archivists can make local practices intelligible to end-users as well as to each other, they will have achieved something very helpful in bridging the gap between users and creators.

After lengthy deliberations, ample opportunity for comment by archivists, and substantial modification, archivists have adopted library structures for data exchange. As a result of this process, the USMARC AMC format is a significantly different animal from its predecessor manuscript format. The success of the current format is in large part a result of the process that produced it.

> The Task Force sanctioned the definition of existing practice with a consistent vocabulary, which it would then take as the "standard" and use in its design of national information systems....The process was open and open-ended and...actual data already in use was taken as a given.[21]

A similar process must be applied to the issues of descriptive practice, for analysis and vocabulary and for delivery systems. This would be less essential if existing library practice and systems met user expectations and could be adopted by archivists with minor modifications. Unfortunately, there is ample evidence that library practice and systems do not meet user expectations.

Despite the many questions to be answered, there is reason to be optimistic that archivists can address these issues successfully. In the United States, the Working Group on Archival Descriptive Standards[22] is examining the process by which the profession develops and adopts standards. The Government Records Project[23] continues to explore imaginative new uses of USMARC-based data as have several participants in the Bentley Library's Research Fellowship Program. The Canadian archival community also is exploring descriptive standards. *Archives, Personal Papers, and Manuscripts*[24], the embodiment of current archival bibliographic descriptive conventions, is being revised after only five years. Both the revision and the first edition incorporate substantial necessary modifications of the original *AACR 2* rules for manuscript cataloging. Beyond these projects, there is a vast body of library and information science literature on end-user searching of bibliographic databases and OPAC's from which to learn.

There remains, however, much more to do. Archivists must inform themselves about how allied professions have addressed similar questions and what

conclusions they have drawn. Those conclusions must be examined in light of archival experience and, if the conclusions do not hold up, archivists must persuasively discuss their needs and make original contributions. This need is even more important because of the recent integration of USMARC formats.

Archivists bring different, valuable, and heterogeneous perspectives to this process. The overwhelming portion of archival collection descriptions are not tied to LCSH, *AACR 2*, or LC and Dewey classification. Archivists do not carry the baggage of decades of copy cataloging. Administrative histories and biographical notes are a resource like nothing available in traditional bibliographic systems. Traditional hierarchical descriptions are a similar resource with enormous potential for aiding users in navigating catalogs.[25] It would be wrong to lose sight of the NISTF conclusion that "a national information system for archives and manuscripts collections derived from the intellectual resources of the archival profession...will, by the process used to create it, maximize its acceptance by the profession."[26]

Advice often repeated to systems analysts is the caution against "assuming the environment." It is a pitfall that NISTF avoided. The same cannot be said for subsequent developments. Presented with a vehicle for exchanging information, archivists have not adequately addressed the reasons to exchange information. Presented with available library descriptive standards, archivists have not adequately addressed archival needs for descriptive standards. Presented with a ready-made subject vocabulary, archivists have not adequately addressed archival needs for subject, function, form, and other vocabularies. Presented with ready-made delivery systems, archivists have not adequately addressed archival or user output requirements.

This article is not an attempt to argue against use of the USMARC AMC format. It is an attempt to argue for thoughtful use, for a rigorous analysis of goals and a creative reflection on possibilities, at both repository and professional levels. If these steps are neglected, the USMARC AMC format will be both an irrelevance and a failed opportunity.

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NOTES

1. Frederick L. Honhart and Richard L. Pifer, "Has the MARC AMC Format Really Changed the Archival Profession?" papers presented at the Midwest Archives Conference, Cincinnati, Ohio, 5 November 1988.
2. Steven L. Hensen, "The Use of Standards in the Application of the AMC Format," *American Archivist* 49 (Winter 1986): 32.
3. See Lisa Weber, "Archival Automation: the MARC AMC Format," *SAA Newsletter* (May 1987): 13; Katharine D. Morton, "The MARC Formats: An Overview," *American Archivist* 49 (Winter 1986): 28; Nancy A. Sahli, "Interpretation and Application of the AMC Format," *American Archivist* 49 (Winter 1986): 10, 12; Hensen,"The Use of Standards," 32. Notable exceptions are Margaret J. Kimball, "Workflow for Processing Manuscripts in Automated Systems," *Rare Books and Manuscripts Librarianship* 1 (Fall 1986): 117-126; David Bearman, "Why Adopt MARC?" *Archival Information Newsletter* 1 (Spring 1987): 3.

4. Richard H. Lytle, "An Analysis of the Work of the National Information Systems Task Force," *American Archivist* 47 (Fall 1984): 361.
5. David Bearman once again articulates a different approach in "Archives and Manuscript Control with Bibliographic Utilities: Challenges and Opportunities," *American Archivist* 52 (Winter 1989): 26-39; David Bearman and Richard Szary, "Beyond Authorized Headings: Authorities as Reference Files in a Multi-Disciplinary Setting," *Authority Control Symposium,* Occasional Papers of the Art Libraries Society of North America, no. 6 (1986): 69-78.
6. H. Thomas Hickerson, "Archival Information Exchange and the Role of Bibliographic Networks," *Library Trends* 36 (Winter 1988): 553.
7. Lisa Weber, "Automation Survey Results," SAA Newsletter (November 1987): 4.
8. Gregory Whitfield, RLIN, to Jill Tatem, personal communication, 15 December 1988.
9. Hickerson, "Archival Information Exchange," 553.
10. "OCLC Statistics by Format," *Bits and Pieces* (June/July 1988): 12.
11. Dave Wasser, WLN, to Jill Tatem, personal communication, 28 October 1988.
12. Weber, "Automation Survey," 5.
13. *National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections* (Washington, D.C.: Library of Congress, 1988), iii.
14. These are two of the many subscriber services which offer access to online databases geared to non-professionals. Evening service, economical costs, and a relatively simple user interface facilitate independent, direct, end-user searching.
15. *Furthering Access to the World's Information: 1987/88 OCLC Annual Report* (Dublin, Ohio: OCLC, 1988); Whitfield; Wasser. Membership figures can be misleading both for comparative purposes and as indicators of the availability of union catalogs since most utilities have varying levels of membership and distribute products beyond their membership.
16. There have been dozens of OPAC user studies reported in the library literature, among them several summaries of the Council on Library Resources 1981-82 Online Catalog Evaluation Projects such as Joseph R. Matthews, Gary S. Lawrence, and Douglas K. Ferguson, eds., *Using Online Catalogs* (New York: Neal-Schuman, 1983); Joseph R. Matthews, ed., *The Impact of Online Catalogs* (New York: Neal-Schuman, 1986); *Subject Access: Report of a Meeting Sponsored by the Council on Library Resources* (Washington, D.C.: CLR, 1982); and Robert N. Broadus, "Online Catalogs and Their Users," *College and Research Libraries* 44 (November 1983): 458-467. Another project was OCLC's Subject Access Project reported by Karen Markey, *The Process of Subject Searching in the Library Catalog: Final Report of the Subject Access Research Project* (Dublin, Ohio: OCLC, 1983) and Karen Markey, *Subject Searching in Library Catalogs Before and After the Introduction of Online Catalogs* (Dublin, Ohio: OCLC, 1984). The Research Libraries Group recent Patron Access Project is reported in Walt Crawford, *Patron Access: Issues for Online Catalogs* (Boston: G.K. Hall, 1987). Two recent reviews are Christine L. Borgman, "Why are Online Catalogs Hard to Use? Lessons Learned from Information-Retrieval Studies," *JASIS* 37 (November 1986): 387-400; Charles R. Hildreth, "Online Public Access Catalogs," *ARIST* 20 (1985): 233-285. For one description of needed capabilities in OPAC's see Charles R. Hildreth, "Beyond Boolean: Designing the Next Generation of Online Catalogs," *Library Trends* 36 (Spring 1987): 647-667.
17. For a discussion of the labor required to create an AMC record see Patricia Cloud, "RLIN, AMC and Retrospective Conversion: A Case Study," *Midwestern Archivist* 11 (1986): 125-134.
18. Richard De Gennaro, "Library Automation and Networking: Perspectives on Three Decades," *Library Journal* (1 April 1983): 631; Charles R. Hildreth, "Library Networking in North America in the 1980's. Part 1: The Dreams; the Realities," *Electronic Library* 5 (August 1987): 226.
19. Avra Michelson, "Description and Reference in the Age of Automation," *American Archivist* 50 (Spring 1987): 192-208.
20. See Donald B. Cleveland and Ana D. Cleveland, *Introduction to Indexing and Abstracting* (Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1983): 67; John Rothman, "Index, Indexer, Indexing," in *Encyclopedia of Library and Information Science* (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1974); F.W. Lancaster, *Vocabulary Control for Information Retrieval,* 2nd ed. (Arlington, Va.: Information Resources Press, 1986): 24, 26; Lois Mai Chan, *Library of Congress Subject Headings: Principles and Application,* 2nd ed. (Littleton, Colo.: Libraries Unlimited, 1986): 17-20.
21. David Bearman, *Towards National Information Systems for Archives and Manuscript Repositories: The National Information Systems Task Force Papers 1981-1984* (Chicago: society of American Archivists, 1987), 5.

22. The Working Group on Standards for Archival Description was established in 1988 with funding from the National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC) to explore the need for standardized descriptive practices and procedures for developing or evaluating such standards. A final report was in preparation in the summer of 1989.
23. The Government Records Project, also with funding from NHPRC, is exploring, among other things, the development of form-of-material/series authority files to be used through the Research Libraries Information Network in intergovernmental identification and appraisal of archives. The Government Records Project is an expansion of the Seven States Project which sought to share, also through RLIN, records about holdings, functional descriptions, etc.
24. Steven L. Hensen *Archives, Personal Papers, and Manuscripts: A Cataloging Manual for Archival Repositories, Historical Societies, and Manuscript Libraries* (Washington, D.C. Library of Congress, 1983). A second edition is in preparation.
25. David Bearman and Richard Lytle, "The Power of the Principle of Provenance," *Archivaria* 21 (Winter 1985-86): 14-27.
26. Richard H. Lytle, "Report to SAA Council, March 1978," quoted in Bearman, *Towards National Information Systems,* 3.

BOOK REVIEWS

Keepers of Our Past: Local Historical Writing in the United States, 1820s-1930s. By David J. Russo. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1988. 281 pp. Preface, notes, bibliography, and index. Hardcover. $39.95.

In *Families and Communities: A New View of American History* (Nashville, 1974) David J. Russo argued that American history had been written too long from the national perspective, ignoring the vastly rich domain of local history, and that amateurs and professional historians need to be reunited so that historical writing can once again have the broad appeal it had in the nineteenth century. In many respects *Keepers of Our Past: Local Historical Writing in the United States, 1820s-1930s* carries forward the same two arguments, and Russo remains the champion of the amateurs and gentleman-scholars. Russo reasons that history written by the amateurs dominated the scene until 1930 and that academic historians "are of quite recent origin as a species, given the whole span of such writing since North America was first settled by European immigrants" (p. xii).

This book is divided into four parts, covering twelve chapters, plus an introduction, conclusion, notes, and bibliography. Russo begins by providing an overview of local historical writing from the 1820s to the 1930s. Part one focuses on "The Early Antiquarians"—from the local historians of New England, who largely wrote from a colony-wide perspective, to Philadelphia's John F. Watson, considered by many "the pioneer in antiquarian research." The chapter on Watson is quite useful, but one must question why Russo neglects Samuel Hazard or others like him. Russo is clearly fascinated by the grass roots work of these amateur historians, who not only wrote about local people, places, and happenings and preserved evidence of the American past, but also were largely responsible for the founding of historical societies, archives, and museums.

In part two, entitled "The Later Antiquarians," the author examines the official local chroniclers—the town and city historians who left a record of the growth and urbanization of the United States. George Sheldon's history of Deerfield, Massachusetts, is a case in point. J. Thomas Scharf is also singled out as an "impresario of antiquarian endeavor" and as one of the more notable antiquarian editors (p. 145). Part three, entitled "Formulaic Local History," constitutes a review of local historical writing from three perspectives—as a publishing enterprise, as an editorial project, and as a contribution to historical literature.

In "The Coming of the Academics" (part four), Russo explores the question of amateur versus academic historical writing. He argues that the dominant academic perspective, with its commitment to concepts, models, processes, and patterns, is in danger of mistaking mental constructs for social reality. Russo concludes that, since the 1960s, academic historians have lost their "connected-

ness" with the amateurs and historical societies and have lost sight of real people, communities, and events. He shows the line between academic and amateur is no longer blurred and that joint efforts in running historical associations and societies are a shadow of what they were between 1930 and 1960. Not only have credentials and historical approaches begun to mean something but also the amateurs' commitment to historical writing "as end in itself" has become unacceptable in academic circles. Scholarly local history is no longer studied for the history of the locality itself but rather for the light it can shed on the history of the United States. According to Russo, once academics began borrowing techniques and methods from the social sciences, amateurs and scholars no longer shared a descriptive language.

There is no denying that local history lacks the broad appeal it had in the nineteenth century. The reasons behind the decline of the antiquarian tradition are nicely detailed by Russo. While the author hopes that some day historical inquiry can become "whole again," he does not chart a course for this to happen. Neither does he reveal how present-day amateurs can be more inclusive and less inclined to engage in ancestor worship and parochial excess. That is not to say that problems do not exist with the new "local history" of academicians. Russo is right: generalizations are often too sweeping and "statistical averages as well as generalized descriptions may conjure up fictionalized portraits" (p. 212). Whether the new amateurs of the 1980s can be analytical and correct the weaknesses of the academics remains to be seen.

All in all, this is a commendable study that should be of value to archivists and manuscript curators interested in the history of local historical writing. To be sure, applied historians would like to know more about the local sources used by the amateurs or the varieties of documentation. For example, how was it that J. Thomas Scharf and his amateur assistants solicited information from public officials and gained access to local archival sources? There are some occasional lapses with names: Israel Daniel Rupp is not Rapp (p. 135); Boyd Crumvine is not Curnvime (p. 139); and the State Historical Society of Wisconsin is not the Wisconsin Historical Society (p. 142), only to mention a few. Finally, Russo must appreciate that archivists expect to be very much involved in the common quest "to promote the utility of history in society through common practice."

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Managing Archives and Archival Institutions. Edited by James Gregory Bradsher. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1989. 304 pp. Index, bibliography. Hardcover. $45.00.

Eighteen authors have combined to produce a volume that fairly well represents the state of the archival art, particularly as it exists in the United States. Too many to name here, they and author/editor James Gregory Bradsher are to be commended for their brief and lucid expositions. Considering that eleven of the contributors are employed by the (U.S.) National Archives and

Records Administration and three others by federal or quasi-federal institutions, that only three work primarily with nongovernment materials, and that all but one are located on the East Coast, the book does surprisingly well at being "broad enough to apply to all types of archival institutions and custodians of archival materials."

Managing Archives covers the traditional topics such as "Appraisal and Disposition" (Maygene F. Daniels) and "Arrangement and Description" (Sharon Gibbs Thibodeau). Although sound, these chapters do not hint at the amount of discussion and even change going on in such key activities. For instance, the USMARC AMC format—probably the most significant development in archival description in decades—is not mentioned in the section on arrangement and description, but only in the context of "New Automation Techniques" (Bruce I. Ambacher).

Less traditional in a book of this sort are chapters such as "History of Archives Administration" (Bradsher and Michele F. Pacifico) and "Archival Ethics" (Karen Benedict). The history is succinct and interesting. "Ethics" is a current buzz-word, which does not diminish the value of including it in a work of this sort. It is important to bring increased attention to the subject, as Benedict urges.

There is an emphasis on comprehensive preservation planning rather than on item treatments, a broad look at archival considerations and procedures to get a grip on information that is in machine-readable form, and an up-to-date look at technologies such as optical character recognition and artificial intelligence. The corresponding chapters, by Norvell M. M. Jones and Mary Lynn Ritzenthaler, Ambacher, and Thomas A. Weir respectively, are timely and helpful without being too generalized or too detailed.

"Archival Management" by Michael J. Kurtz and "Archival Effectiveness" by Bradsher are somewhat duplicative and should have been combined. It may be possible to apply Kurtz's prescriptions to a one-person archives, but it will take some effort to overcome the feeling that his experience is in a *BIG* institution. Discussing continuing education for staff, for example, he states that "a coordinator is needed to identify training opportunities and organize in-house and rotational assignments." Bradsher might have talked about what archival effectiveness *is*, and how to measure it. In neither of these sections is there a mention of users of archives. Surely to manage well and be effective we must pay attention to that sadly neglected sector.

One wonders exactly what the audience for *Managing Archives* will be. The editor prefaces the work by saying that space limitations forced a concentration on "major theories, principles, practices, issues, problems, and challenges." One presumes the old hands will not find much new here; newcomers and outside observers will get an idea of "what to" but usually not "how to." (John A. Dwyer's "Cartographic and Architectural Archives" is an excellent example of addressing why, what, and how.) There is generally too much precept and not enough example. An excellent bibliography will help readers fill in gaps or extend their learning.

Bradsher (p. xiv) cites the lack of a book-length work "providing the most up-to-date information relating to all aspects of archives administration and providing bibliographic citations to the most recent professional literature." A footnote mentions *Keeping Archives* (edited by Ann Pederson and published by the

Australian Society of Archives Inc., Sydney, 1987) as "an exception." *Keeping Archives* is a formidable competitor to *Managing Archives*. Archivists probably should own both, but *Keeping Archives* covers many topics not covered in the other (micrographics, for instance) and is chock full of lists, standards, checklists, forms, and examples.

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Minnesota Historical Society

Public Accountability and Our Documentary Heritage: The Indiana Access to Public Records Law. By J. Thomas Brown. Indianapolis: Society of Indiana Archivists, 1988. 23 pp. Paper. $4.00 ($2.00 for SIA members). Available from Thomas Krasean, Society of Indiana Archivists, Indiana Historical Society, 315 W. Ohio Street, Indianapolis, IN 46202.

What are the public records? Who has authority for retaining and destroying them? What types of information are restricted? What are the legal aspects of such basic archival functions as accession and reference? These are the kinds of questions dealt with in this manual, the third in a series published by the Society of Indiana Archivists dealing with issues of archives administration.

The passage in 1983 of Indiana's Access to Public Records Law ended a six-year period in which a state oversight committee had been empowered to establish standards for records management, classification, and disposition. The 1983 authorization of state agencies to determine access guidelines independently led some to argue that the new law might result in uneven compliance or, at worst, in evasion of the legislative intent to guarantee public access. By clearly presenting the law's concepts, content, and implications (both good and vague), this manual provides a service not only to archivists but to agency records managers and to the public at large.

From a succinct summary of the main features of the Indiana Access to Public Records Law, the manual proceeds to an introduction tracing the origins of the law to the federal Freedom of Information Act and outlining the evolution of the law to the present day. The introduction is followed by the principal component of this manual, a synopsis of Indiana Code Section 5-14-3. A conclusion spells out implications of the statute for custodians of historical records repositories, reminding them that the new law pertains to all records regardless of the date of their creation. Finally, a postscript describing the archives policy statement of Indiana State University presents a case study of implementation of the law by a public institution of higher education.

The primary contribution of this manual lies in its section-by-section synopsis, in which direct quotation of the legal text is accompanied by matter-of-fact explication and commentary. To the degree that there can exist a handy reference tool to the intricacies of the legal mind, this is it.

Presumably an indispensable guide for Indianans, this manual can also serve to enlighten the rest of us with its clear discussions of basic issues. The historical introduction is a chronological portrait of wavering emphases on privacy and access. The discussions are from an archivist's perspective, not a legisla-

tor's, so that not only are they phrased intelligibly but also they address practical concerns. The author does not shrink from taking a stand, as when he notes that one section of the list of records that agencies are allowed to classify as confidential "is especially vague and subject to a potentially varied range of administrative opinion" (p. 5).

And so to the list of potential questions on access one can add, "How does the Indiana Access to Public Records Law rate as a statute?" The author of this manual has an answer, and on the basis of his discussion it appears justified: "While there may be the potential for circumvention of legislative intent within individual public agencies, the gain in public accessibility to the records of Indiana public agencies has thus far outweighed potential hazards" (p. 6).

Louise Martin, Deputy State Archivist
State Archives and Historical Research Library
State Historical Society of North Dakota

An Action Agenda for the Archival Profession: Institutionalizing the Planning Process. A Report to SAA Council by the Committee on Goals and Priorities. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1988. 74pp. Paper. $5.00 to SAA members, $8.00 to nonmembers.

This report from the Society of American Archivists' Committee on Goals and Priorities (CGAP) builds upon the 1986 report *Planning for the Archival Profession,* issued by the SAA Task Force on Goals and Priorities. Where the earlier report outlined broad goals for the profession, the *Action Agenda* aims to direct the profession's energies to the highest priority objectives and to specific activities that will help to accomplish them.

CGAP focused its attention on the five areas identified as priorities in the 1986 report: appraisal and documentation strategies, automated records and techniques, institutional evaluation and standards, management training, and educational potential of archives. For each area, CGAP established small planning groups to examine the objectives and propose specific activities, actors, and resources with which to achieve them. More than half of the document consists of these planning groups' reports, containing brief descriptions of the recommended activities and explanations of their purpose and significance. In addition, the report includes a spreadsheet showing each activity's expected cost in time and money, and a list of the activities grouped by the recommended actor.

In all, CGAP recommends to the profession forty-four activities, ranging from fairly simple tasks, such as preparing a list of archival outreach awards, to much more expensive and ambitious projects, such as undertaking model documentation studies on presidential papers and an urban area. Although some activities will clearly require substantial outside funding, CGAP believes that most of them can be accomplished by SAA and its committees, roundtables, and sections with relatively little expense.

As the subtitle of the report suggests, raising the level of archival work is only a part of CGAP's purpose in this report. One of the committee's highest

priorities is to transform the haphazard way the archival profession operates by institutionalizing the planning process. This is the principal reason why CGAP did not re-examine the priority objectives outlined in the 1986 Task Force report, for it wanted to establish that report as the first phase of a planning cycle. The *Action Agenda* report constitutes the middle phases—reducing the priorities to specific activities, identifying actors and resources, and setting timetables—and the cycle will be completed when the activities are implemented and evaluated, presumably the topic of a future report. As CGAP argues in the executive summary that opens this report, completing an entire planning cycle will help to convince archivists and their institutions of the seriousness of the process and so make them more willing to commit their energies and resources to accomplishing the profession's agenda.

In fact, CGAP has not had long to wait to find archivists willing to commit themselves to this agenda. The only recommendation of the Institutional Evaluation and Standards Planning Group, a revision of the 1982 *Evaluation of Archival Institutions* workbook, was nearly completed before the report was issued; the recommendation for an urban area documentation study is being accomplished in a Milwaukee project recently funded by NHPRC; and many of the other recommendations are finding their way into the agenda of various SAA committees, sections, and roundtables. These initial projects are already indicating that the *Action Agenda* report will have the substantial impact on the archival profession that CGAP intended. As a consequence, this report is essential reading for any archivist who wants to participate in, or even just understand, the agenda that the profession seems to be following.

Eric Pumroy
Indiana University–Purdue University
at Indianapolis

Funding for Museums, Archives and Special Collections. Edited by Denise Wallen and Karen Cantrell. Phoenix: Oryx Press, 1988. 355 pp. Bibliography, indexes. Paper. $48.00.

This comprehensive guide suggests funding sources for a broad spectrum of nonprofit organizations covering everything from *a* to *z* (archives to zoos). The authors set out to facilitate the search for the elusive dollar with a target audience of museums, archives, and special collections. They do so admirably.

The directory lists programs for funding a broad range of institutional activities including administration and operations, acquisitions and collections management, conservation, education, endowment and capital campaigns, exhibitions, historic preservation, internships, outreach programs, and renovation. It also steers the professional toward individual research and training programs.

The actual body of the directory lists over 270 sponsors in alphabetical order. The 525 individual programs sponsored by these agencies are individually listed or profiled. Each entry includes the sponsor name, address, telephone number, program title and purpose, eligibility and limitations, fiscal information, application information, and deadlines. Of particular benefit is the inclusion of a

sampling of previously funded projects which apprises the prospective applicant of the nature and scope of successful applications. Other useful sections of the directory include a description of how to use the directory, a bibliography (listing printed sources and online databases), and a series of indexes on specific subjects, geographic restrictions of various sponsors, and sponsor type. These greatly facilitate and encourage use of the directory.

No guide of this sort is ever totally comprehensive, and *Funding for Museums, Archives and Special Collections* is no exception. While covering the funding "bases" for museums, the authors neglected to mention a significant program for the archivist—the Bentley Historical Library's Research Fellowship Program for Study of Modern Archives. They list only three sponsors under the subject title "archives" in the index—the J. Paul Getty Trust, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the National Historical Publications and Records Commission. Major sponsors of notable archival projects, such as the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, the Eli Lilly and Company Foundation, and the Pew Charitable Trusts are listed elsewhere in the directory. The archivist should study each program profile with a creative eye to discover funding possibilities for his or her institution. Armed with imagination and tenacity, he or she will uncover a wealth of beneficial programs. While the price may be prohibitive to some, this guide would be a welcome addition to any library—personal, professional, or institutional.

Sharron G. Uhler
Colorado Springs Pioneer Museum

Kentucky Archival and Manuscript Collections, Volume One. Frankfort: Kentucky Department for Libraries and Archives, 1989. 222 pp. Index. Looseleaf (with binder). $15.00.

Kentucky Archival and Manuscript Collections, Volume One is actually the second publication of the Kentucky Guide Project. In 1986 project editors produced the *Guide to Kentucky Archival and Manuscript Repositories*, a directory of the 285 institutions in Kentucky holding manuscript and archival materials. This new publication, providing detailed descriptions of the archival and manuscript holdings of libraries and other institutions, will prove even more useful to researchers than the earlier *Guide*. Arranged alphabetically by city or town, volume one starts with Albany and ends with Burkesville, encompassing twenty-eight collecting agencies. Most of the institutions are public libraries, although editors also included a civic club, the Ashland Oil Company, the Jean Thomas Museum, Berea College, and Western Kentucky University.

For each institution included, editors described individual collections, giving inclusive dates, information about the size of the collections, and a brief description. We learn, for example, that the Holcomb Family Papers at Western Kentucky University contain that family's business papers and correspondence dating from 1825-1867. A section on "contents" further explains that the Holcomb Family Papers relate to the North Carolina slave trade.

If any fault exists at all with *Kentucky Archival and Manuscript Collections* it is that the entries are not entirely uniform. In some cases an historical note explains the significance of the person whose papers archivists saw fit to save, but in other cases there is no historical note. Some guide contributors included a section on "arrangement" while others did not. All the Berea descriptions, for example, tell us whether the collection is "chronological," "topical," or "unarranged." No Western Kentucky University description contains such information.

Since veteran researchers and specialists probably already know about the most significant holdings of Kentucky libraries (or can find out in secondary sources), it is likely to be the descriptions of the routine minutiae of history, the store accounts and Bible records, that make this volume most useful. A genealogist or quantitative historian may find materials cataloged here that, although extremely useful, would not justify an institution-by-institution search. Some minor entries are also just fun to read. The public library in Benton has the papers of a veteran who, overcoming injuries sustained in World War I, became first a circus strongman, then a newspaper columnist on physical fitness, and then an artist.

This work will prove invaluable for researchers working on Kentucky and even fields outside of Kentucky. An excellent index allows users access to the work by subject. A researcher interested in Poland, for example, can quickly find two collections with relevant material. Since much of volume one relates to materials held in Western Kentucky University's Kentucky Building, this particular volume will be an essential resource for students of western Kentucky history. However, even researchers with little or no interest in Kentucky should consult this important publication.

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