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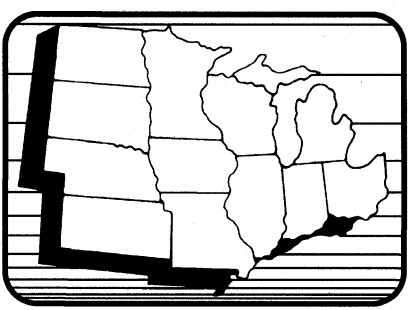

ARCHIVES AND ARCHIVISTS IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY: WHAT WILL WE BECOME?

RICHARD J. COX

ABSTRACT: Archivists have become more prone in the past decade to speculate on their future. This essay argues that such speculation should be grounded in the current trends of changes of organizations and the society these organizations reside in and reflect. The author uses two well-known management tomes, stressing reengineering and reinventing, as a foundation for tracking these changes and arguing what archivists should be focused on as they cope in rapidly transforming organizations and society. The author concludes that many of these changes should bring a greater opportunity for archives and archivists to meet the archival mission.

Introduction

There are any number of ways archivists can predict what will happen to their mission, programs, and profession in the next decade or two, and there are any number of ways they can be wrong. However, it is important to speculate on the future by considering current trends because any profession with a particular mission on society's behalf must make decisions which enable it to continue to carry out that mission as effectively as possible. What has to be kept in mind, of course, is what professions represent. In the best analysis of the nature of professions, Andrew Abbott suggests that "professions are somewhat exclusive groups of individuals applying somewhat abstract knowledge to particular cases."[1] The archival profession, in order to maintain whatever status or identity (and ability to perform satisfactorily) it has as a profession, must keep its focus on its knowledge base and the application of that knowledge to the realities of larger organizational shifts in self-analysis.

At least two basic reasons suggest that archivists should be able to make predictions which are relevant and helpful. First, one area in which predictions have actually fallen short of expectations—that is that the progress has been more spectacular than predicted—has been in the realm of information technology and its applications. If we consider that archivists are deeply affected by this since records have always been a product of such technology, then it is important for archivists to understand how they must contend with the technology and utilize it for their own benefits (i.e., fulfilling their mission). Archivists must understand that the office, creating the records that archivists must manage, is in a continual state of flux and, even more important, that the origins of

the archival profession's functions and techniques stem largely from an older stage of the office's evolution.[2] Electronic information technology has been the crucial factor in driving the transformation of the office, although other economic, cultural, and political dimensions mediate the ways in which that technology is utilized and the extent of its impact.

The second reason concerns the nature of professional development in the late twentieth century. Professions which have information as a fundamental aspect of their responsibility and focus are in a stronger position to flourish because information management has become integral to the competition among professions and their continuing success or failure.[3] Again, archivists, with their responsibility to identify and manage records possessing continuing value to their organizations and society should be able to compete well in the future.

Regardless of the importance of professionalism, I am not arguing that efforts to control entry into the profession, raise credentials, develop and use standards, and other such matters should be the focus of our contemplation of the future. My view is that some stress on such professional matters should help archivists to integrate their mission into institutions, governance, and society in such a way that it will help the quest for the preservation of the documentary heritage. The concern whether archivists, as a profession, will exist or not a generation or two down the road should not be the issue; instead, the focus should always be on the health of the mission. How well is the profession coping with the identification, preservation, and use of archival records on behalf of the institutions it serves and society? The archival profession in the United States has established itself and strengthened its position in the past half-century, but it is debatable whether the progress this discipline has made in managing the documentary heritage has improved as much as we should have expected. We are still falling far short of this goal, and our efforts to plan for, or at least speculate on, the future should be constructed about the issue of how the archival mission fares. Archival programs are under funded, archivists and their repositories have a low societal profile, and the prospects for gaining the needed support do not appear to be much better than they were a generation or two ago; some might argue that the prospects have lessened.

When archivists have speculated on the future, they have often tended to focus on internal professional issues, a not surprising but often irrelevant exercise.[4] We can suggest all sorts of things about archivists—their educational backgrounds, the kinds of individuals attracted to the field, their credentials, the work they will do, and even where they will work—but these kinds of predictions only make sense if they are related to the current changing nature of the organizations and the society in which they work. Earlier speculative efforts have been important in getting archivists to understand that such matters are important if they are to be successful in their work and mission, but they do not help much in archivists' contending within their work places if they go little further than internal professional debates and discussions. It is easy to either adopt a progressive viewpoint in which we see a healthy and vital profession, or a more fatalistic perspective in which we see the archivist gone from the array of professions in the twenty-first century, or not to have any viewpoint at all. Some archivists prefer to imagine that they are sailing on a placid sea rather than in the turbulent storms of change, complexity, and confusion.

My intention in this essay is to speculate on what society and its organizations might become and to consider the ramifications of these changes for the archival mission. I strongly believe that the archival mission will always remain, but I am not altogether sure about whether archivists and their allies or archival programs as we now know them will still be there, even in my lifetime (and I am in my mid-forties). We should first examine organizations (corporations, governments, cultural institutions), the front lines for archivists, and then consider other, greater societal changes. This might help us, then, to understand better what archivists should and should not be doing now and in the near future.[5]

Reengineering the Organization and the Future of Archivy

It seems as if every few years a new management scheme comes along, takes center stage in discussions about management, produces some best-sellers, and fades into the background. However, from time to time, new concepts or approaches show promise of transforming the manner in which we conceive of administering institutions and programs; these are administrative approaches archivists must pay closer attention to, both in how archivists serve their organizational parents and in how they manage their own records programs and activities. Recent writings on "reengineering" and "reinventing" institutions represent two related management schools that I believe archivists should carefully consider. These concepts provide a window for us to speculate about the future of the institution and the role of the archivist.

Reengineering is an effort to show why the management principles of the past century or more must be discarded or, at the least, radically transformed into a new set of concepts and precepts. The fundamental testament of this approach is Michael Hammer and James Champy, *Reengineering the Corporation: A Manifesto for Business Revolution*, originally published in 1993 and re-issued in an updated edition in 1994.[6] The premise of Hammer and Champy is that management has been built around "tasks" which in turn are built on the principle of the division of labor when it should be clustered around "coherent business processes."[7] While the older task-oriented managerial approach worked well for a long time, its own success bred its failures. Tasks expanded in number, production became more complicated, and managing the production process became harder and often impossible.[8] And the managing of the process further removed the corporation from the customer, threatening service, quality, responsiveness, and other aspects of producing for the customer.[9] The premise of reengineering is a recognition that the corporation's business is to have a product. The limited lifespan of a product and its market makes the processes which enable the business to change and create products all the more important. As Hammer and Champy indicate, "good products do not make winners; winners make good products."[10]

To get corporate leaders thinking about processes rather than tasks, Hammer and Champy provide reengineering as a means of starting over, as is evident in their definition of reengineering: "Reengineering...is the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service, and speed."[11] The authors fix on four key aspects of this definition: fun-

damental (why, how, what kinds of questions), radical (reinventing the business not improving it), dramatic ("quantum leaps in performance"), and processes (the "collection of activities that takes one or more kinds of input and creates an output that is of value to the customer").[12]

Now what are the future implications of "reengineering" for the archivist? In other words, if reengineering is likely to have a substantial influence on the manner in which organizations are evolving, what does it suggest to archivists about their future work environments? We must consider this question in two ways: the archivist working within the re-engineered corporation and the archivist reengineering his or her own program.

The archivist working in the re-engineered corporation faces some interesting challenges. Hammer and Champy contend that "Reengineering is about beginning again with a clean sheet of paper. It is about rejecting the conventional wisdom and received assumptions of the past."[13] This poses a question about the archivist arguing that his or her mission is to provide a corporate memory. The point here may be, of course, not whether this is a legitimate role but whether it is the exclusive or most important purpose of the institutional archives. Is there another role (or roles) for the archivist in the re-engineered corporation? Hammer and Champy also argue, with a full chapter on the topic, that information technology is not the solution to the problems of an organization but a means by which problems can be resolved. Full of examples, the authors stress that the technology often provides the means to invent new uses for technology and new ways of doing business. In other words, "the real power of technology is not that it can make the old processes work better, but that it enables organizations to break old rules and create new ways of working—that is, to reengineer."[14] This kind of imagining what uses can be made of information technology brings the archivist face to face with the matter of how he or she can get closer to the use of the technology and how he or she can employ the technology itself for the functioning of their own program.

There are other, more crucial, concerns for the archivist in the re-engineered institution. A major emphasis of the reengineering advocates is on the issue of who will lead and carry out reengineering. This topic is one that is rife with challenges for the organizational archivist. Hammer and Champy write that "Leadership isn't just a matter of position, but of character as well. Ambition, restlessness, and intellectual curiosity are the hallmarks of the reengineering leader. A caretaker of the *status quo* will never be able to muster the passion and enthusiasm the effort requires."[15] We have, of course, leaders. However, there is the matter of status quo and the fundamental aspect of the archivist's mission. Archivists take their mission to conserve or preserve quite seriously. Archivists must transform their natural conservativism deriving from their mission into mustering their energies to search for ways in which innovation can also enable the archival record to be preserved.

The archivist seeking to reengineer his or her own program also faces some serious issues to consider. Hammer and Champy state that "in order to meet the contemporary demands of quality, service, flexibility, and low cost, processes must be kept simple."[16] They offer that simplifying processes includes combining several jobs into one, allowing workers to make decisions, more naturally ordering the steps in a process, ending standardization to have multiple versions of a process oriented to different markets, performing work where it makes the most sense, reducing checks and controls, and other related activities.[17]

How can archivists simplify their processes? There are a number of ways, none of which might settle well among archivists. They could bring together the continuum of appraisal to arrangement and description to preservation to use into a more simplified version that enables the appraisal process to accomplish much of what constitutes arrangement and description and preservation so that records are much more quickly ready for use and processing backlogs are eliminated. A thorough appraisal could result in a thorough description; or, archivists could adapt existing descriptions produced by the creators. Hammer and Champy also believe that the re-engineered organization moves from stressing management as a way for individual advancement to stressing working.[18] This is especially important since archivists have often stressed administration as a means of personal advancement or have often found themselves in small operations where they have been forced to assume managerial responsibilities, whether qualified or interested. What archivists need to do to reengineer their programs is to provide the means for their most capable workers to stay where they have been successful, rather than moving them up and out from where they have been productive and successful.

Reengineering also requires "insight, creativity, and judgment."[19] There are many archivists who have a tendency to greet with suspicion innovation or risk-taking, and this certainly will not help the archivist make his or her program more effective.[20] Simplifying processes requires radical rethinking and more than just tinkering. Appraisal should be simplified from acquiring records for every conceivable use by every conceivable potential constituency to focus on organizational legal and evidence requirements. Arrangement and description should be done only for backlogged holdings when they are requested, so as to eliminate the constant complaint about the immense resources needed for such work and the appeal to this responsibility as the enduring archival priority in favor of a strategy that stresses meeting organizational and societal information and evidence needs. Preservation should eliminate any desire for conservation of individual items except when they are to be exhibited. There is an important principle here. Archivists must only do what will assist their parent agency to achieve its objectives, rather than some set of nebulous cultural objectives usually articulated by archivists which might only provide a barrier to the organization's work. This requires archivists to understand their organization's objectives in the first place and then to tailor their work to meet these objectives.

Some features of the re-engineered corporation or the re-engineered archival program actually parallel some current trends in the archival community. One is education. Hammer and Champy stress a new emphasis on education versus training that is compatible with the recent movement to develop archival education programs that do not train but provide a basic knowledge: "Traditional companies typically stress employee *training*—teaching workers how to perform a particular job or how to handle one specific situation or another. In companies that have re-engineered, the emphasis shifts from training to *education*—or to hiring the educated. Training increases skills and competence and teaches employees the 'how' of a job. Education increases their insight and understanding and teaches the 'why.'"[21] This reorientation will not be a problem for archivists, assuming that they support the continued development and expansion of graduate archival education and continuing education programs, ensure that these programs focus on education and knowledge rather than skills and atti-

tudes, and work so that the organizations and archival programs hire the graduates of these programs.

Reinventing the Organization and the Future of Archivy

Reinventing, the other new management concept capturing a lot of attention, is closely related to the concept of reengineering. As described in the book by David Osborne and Ted Gaebler, *Reinventing Government: How the Entrepreneurial Spirit is Transforming the Public Sector*, [22] the notion of reinventing is provided in the book's subtitle. It is the management effort carried out by an entrepreneur who "uses resources in new ways to maximum productivity and effectiveness."[23] Osborne and Gaebler point out that the last major effort at reinventing government occurred fifty years to a century ago, and this has created a problem because "the kind of governments that developed during the industrial era, with their sluggish, centralized, bureaucracies, their preoccupation with rules and procedures, and their hierarchical chains of command, no longer work very well."[24] While Hammer and Champy stressed a perspective on processes, Osborne and Gaebler have stressed a focus on results: In the old model we attempted control and "we became so obsessed with dictating *how* things should be done—regulating the process, controlling the inputs—that we ignored the outcomes, the results."[25] They suggest, however, that the circumstances that led to the older models have disappeared or been greatly modified: "We live in an information society, in which people get access to information almost as fast as their leaders do. We live in a knowledge-based economy, in which educated workers bridle at commands and demand autonomy."[26] How fast can these organizations get access to information found in archives? Will they tolerate needing to go through the archivist in order to get the access they need?

Osborne and Gaebler, examining example after example of government success stories, developed a set of criteria for success (this criteria constituting the re-invention of government):

- a promotion of "competition between service providers"
- an empowering of citizens by moving control from the bureaucracy to the community
- performance measures stressing outcomes rather than inputs
- motivation by their mission rather than by rules and regulations
- a redefining of their clients as customers
- a mentality to prevent problems before they occur rather than offering services after a problem emerges
- a focus on earning, not just spending, money
- an authority that is decentralized, with a stress on participatory management
- a preference for market mechanisms rather than bureaucratic mechanisms
- and, finally, a "focus not simply on providing public services, but on catalyzing all sectors—public, private, and voluntary—into action to solve their community's problems."[27]

While it is easy to dismiss, at least initially, these authors' viewpoints as being incredibly naive—especially if you have tried to work in government for any length of time—such a perspective would ignore several of their important findings. First, Osborne and Gaebler have provided numerous examples where

such principles have been used and used effectively. Like Hammer and Champy, they contend that they are not so much creating a new set of management principles as they are discovering principles that have worked and are working. Second, Osborne and Gaebler suggest that we tend to dismiss such new concepts because we tend to base our views on our personal experiences in organizations, which are quite limited in the history of such institutions. If we had worked in companies and for governments for seventy-five or one hundred years we would perceive major fluctuations in success and failure. Third, the authors argue that many tend to focus on organizations like government bureaucracies which have lasted for centuries (or so it seems) because they are needed for governance rather than because of how well they have been working.

Archivists who may someday labor in reinvented organizations face a number of interesting issues. Osborne and Gaebler contend that "in today's world, public institutions also need the flexibility to respond to complex and rapidly changing conditions. This is difficult if policy makers can use only one method—services produced by their own bureaucracy."[28] Archives, as well as records management programs, have often functioned as if they have a large amount of time by which to respond to needs. Archivists often have slow, clunky devices by which to retrieve information from their holdings, and records managers often employ highly labor intensive devices by which to schedule, store, and retrieve records. Records management programs have often been adverse to respond to public needs, while archivists have often defined their clients as only the public, losing sight of the services they may or should provide to the records creators.[29]

The reinvented organization also requires that the archivist re-think his or her role, real and potential. Osborne and Gaebler note that "there are very few services traditionally provided by the public sector that are not today provided somewhere by the private sector—and vice versa."[30] This is not at all a new idea, but it is one which probably has far more implications today than it did even just a few years ago. Rising dissatisfaction with the services of present organizations and a growing realization of the inadequacies of such organizations has created an environment where experimentation and new competition is very probable, not just possible. Archivists, in state government for example, want to be taken seriously as providing services for the ongoing, practical administration of such government, but there is plenty of competition for the kinds of information services that state archives can provide, including state libraries, bibliographic utilities that all agencies can use, other commercial information services, and, especially, information technology and policy boards making decisions about the use of electronic information technology for record keeping purposes. Records management can be sourced out even now. This leaves the unsettling prospects that state archives might be reduced to a general cultural role, a paper museum. Even here, however, museums have tended to provide this kind of service in better and more meaningful fashion.

Archivists need, instead, to re-examine such prospects and, rather than viewing them as a threat, they need to see them as an opportunity. Osborne and Gaebler note that "when governments contract with private businesses, both conservatives and liberals often talk as if they are shifting a fundamental public responsibility to the private sector. This is nonsense: they are shifting the delivery of services, not the responsibility for services."[31] State government archives

need to reconsider their services, and then they need to determine whether they must do them or whether they can be sourced out. State archives need to reinvent themselves as regulatory agencies, and they must cease thinking that they must do everything. If they can gain the flexibility to use their funding in more creative fashions, then they probably will be able to do far more than they have with such funds in the past. Since their funding support is unlikely to increase in any appreciable manner, using some guiding principles such as offered by reinventing an organization may be the only real sensible alternative. And since governments are likely to adopt more competitive modes in the future, state archives must reconsider how they can compete in meaningful ways.

Archivists working for reinvented organizations need to consider very seriously how they measure their success. Osborne and Gaebler note that "public entrepreneurs know that when institutions are funded according to inputs, they have little reason to strive for better performance. But when they are funded according to outcomes, they become obsessive about performance."[32] If this is true for any archives, little description of such performance exists. It is inevitable that reinvented organizations will ultimately ask for their archives to suggest appropriate measures, or they will be given measures to achieve. Archivists will need to do much better than state we had x-number of researchers visit the repository, and they will, instead, have to come up with responses more along the lines of having provided information crucial to the solving of certain problems, enabled the meeting of real information needs, or achieving a full documentation of certain functions, trends, or special activities.[33] A new level of accountability will inevitably come. It is viewed by some archivists that accountability is precisely the business that archivists are meant to be performing, as suggested by the increasing array of writings about records for accountability purposes.[34] As Osborne and Gaebler note, "words like *accountability*, *performance*, and *results* have begun to ring through the halls of government. Luckily, we now have the technology needed to make such words mean something. We can generate, analyze, and communicate a thousand times more information than we could just a generation ago, for a fraction of the cost."[35] Records management for accountability, evidence, and corporate memory certainly fit with this. Archivists and their programs will be judged by their ability to support this, among other things ensuring that the information their repositories contain can be made readily available. Archivists need to stress the integrity of the record, its appropriate management, and the ongoing need for records by the organization.[36]

Perhaps the biggest challenge to archivists in the reinvented organization is the reality of how the concept of re-invention is being used. Here, we again see the proverbial, often trite, notion that in challenges come opportunities. It is no secret that the Clinton-Gore administration is a great supporter of the Osborne and Gaebler thesis. Vice President Al Gore's National Performance Review report on the federal government is a reiteration and application of the Osborne and Gaebler book.[37] This report has a dangerous message for archivists. While a significant part of the report concerns streamlining federal recordkeeping, it contains virtually no mention of the National Archives or the archival and records management functions. The irony of this is that archivists and, especially, records managers have long been in the position to make suggestions that

could streamline federal recordkeeping, but they have been more content to strive to manage the massive records being created. Is it not an irony that when the present administration wants to expand the federal government's use of electronic information technology which supports the basic reinventing of this government, that the National Archives with its Center for Electronic Records is built on an old centralized model and has resisted the expansion of the definition of electronic records to include electronic mail. Was the slow search process for a new Archivist of the United States the result of a less than spectacular Clinton appointments process or a reflection that this administration already has tagged this agency as an obstacle to its efforts?

Archivists who seek to reinvent their own programs can draw many suggestions from *Reinventing Government*. At one point its authors provide this description of the government worker: "Many employees in bureaucratic governments feel trapped. Tied down by rules and regulations, numbed by monotonous tasks, assigned jobs they know could be accomplished in half the time if they were only allowed to use their minds, they live lives of quiet desperation."[38] I contend that this description fits many archivists today, and I also submit that much of this is the doing of archivists themselves. Archivists have often tended to define their jobs by only the most routine and time-consuming of work—arrangement and description—while they have often done less about the more important and intellectually stimulating of their functions, especially appraisal. We need to ask ourselves if we are hiring bright individuals, but assigning them virtually clerical duties, or hiring individuals who exhibit more interest in clerical responsibilities. Some of this attitude may be that archivists often reflect thinking more in tune with the older industrial era office, stressing tasks and division of labor, out of which the earliest archives and records management programs emerged.[39]

Osborne and Gaebler argue that "Most public organizations are driven not by their missions, but by their rules and their budgets. They have a rule for everything that could conceivably go wrong and a line item for every subcategory of spending in every unit of every department. The glue that holds public bureaucracies together, in other words, is like epoxy: it comes in two separate tubes. One holds rules, the other line items. Mix them together and you get cement."[40] Apart from the fact that many archival programs in government reflect this problem, many archival programs in other kinds of organizations also show such characteristics. Monitoring discussions on the various listserves which feature discussion about archival arrangement and description reflect this to a certain extent. For the past decade we have developed a basic bibliographic standard and related rules to support this standard, but we have also seen such rules and standards applied in ways that reflect a deeper misunderstanding of what archival arrangement and description ought to be doing. A recent discussion about using the MARC AMC format to item-catalog photographs is but one of many such examples; item-cataloging any archival records defies logic unless the archives parent organization needs it done or if the archives has run out of any other tasks needed to be done (which is very unlikely). Many of our archival programs are waist-deep in concrete which they have mixed and poured themselves, and the professional staff of such programs need to rethink what they are doing, which means rethinking their mission. Will item-cataloging photographs really fulfill any repository's mission? Or, is it really the

result of some individual archivist's personal, scholarly interests? Osborne and Gaebler argue that in order to develop mission-ruled organizations we first "scrape off the dead weight of accumulated rules, regulations, and obsolete activities."[41]

Re-evaluating an archives' mission has become a major activity of many such programs in the United States in the past decade or so. It may be, however, that we have tended to go about such work in the wrong fashion. Osborne and Gaebler state that "clarity of mission may be the single most important asset for a government organization."[42] But how clear can archival missions be when it is obvious that archives tend to be low-profile, often misunderstood organizations? The authors note that "public organizations work best when they have one clear mission."[43] But archival programs often possess an ungainly mix of cultural mission and service orientation, along with a confused sense of who they are serving. Part of the source of this problem derives from the fact that archivists have often seemed unable to change their mission, layering one old mission and traditional function or activity after another even as the larger organizational context of their operations has changed. Reinvented organizations are run by entrepreneurs and "entrepreneurs are people who fail many times,"[44] and archivists often either lack the entrepreneurial spirit or the opportunities to display it.

Osborne and Gaebler spend an entire chapter on their sense that government has lost sight of its customers. While we are a society that expects "products and services customized to our styles and tastes," it is nevertheless true that "traditional public institutions still offer one-size-fits-all services."[45] Archivists have been in a similar quandary. They do not really have a full understanding of their users' needs, yet they continue to expend *great* efforts and resources on designing systems for access to their holdings. How can this be? Is it, perhaps, that in their race to standardize archival arrangement and description, archivists are in fact offering such one-size-fits-all services? The eventual outcomes might be disturbing. Osborne and Gaebler write that "in a world in which cable television systems have 50 channels, banks let their customers do business by phone, and even department stores have begun to customize their services for the individual, bureaucratic, unresponsive, one-size-fits-all government cannot last."[46] And, do I need to add, this government might take its archives with it?

Perhaps the most important issues for archivists presented in the *Reinventing Government* treatise are the ideas of "anticipatory" and "decentralized" government. Osborne and Gaebler describe the original orientation of government to coping with problems. They argue for anticipatory governments which do two things: "they use an ounce of prevention, rather than a pound of cure; and they do everything possible to build foresight into their decision making."[47] I have argued already that archivists spend too much time when they do appraisal, thinking about future use, and I am sure this will strike some as seeming to be contrary to the notion of anticipatory government. I do not think it is, at all. When archivists speak of appraising for future use or when they discuss working for future users, it is most commonly utilized as a poor rationale for their appraisal decisions. They do not understand enough about their present users to be able to build a foundation for predicting what will happen. In fact, archivists tend to be notorious reactors to problems. Their institutions and

their functions, even in the light of massive uses of electronic information technology, seem not to have changed very much over the past century.

Decentralization of programs is also discussed by the authors of *Reinventing Government* as an essential aspect for future government agencies. The notion of decentralization probably sends shivers up the spines of archivists. Archivists have spent most of their careers building programs that centralize record keeping functions. Osborne and Gaebler paint a different future for government and organizations on their canvas. They write that "fifty years ago centralized institutions were indispensable," especially as "there was plenty of time for information to flow up the chain of command and decisions to flow back down."[48] Now, because of better information systems, better-educated staff, and other factors, we see decisions being made at all different levels and by many different types of employees. We also see new kinds of team work and different roles or the elimination of middle managers in order to allow organizations to become more innovative and entrepreneurial and, as well, closer to the customer. If archivists do not participate in making their functions more decentralized, then they may become obstacles, and obstacles in the reinvented organization are more apt to be eliminated than they are to be tolerated.

Has there been any response by the archival community in the United States to such ideas as re-inventing and reengineering the organization? Not surprisingly the one response has come from archivists involved in managing electronic record keeping systems. In a recent and stimulating essay by David Bearman and Margaret Hedstrom, these authors take the concept of reinventing and examine it from the perspective of electronic archives management. They initially consider the reasons why current, conventional archival methods have failed in the management of such record keeping systems, and then they present what the reinvented archives must look like. It is worth summarizing their latter discussion. Some of their suggestions are as follows:

- archival agencies monitor and provide oversight "while assigning responsibility to agencies for achieving adequately documented functions and programs"
- archival agencies "engage their communities in solving archival problems, then they can rely more on their communities to achieve mutually desired ends"
- archival agencies become more enterprising and "endorse strategies that turn the profit motive to public use, raise money by charging fees for some services, and spend money to save money in the long run through investments that pay a return"
- archival agencies develop "more relevant and responsive services that are oriented to the needs of customers"
- archival agencies become "more effective and more productive" by decentralizing their operations.[49]

What is important to understand from the Bearman and Hedstrom argument is not that they are stressing ideas just to make archival programs better but, that in the case of electronic records, they are describing changes that must occur *if* they are to be successful.

Whether you buy into such notions popularized by these best-selling books or not or adopt and use some other schemes, I believe they reflect one fundamental truth about corporations and government—the two most dominant institu-

tions in modern society: they *are* changing, they *will* change, and they *will continue* changing for quite a while. This means that archivists must also adopt and adapt in order to play an effective role in such institutions. Moreover, society is also changing.

Society, Changes, and Archivy: Some Speculations

We must also look to society for the manner in which the archivist will appear in the next century. Historian Warren Sussman noted that "since culture shapes experience, it obviously shapes the way we respond to new technologies and new media [major issues for the archivist]; it shapes the anticipations we have of them and of the world in which we live."[50] This is certainly not a new idea, but it is one archivists must always keep in mind as they consider the future of archival work. The books on reinventing and reengineering—both sets of authors arguing that they discovered and did not formulate the principles they describe—are reflections of a new late twentieth century society. There are other factors worth considering. What I have described below is merely one preliminary checklist of factors that will affect the future of the archival profession and, more importantly, the archival mission.

The increasing use of electronic information technology will bring a greater awareness about fundamental archival issues and concerns. As organizations and society make the transition from traditional paper-oriented record keeping systems to electronic systems, concern will be heightened about the continuing management of such records, access and privacy, the notion of a record, and other such basic issues that have long been the province and interest of archivists. For the past two decades we have seen a cascade of books raising concern about computer use, ethics, and misuse, and we can now see a flow of interest to more basic issues about the management of electronic records, including a shift from a stress on information to a stress on the record. Will an individual's social security records be secure and preserved as long as needed? Will an individual's personal credit history be open and easily tampered? Will electronic mail transmissions be scrutinized by unknown parties? There is no question that such issues will continue to stimulate interest in archival matters, but there is a question whether archivists will be the ones managing such issues in the future. There will be an increased development of institutional archives, although they will look different than the ones we now have, in a wider array of organizational types than we have ever had in the United States. And archives will be thought less of as curiosities and quaint distractions and more of as essential sources for the administration of organizations and the well-being of society. An added result will be that archivists will have a more prominent role in their organizations, holding posts on important work and management teams.

Archivists will be hired because of what they know (their educational backgrounds), not because of what they have done (where they have worked). I firmly believe that the great debate about education that has persisted for so long will be over, or at least so transformed as to be barely recognizable, not long into the twenty-first century. The major programs hiring archivists will look for knowledge as their primary consideration, and they might even dismiss experience as meaningful at all because they will see the experience as largely irrelevant to their needs (this, too, will obviously change). This means that the nature

of people who constitute the archival profession will also change. They will probably be less oriented to the humanities perspective, possess more degrees in basic management and technical sciences, and be less concerned with "collecting" and more involved in the orderly accumulation of evidence. This means there will be a fundamental break between manuscript curator types and organizational archivists; the curatorial types will become more a part of the museum community and play a lesser role in the issues of documenting society or any particular kinds of organizations. This will be a painful process, but in the end the *archival* profession will be strengthened.

Archivists will possess a legitimate research literature supporting their knowledge. When archivists in the twenty-first century encounter a problem they will be able to turn to a more substantial research literature which will provide some answers or, at the least, suggestions for what they need to do. And this will not occur because archivists want more respect, like to do research (which it appears they do not), have extra time on their hands, or believe this is important to their image; they will do it because their employers and society expect it to be done. Most of this research will relate to the administration of archives, assisting the archivist to become more accountable to their organizations and to society. We will know what it costs to preserve an archival record and, just as significant, we will know what it costs an institution or society when an archival record and its evidence is lost. When they cannot find relevant research they will develop research on their own or commission research projects to be done. This will be the result of a better educated archival community (better educated in the sense that they will be more strongly grounded in archival principles and methodology) and a stronger synergy between archival programs and archival educational venues. Research will enable the archivists to make stronger cases in their own organizations, as well as to testify before federal regulatory bodies and in legal cases. Research will also assist archivists to contribute to scholarship in a manner in which they have not in the past. They will be more interdisciplinary in scope, and the work of archivists will be of appeal to other disciplines (especially librarians, information scientists, communications researchers, and historians, to name a few). The breadth of archival reading will expand, while the number of people who read what archivists write will also expand because archivists will have more to say.

Archivists will have a stronger international orientation. This has already happened in certain aspects of the archival profession, and it will continue to happen because we are becoming a more international rather than national society. Whereas in the past the archival profession tended to attend international meetings mostly to describe what was going on in their respective countries, in the future we will see archivists from many nations working together to resolve joint problems and to meet common challenges. This will not be unlike what has long characterized the sciences. It has already happened in the realm of electronic records management, where the common issues have brought together archivists from all over the world to labor on solutions and approaches. We will see more of this, spurred on by the ease of communication via electronic highways and the closing gap in the differences between the nature of archival education in the various nations, as well as the complete acceptance of standardized ways of doing archival functions.

Archivists will have a more prominent role in the constellation of information professions. The information professions are trendy occupations, but organizations and society deem them to be important to their well-being. Library schools want to make sure that they include "information" in their titles. Professional associations want to make sure that their names reflect that they are involved with information. We have the information highways. We have researchers who are information-literate. There are the information haves and have-nots. We even have a presidential administration which seeks to use the information networks. Now, define, precisely and concisely, what "information" means to these different professions and institutions, and you will generally get either fuzzy responses or such a mixed bag of responses that the composite meaning will be rather fuzzy. Still, archivists will have a more precise role because they have a more logical focus—the evidence of organizational and individual activity. Because the organization will struggle to make sense out of all the information it will receive, the archivist's sharper focus will assist the organization to have a better focus—and the archivist will have a better and more prominent role in the discussions about information and its management.

Researchers using archival sources will expect and receive speedy access to archival holdings. Again, this is a societal change; all of society has sped up and those segments that cannot, or will not, will be transformed or eliminated. While archival bibliographic standards have not been constructed with the ease of the researcher in mind, the pioneering work of the past thirty years, particularly the last fifteen, has provided a foundation for the archivist to be more receptive to researchers' needs and demands. We have one clear study of the changing expectations of researchers in the electronic world,[51] and even if we suspect for a moment that the innovative uses of archival sources represent a very minor portion of all current research, there is still no reason why this will not become the norm. Archivists will provide remote access to their holdings, even quickly scanning in documents requested from long distances. The only limitations will be the equipment of the researchers on the receiving end, and given the rapidly falling prices of such equipment even this will not be that significant a factor in the near future. Archivists may cease counting the number of requests as a measure of the value of their holdings and, instead, they might use speed of meeting requests or the geographic spread of their research clientele as the basis for effectiveness measures.

Is there a linchpin in these characteristics? What will be the most important element for archivists to have in place as the new century approaches? In my estimation it is education, or, what archivists know. Much of what archivists will face in the years ahead will require new strategies, ideas, methods, and a healthy dose of imagination and risk-taking. Educated archivists are the key to this. They need to be well-versed in archival theory and methodology, with some orientation to practice. The Society of American Archivists (SAA) Committee on Education and Professional Development's (CEPD) new education guidelines calling for a Master of Archival Studies degree start us in the right direction. Depending on how quickly the American archival community embraces the MAS degree concept, creating degree programs, supporting individuals attending such programs, and hiring them will be major factors in how well prepared the archival profession will be to grapple with the demands of the twenty-first century. As I have commented in a previous essay,[52] the MAS

degree guidelines will enable archivists to accomplish a number of important activities, including the development of a full and coherent plan for archival education on all levels, fostering its own knowledge base, enabling a better initial preparation of entry-level archivists into the increasingly standardized work of the archivist, and setting our sights on the proper credential for entry into and advancement in the archival profession. It is, after all, in such education programs (and the better continuing education venues that will naturally follow), that prospective and practicing archivists will be introduced to works such as those by Osborne and Gaebler and Hammer and Champy as means of rethinking how the archival mission can be kept current in our ever-changing world.

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NOTES

1. Andrew Abbott, *The System of Professions* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1988), p. 318.
2. See Vincent E. Giuliano, "The Mechanization of Office Work," *Scientific American* 247 (September 1982): 149-164 for some discussion of various stages of the office. The author identifies traits of the preindustrial, industrial, and information age office. The basic precepts of American archival practice were developed during the heyday of the industrial age office, with a focus on the organization of people "to serve the needs of a rigid production system and its machines" (p. 158).
3. This is an essential argument of Andrew Abbott in his *The System of Professions.*
4. In fact, we can find few examples of speculations about the future work of the archivist in the literature of the profession. Frank G. Burke, "The Future Course of Archival Theory in the United States." *American Archivist* 44 (Winter 1981): 40-46 is the more typical of what sorts of speculation we have, but it is really a call to develop a new theoretical base. The essay generated extensive response, but these responses became even more inwardly focused on professional knowledge, the identity and image of the archivist, and the validity of theory versus practice. Another type of prediction has been the essays written about the impact of information technology on the archivist and archival profession, such as Richard M. Kesner, "Automated Information Management: Is There A Role for the Archivist in the Office of the Future?" *Archivaria* 19 (Winter 1984/85): 162-72. While these essays have drawn more on external trends, they too have been more inward-focused in their content.
5. In this essay I have not provided extensive citations to the relevant archival literature in an effort to focus on several important books outside this professional literature that possess significant implications for the profession. I am also assuming that this literature is sufficiently known. My own best summary of recent archival literature concerned with such matters can be found in my *American Archival Analysis: The Recent Development of the Archival Profession in the United States* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1990).
6. (New York: Harper Business, 1994).
7. *Reengineering,* p. 2.
8. *Reengineering,* p. 16.
9. *Reengineering,* p. 18.
10. *Reengineering,* p. 25.

11. *Reengineering,* p. 32.
12. *Reengineering,* pp. 33-35.
13. *Reengineering,* p. 49.
14. *Reengineering,* p. 90.
15. *Reengineering,* p. 105.
16. *Reengineering,* p. 51.
17. *Reengineering,* pp. 51-64.
18. *Reengineering,* p. 77.
19. *Reengineering,* p. 64.
20. My observation about this is based on my more than twenty years in the profession, a paucity of literature that has such an edge (beyond writings of individuals such as David Bearman, Terry Cook, Timothy Ericson, Margaret Hedstrom, and Helen Samuels), consulting experiences, and attendance at institutes, workshops, and conferences. The real evidence for this may be in the Society of American Archivists' recently published Archival Fundamental Series (1990-1994). While this series aims to build consensus about common principles and practices, it fails to provide any sense of change or the need for change.
21. *Reengineering,* p. 71.
22. (New York: Plume Books, 1992).
23. *Reinventing,* p. xix.
24. *Reinventing,* pp. 11-12.
25. *Reinventing,* p. 14.
26. *Reinventing,* p. 15.
27. *Reinventing,* pp. 19-20.
28. *Reinventing,* p. 34.
29. By this, I mean that records managers tend to identify most with meeting the needs of the records creators, such as stressing only scheduling records based on legal requirements (and even out of the fear of being implicated in litigation because certain records had been retained). Archivists, on the other hand, have mostly stressed the cultural or historical values of their records and of their broader mission. I have explored this issue in two of my recent essays, "The Record: Is It Evolving?" *Records & Retrieval Report* 10 (March 1994) and "What's In A Name? Archives As a Multi-Faceted Term in the Information Professions," *Records & Retrieval Report* 11 (March 1995).
30. *Reinventing,* p. 43.
31. *Reinventing,* p. 47.
32. *Reinventing,* p. 139.
33. This is not a new or radical suggestion. One can find in Bruce W. Dearstyne's "What Is the *Use* of Archives? A Challenge for the Profession," *American Archivist* 50 (Winter 1987): 76-87 some of the same issues. However, as a profession, we have either not done this type of information gathering about the use of our records or we have done a poor job of reporting it (both to society and to our own profession).
34. The most convenient summary of this is David Bearman, *Electronic Evidence* (Pittsburgh: Archives and Museum Informatics, 1994).
35. *Reinventing,* p. 141.
36. See, for example, David Bearman, "Archival Data Management to Achieve Organizational Accountability for Electronic Records," *Archives and Manuscripts* 21, no. 1 (1993): 14-28, the best introduction to this and an essay raising many of the kinds of issues discussed by the authors of the re-inventing and reengineering texts.
37. Al Gore, *From Red Tape to Results: Creating a Government That Works Better & Costs Less: Report of the National Performance Review* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, September 1993).
38. *Reinventing,* p. 38.
39. The continued dependence by many archivists conducting appraisal on organizational charts suggests this. The best recent example of this traditional approach is William Maher, *The Management of College and University Archives* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1992).
40. *Reinventing,* p. 110.
41. *Reinventing,* p. 114.
42. *Reinventing,* p. 130.
43. *Reinventing,* p. 131.
44. *Reinventing,* p. 135.

45. *Reinventing,* p. 168.
46. *Reinventing,* p. 194.
47. *Reinventing,* p. 222.
48. *Reinventing,* p. 250.
49. "Reinventing Archives for Electronic Records: Alternative Service Delivery Options," in Margaret Hedstrom, ed., *Electronic Records Management Program Strategies* (Pittsburgh: Archives and Museum Informatics, 1993), pp. 82-98.
50. *Culture as History: The Transformation of American Society in the Twentieth Century* (New York: Pantheon Books, 1984), p. 256.
51. Avra Michelson and Jeff Rothenberg, "Scholarly Communication and Information Technology: Exploring the Impact of Changes in the Research Process on Archives," *American Archivist* 55 (Spring 1992): 236-315.
52. "The Master of Archival Studies and American Education Standards: An Argument for the Continued Development of Graduate Archival Education in the United States," *Archivaria* 36 (Autumn 1993): 221-31.

ARCHIVAL ADVOCACY: REFLECTIONS ON MYTHS AND REALITIES

ELSIE FREEMAN FINCH

ABSTRACT: Archival advocacy and public relations is a daily activity. Our publics already have an opinion about us, and that opinion is a reflection of the quality of our service and products. In other words, we practice public relations now whether or not we do so consciously. To do it well, we must understand what public relations is and how to integrate it with traditional archival functions. Advocacy, not the implementation of traditional functions, is now the core activity of the archives, but certain misconceptions about how advocacy operates and how we should practice it often prevent us from advocating. Once these misconceptions are laid aside, archivists can practice advocacy, ensuring long-term identification and preservation of, and access to, archives. When archivists understand and practice their role as advocates, certain other changes will take place affecting funding, education and training, products, programs, and collaboration which will further benefit archival institutions and the profession. This essay was originally presented as the keynote address at the MAC Fall meeting, October 6, 1994, in Saint Paul, Minnesota.

As a trustee of the Tompkins County (NY) Public Library, I have come to know the staff, and it is Roger Garrison, head of reference, who has caught my attention. Walking into the library recently for my weekly book infusion, I saw Garrison alone at his desk, without customers. One might think that he would have used this quiet moment to research a telephone question, shuffle papers, or even sneak a look at a recent novel. Instead, I watched him stand, look around the room, and call out in a commanding voice, "Is there anyone out there who needs help?"

Garrison's call to aid astounded me; I have waited thirty years to hear an archivist ask that question with the same vigor and sense of participation. We talked about it later. Garrison suggests that there are two schools of reference in his field: the *reservoir school* and the *fountain school.* Reservoir school advocates maintain a precious, exclusive well into which they invite paddlers and other amateurs, assuring them that they, the experts, will be on the shore, ready to jump in should drowning seem imminent. Fountain school advocates, on the other hand, consider theirs a public pool. Let's all get in and splash, they say, learn from each other, welcome each other to the pool. Garrison acknowledges with great cheer that he belongs to the fountain school.

As a fountain school advocate, he also exemplifies the role that one person can play as advocate for the library as an institution. He understands intuitively that he is the library, and that customer service is his particular mission. He is born to the role, but he knows also that it can be learned. He recognizes that he alone cannot save the library from the fiscal savagery that now endangers every public institution; that will require the combined efforts of all staff members, the library director, and the trustees, as well as carefully selected advocates in the community.

But he knows that his stance makes a difference. He understands that we practice public relations or advocacy daily—whether or not we do it right and whether or not we have planned it. Intentional or not, we have relations with our publics and we advocate, or fail to advocate, for archives every moment of our professional lives.

That is the first premise of this essay: that our many publics already have an opinion about our service and our significance. That opinion can change or remain the same, depending on our awareness and efforts. How it was formed is less relevant to us than the fact that it exists and that it can be reconstructed. Every time we respond to a reference question in person or on the telephone, every time we talk with a director, a university treasurer, a state legislator, board chairperson, county representative, or other resource allocator, we advocate or fail to do so. Every time we work with a donor, a county or town clerk, with a probable customer—a teacher, film maker, novelist, scientist or medical person, for example—we advocate or we do not. Every time we talk to the passerby who may eventually be the legislator, donor, or user-beyond-the walls, we establish, for good or bad, our public relations. If we do not get the attention we want at budget hearings, in the community, or with other publics crucial to our success, let us be clear that we come to them already encumbered with their perception of us, ranging from negative to neutral to positive. Those perceptions are based largely on interactions with them, either failed or successful, that occur every day at staff, professional, managerial, and policy levels.

At the level of policy, of ordering the work of the archives, the picture broadens. Our traditional view that the core work of the archivist is the arrangement and description of records was a workable view during the infancy of this profession. Today that view must be redefined in the light of present fiscal, technological, and consumer requirements. Acquisition, arrangement, description, and reference are still important functions, but they are no longer the ultimate goal of an archives. They are instrumental, not final. The ultimate archival function is to create programs that, as former New York State Archivist Larry Hackman said, "will ensure the identification, preservation and accessibility of archives for years to come."[1] To do this, we must shift our focus on records to a focus on customer relations, marketing, and long term program, seeking the support that these programs require. For this, we need a market orientation, the sense and the skills to find out what our constituencies want, to negotiate the differences, and to use those constituencies as advocates for us. Basic archival functions are important on a day to day basis, and they reinforce our relations with our many publics. But they must now be seen as conduits to, instruments of, our central function: the preservation of programs and archival institutions. And they must be seen as the job of every person in the institution, from the staff support person to the director of the archives. This, then, is the second premise: that the

central function of archives management and staff today is the preservation and broadening of the program. We do this by understanding that advocacy is daily, done by each staff member, continually.

Between the playing out of these two ideas—that the individual archivist or staff person affects public relations and that our basic function as archivists has changed from that of facilitator of research to preservers of program—lie a number of misconceptions, myths, and avoidances worth being discussed here.

Principal among these misconceptions is the view that public relations, or advocacy as we now prefer to call it, is an overlay of trickery, slick techniques, and flimflam best done by people we would prefer not to know well. Public relations in its professional sense is none of these. It is not about persuading people to do what their better selves would resist; it is not about P.T. Barnum and 'this way to the egress.' So far as our work is concerned, public relations is less concerned with what archivists do in their work, apart from their public and professional stance, than with what the information in records and the services of archivists can do for the public. That public is our customer; our customer wants service and results.

Nor is public relations a matter of media attention alone. Among its many aspects are fund raising activities, increasingly through private sources, that require a careful analysis of the quality and kind of service your archives provides; recruiting and working with volunteers, if these are useful to you, who provide access to the larger community; marketing archival services through exhibits, public outreach programs, and community service; collaborating with other institutions in the community to do what none can do alone; and working with radio, television, and print media on both good and bad news. It is reflected in top drawer reference service, staff at all levels trained to respond well to the many publics they meet each day; publications and advertisements that speak clearly to the public at which they are aimed and whose tone and appearance reflect the best view of the institution; and in active relations with allied professional organizations, many of them new to us. When we seek advocates and intermediaries to speak for us, when we build constituencies, when we plan, implement, and evaluate all of our programs from acquisition through access with a view to how the public will respond to them, we are advocating archives.

Nor is public relations primarily about raising money, though that may be high on our minds. It is longer ranging, more intentional, and more cumulative than the one-shot or once-a-year fund raising campaign, or the pursuit of funds from one's principal resource allocator. A useful operational definition of public relations might go something like this: Good public relations requires that we assess public attitudes toward our archives, keeping those views in mind as we make policy and procedural decisions. It requires that we seek to know how those decisions affect public opinion and that we choose the best possible channels to make them comprehensible to the public. Good public relations seeks advocates and intermediaries at all levels to speak for our programs, and it takes a long view, anticipating problems and searching out opportunities to preserve and advance the archival program.

In other words, make the customer the center of your program, understanding that the customer is at the heart of a constituency or is a potential change agent. Then, without compromising your professional standards, make clear to these constituencies and change agents in terms they understand and in a venue which

is comfortable to them, how you serve them. Customer satisfaction and constituent support in the interest of preserving the program—this is what public relations is about. We are all in this fountain together, as Roger Garrison would put it.

Seen from this perspective, it is easy to see the role of the traditional archival functions. We acquire, arrange, describe, and make records available *so that they will be used.* They will be used by customers who may be in the search room, in the classroom or at a distance learning station, in the exhibition hall, at home reading the publication, on Internet or in some situation using a device yet to be invented. In some private part of our minds, we may see ourselves pursuing these tasks in the interests of the priceless heritage, the timelessness of knowledge, the aura of elegance. But in terms of program survival and advancement, we do it for the customer.

In the past ten or more years, it has become clear that many archivists understand the imperative of advocacy and do an excellent job of it. They understand that support of all kinds for the continuation of the program is their primary job. Not the records—the program. One sees this in increasing press coverage of archival activity of all kinds—not scandal and controversy alone, but the ingenious ways in which archivists present programs, raise funds, seek new constituencies, and assume policy making roles in their institutions that are entirely new to them. This is advocacy, and many of us do it astonishingly well.

We have also begun to understand that we cannot do everything, although we can plan almost everything. The archivist who has begun a public relations program for his/her archives, who sees the public relations potential in every archival function, who plans advocacy, preserves the program today and advances it tomorrow. It is this attitude—that there are constituent prospects in everything that happens every day in the archives—and planning that are the basic ingredients of any public relations program. If you can only cultivate one new constituency this year, if you can write a strategic plan that engages your entire staff and can be presented to your resource allocators, if that strategic plan contains one or two goals directly aimed at better public relations, if you can become a main player in one or two collaborations, or on one or two institution-wide committees, you have begun. *Plan* and *start* are the operative words.

And how do we reach that psychological nirvana? By understanding, first, what public relations and advocacy are and are not, then by ridding ourselves of some of the more garden variety of misunderstandings and mindsets. Among these: *I do not have time for public relations. I have too much other work to do.*

To say that you do not have time to build or respond to constituencies is to suggest that you do not have time to breathe the air or take nourishment. As a colleague said bluntly, suggesting that you do not have time to build support lends entirely new meaning to the term "professional suicide."

Public relations is not an add-on; it is, fortunately, a constant. It permeates every traditional activity, and requires a willingness to anticipate, plan, and integrate. For example, when you develop your annual work plan, consider how you will publicize and build upon those activities. When you acquire a collection, ask yourself what kinds of programs, advertising, or media coverage you or your staff can produce to publicize it, and to what new constituencies it can be publicized. When you help a community group establish their own historical society, when you receive a major grant or gift, when you talk with a well

known novelist or scientist or public eminence using your collection, enlist that organization or individual to speak for you in other venues. When you acquire a collection of high general interest, ask yourself what publics, both scholarly and general, it might serve, in what formats it can be publicized to them, and how that publicity can also describe the larger role of your archives. When you talk to a donor, tell him or her how that collection can be used, how you will encourage that use, and what is entailed in preparing it for use. Eat lunch with a resource allocator, development officer, or institutional public relations person. Require your board of trustees to speak for your institution in public and political situations. Use them as your advocate, your intermediary; it is one of the most important jobs a board can do. Give them salient facts and figures, and send them into the streets on your behalf.

Public relations is done continually, not, as many think, when everything else is done. It is an ongoing, integrated activity, planned at the outset but thereafter capitalizing on every opportunity. It is done when it fits your program objectives, at any time in the progress of your program, and at all times. A newspaper column about an interesting item in your holdings, a tour of your unfinished new building, lined with boxes, accompanied by a request for help, a project with a neighborhood association to publish an historical calendar, a talk to a local club: these can be done at any time in your work year. They do not depend on the perfection of your processing or the completeness of your finding aids. *In progress* may be your best stance, providing visibility, a sense that yours is an ongoing, active program that is responsive to public interests.

Most importantly, public relations is not a series of one-time, episodic, disassociated events, though if that is all you can do to start, do so. It is a program, like your descriptive program, your conservation program, your automated records management program. Perhaps unlike those programs, it is part of each, giving a point of view and connection to all of the work of your archives over the work plan year. Unlike one-time events, which usually do not provide a return equal to their outlay and may have insufficient visibility, programs built on ongoing, daily activities create their own momentum, making in turn more opportunities and providing more return.

Integrated public relations is a mind set, one that says that every traditional operation of my archives is the instrumentality of advocacy, whose aim is to preserve and enlarge my programs. My job is to identify the potential, then use it; the time is minimal, the perspective and the planning are critical.

Another pervasive and limiting misconception: *We do public relations only to increase funding*. No solid evidence exists that good public relations increases funding. But it is clear from the experience of museums, libraries, and other cultural institutions that if you do not pay attention to public relations, your funding will either stay the same or, more likely, decline. This is probably truer in the present predatory fiscal climate than it has ever before been. Resource allocators as well as our publics expect visibility. This suggests that such abstractions as research statistics and numbers of collections described per quarter cannot alone support our budgets. Visible results of research—products—do persuade. When the New York State Archives, for example, sought to convince one of their overseers, the board of regents, of the impact of their work, they brought in secondary school teachers and their students to talk about what using records in the classroom had taught them. NYSARA did not depend upon this

device alone; they produced statistics where statistics had meaning, but they also understood the function of people talking to people about results. They spoke to the regents in their own language—that of the public and public education. It was a presentation that had been preceded by a great deal of planning and product development with a view not only to serving a specialized but very large public, but also making that service visible.

Another myth and constant thread: *Pursuing public relations will only increase the numbers of researchers I have. My staff cannot handle more researchers.* Good public relations is far more than numbers of customers in the search room, and increasing these numbers may not be your objective. Your objectives might include cultivating a given group of users, increasing acquisitions by targeting a particular group of likely donors, making your resource allocator more aware of your services. But if your efforts do encourage more users, consider some of your options. You can revamp your reference and service system by evaluating its efficiency with respect to the needs of your customers. Or, you can use your higher research statistics to get part of what you need from your resource allocators, or you can use your clientele as advocates to help you get resources. The American Library Association, under its resourceful Director of Communications, Peggy Barber, is adept at this, encouraging librarians to consider which of their customers might have influence with their resource allocators or are well enough known by the public to appeal to a wide audience on behalf of libraries. To forestall the most recent round of library closings in California, ALA with, very likely, the California Library Association, has televised public librarians discussing with well known writers the impact of the closings on national audiences. ALA has not come upon this device recently or accidentally. Rather, it understands the use of intermediaries who have been organized well in advance of crises.

A word on revamping reference service. For the most part, our reference service is geared to high intensity-low volume research. This may describe the research methods of the five to ten percent of our customers who are purely academic researchers, but it does not describe the approach of most of our clientele, who include lawyers, public policy planners, film makers, educators, and other professionals, many of whom are hired to do research and operate under strict timetables.[2] Adopting new reference styles that accommodate the research expectations of these customers may be the first move the archivist can make toward improving his/her public relations; current technologies will help this effort, though as we know, they need interpretation. In other words, by expediting service, providing electronic access to larger quantities and types of information beyond our own workstation, and giving the customer control over his or her research, we integrate public relations with a traditional archival function.[3] There is a large and intelligent literature on reference service that appears regularly in library journals, but almost never in our publications, a good indication of how much and how well we have thought about this crucial function.

Archivists also tend to think that *public relations is splashy, glamorous; I cannot afford it,* they say. Being aware of the many aspects of public relations, understanding its range, may help dispel this misunderstanding. Public relations in your institution can and must fit your resources; even the Smithsonian Institution or the National Archives feels pressed in their own sphere and must

plan expenditures carefully when public relations events cost money. But public relations can be simple. Conversations with your resource allocators cost nothing; conversations with reporters, though always enhanced by food, do not require it; tours for local groups, county or state representatives, do not require cash outlays. Simple document packages for schools can cost very little; more elaborate packages or interactive formats should require a charge to the buyer. Exhibits can be simple but handsome, and their cost can often be negotiated with corporations or public entities in whose space they might appear. You can launch elaborate programs such as major exhibits or exhibits that travel, festivals, or glossy publications. But daily public relations costs almost nothing: regular communication with resource allocators, cultivation of donors, simple reporting in local media, help to a public school, church, or historical society in organizing its records, reports to the public about services and products from your archives, created either by you or your clientele. A tight budget is not an excuse for bad public relations, though it may result from it. Money is not the issue in public relations of the sort we are discussing; mind set and planning are.

Still another confusion in the archival mind rests upon staffing. *I do not have staff for public relations,* one hears. *Anyway* (usually as an afterthought), *my institution has a public relations staff already. Why do my staff and I need to do what they do?* If your institution has a public relations professional already, that person is one of your constituencies. Perhaps a constituency of only one, that person is one you must cultivate. He or she, like much of the rest of the public, probably does not understand your holdings, their potential for the institution, or your services. It is not likely to occur naturally to your public relations person to include records in an institutional exhibit, to consider a publication including records or to help you make your services known internally, unless you suggest it and make specific recommendations. Talk regularly with that person, show him or her illustrations of significant research, the visits of notables to your search room, news about grants. Make your public relations professional one of your internal advocates, then capitalize on what he or she does for you.

What are the alternatives if you have no public relations professional nearby? You may have some of the requisite talents (if not, how would you have gone as far as you have?) but not all. Perhaps someone on your staff does have these skills, but has never been asked to exercise them. One writes good journalistic prose, another has taught elementary or secondary school, another makes excellent public presentations, a fourth is a good planner. One is a member of Rotary or Kiwanis; another is involved in local politics. Use these talents if you have not done so. *Advocating Archives: An Introduction to Public Relations for Archivists,* published in 1995 by the Society of American Archivists, was written entirely by archivists who were self taught or had some public relations experience. One was originally a fund raiser for a public relations firm who had taken a public service position in a state archives. Another was a journalist before she became the archivist of a private college; a third had taken her first full-time job, after years of voluntarism, as the coordinator of volunteers for a major public library. Assessing hitherto hidden staff skills, then reassigning work on the basis of a public relations priority, may be one of the few kinds of reorganization staff persons can enjoy: one that allows them public visibility, provides them with instant response, and invigorates them. It may also be the least costly way to do the job.

There are other alternatives. Archives in the United States and Canada are combining public service and reference positions, or have created public service positions whose incumbents are experienced in fund raising, event planning, publications, or other public relations activities. Often they are librarians or professionals who have worked in other cultural institutions, and understand the ethos. Like other professionals, including archivists, they learn the particulars of the corporate culture in which they are operating and proceed from there. Other archives managers have begun to consider the experience of prospective new hires apart from their archival background. Many archival techniques, even management, can be learned on-site, in continuing education courses, or in graduate school. But public relations skills are found in many professions; seek them out when you hire.

Finally there is the myth of isolation, one archivists cherish, to their detriment. *I do not know archivists who do public relations,* you say; *I do not do public relations, so who is doing it?* Many archivists practice public relations and advocacy, but do not call it that. They may produce a newsletter, provide material for a business group or a classroom, keep up a continuing dialogue with the university comptroller or state legislator—all public relations activities.

How do these activities differ from a public relations program? First, a program, whether it is a descriptive program, an acquisition program, or a public relations program, is planned and integrated with other functions. It may seize on chance opportunities, but it is never itself accidental or haphazard. Secondly, a public relations program is aimed at particular constituencies, not at an unidentified 'general public.' It is targeted, not scattershot. Thirdly, it fits archival objectives, whether to attract donors of money or records, users, or catch the attention of resource allocators. Intentionality, planning, and targeting are the operative characteristics of a good public relations program. It's the difference between grazing for a week and planning the menus for a week; between stopping by the used car shop and buying the first red van you see, and checking consumer magazines, then buying; between a program without direction, fraught with random and often costly activity, and one that is under your control. We all operate spontaneously some of the time, but a life that is entirely unplanned and unexamined is likely to be a wasted one; the same injunction applies to professional undertakings.

Certainly elements in your archival situation are not in your control and may jeopardize a successful public relations program. If you publicize a program or a series of events that do not happen, for example, you must compensate in some way. If the management of your institution is mendacious, contemptuous of the public, or simply incompetent, your best public relations are likely to be limited in their effect. If there is conflict within your institution which becomes public, affecting the public interest, if there is open disloyalty to upper management—moles on the staff—or if staff publicly impugn other staff, management, or your resource allocators during an emergency, for example, good public relations can only achieve the level of fence mending.

These situations operate at some time in most institutions and much of the time in a few. They provide all the more reason to pay attention to such simple matters as reevaluating your public service functions; thinking in terms of an ongoing acquisition, preservation, and customer relations program; building

constituencies wherever you find them; providing service and programs for all of those constituencies, whether they are customers in the search room, potential donors, or users beyond-the-walls; making clear to staff at every level that each has a role in their institution's future. That is, plan. Understand that many crises are avoidable by planning, but that some will nevertheless occur: the flood, the fire, the accident, the bad egg on the staff. Plan a scenario to deal with these exigencies before they happen. Only thus can you defend yourself and your program against forces over which you have little control.[4]

Let me return to my proposition that every archival function has public relations potential and can therefore be integrated into the program, rather than operating as a separate series of functions. We are all under pressure to learn about and adopt new technologies, technologies that are changing our understanding of traditional definitions and functions and altering communication in ways not seen since the invention of movable type. Many of us see this work overwhelming other activities, certainly overwhelming public relations activities. I suggest that this is not the case, that, in fact, if we become both active and influential in information technology planning in our institutions, we will be practicing excellent public relations. Let me illustrate.

I have recently become editor of a series of case studies to be used in archival training programs, graduate studies, and inservice programs on the management of electronic records and automated records management, a project undertaken by SAA under a grant from the National Historical Publications and Records Commission. Based on the actual experience of archivists in their institutions, these case studies tell me that installing technological improvements in archives, learning to deal with the archival issues raised by electronic records, and understanding the need to participate in the development of information policy in parent institutions have created ideal opportunities for archival advocacy. Archivists everywhere are talking with management, faculty, information technologists, and customers about what kinds of automated systems are needed to provide efficient information retrieval, internal and external accountability, and good archives; about new products for teaching and general public consumption, and about wider access to documentary sources. When they do this, they most certainly explain the value of records, their many uses, their capacity to engage and captivate, and the imperatives of sound archival management.

Admittedly, many archivists do not understand the need to position themselves to influence documentation policy and the value of coalition building, do not see that institutional information policy affects them, and it is a safe guess that their public relations in other quarters are not good. But the archivists who write these case studies most certainly do understand these imperatives, and the results are impressive.

One illustration will serve. The director of a rare book, manuscript, and archives department in a major university, now co-chair of the university-wide coalition on digital access, tells us how he got there. To begin, it was not by accident. He was an advocate for his archives in the university—he got into the streets—and he undertook the job because he recognized immediately that it was in the best interest of his department to be seen and to be an agent for change on his campus. He thinks advocacy. He now meets regularly with faculty who might never have used his materials, and with administrators of faculty

departments and officers of the university with whom he had never before worked. The result, he says, is that they now come to him for advice and information, not the reverse. They seek his advice on material they did not previously know about and they are supporters of the archives in places where support counts. It is true that certain more traditional functions have been set aside for the moment, to be resumed later, and it is also true that some staff resent this. But by positioning himself to lead change, this archivist has simultaneously positioned his department not only to survive but to prevail.

This is public relations at work: not fluff, but directed content; not flutter, but deliberate coalition building; not custodianship, but active service and product development; not random programs, but planning; not timidity, but an attitude of enlightened self-interest. The public relations-minded archivist seizes every opportunity to advocate, to gather supporters, to plan, to reposition the archives within the structure of the institution. Change requires a sense of public relations; public relations, seen as building support and advocacy, helps us adapt to change. Influencing the organization in which we work to adopt achivally-friendly technologies; learning the techniques of influence without authority: this is what public relations is about in the larger and longer term. It is possible that the advent of electronic records and automated records management may be the level playing field on which we will learn the value of, and many of the skills of, public relations.

It should by now be clear that practicing good public relations—advocating for archives—is fundamental to our future as a profession. In daily, operational terms some salutary changes will result from our viewing advocacy as a core function. Among these: archivists will focus on creating service-oriented, customer-oriented, constituency-based programs that will last. This means, among other requirements, changing our current and defeating absorption with records to a focus on customer relations, program marketing, and continuity, seeking the support that long term programs require. To do this, we must have a market orientation—that is, the sense and the skills to know what our constituencies need, providing it as well as we can, then using these constituencies to advocate for us.

As a corollary, we will stop whining about lessened resources and changed management requirements and view the bottle we have as half filled, not half empty. Put another way, we will become entrepreneurial about our programs, seeking funding from both private and public sources, developing new products, and forming new collaborations aimed at increasing public sensitivity and access to historical records as sources of information. Note the tone of this session description from a 1994 SAA program note to illustrate whining: "The financial situation in which many nonprofit organizations find themselves is forcing administrators to look to product development to bring revenue."[5] As an archivist who developed educational products from archival sources for more than 20 years, I am dismayed at the notion that product development is seen as a kind of financial slumming forced on the cultural elite only by hard times, rather than as a way to reach new or distant publics. The public relations-minded archivist sees exploring the possibility of product development, with its concurrent risks and expenditures, as filling the half-filled bottle. Nor is this only a matter of words. Style is content, never doubt it. It is a matter of attitude and entrepreneurship.

Education, training, and/or experience in public relations and advocacy will be a *sine qua non* of employment in many archival positions. How do we accomplish this in the short term? By taking the public relations workshops and short courses now offered by SAA and many regional organizations, but seldom filled; or, if these are not available, taking those widely offered by library and museum organizations, who have long since understood their worth; or by reading about public relations in library and museum literature, where it holds a prominent place. Advocacy and public relations will be part of every graduate program in archives management, integrated not only with management and public service courses, but those dealing with traditional functions as well. In short, public relations training will be as important to archivists as the present courses on traditional functions, and as actively pursued.

In the same vein, funding for public relations training will be as actively sought by national, state, and regional archives organizations as funding for traditional functions has been sought in the past. The New York (State) Library Association, for example, has recently been awarded a multi-million dollar grant by a Rochester foundation to train librarians, library administrators, and library trustees in public relations techniques, and is doing this via a series of newsletters, workshops, and other training devices, news of which arrive almost weekly on one's doorstep. Similarly, the New York State Archives established an independent trust, won a million dollar challenge grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, and is now working on its part of the bargain. South Carolina has also established a trust fund, and has broadened its activities accordingly. Basic to this kind of funding is a wide-ranging advocacy program, which both encourages and supports private fund raising.

Although advocacy is primarily local, we will understand that what happens in Washington, at the National Archives, or at our state archives for good or ill affects us in our own institution. State and regional archival groups will promote archives and help local archives promote themselves by piggybacking off these events. Whether the vehicle is Archives Week, or grants to help local archives with promotion, or media support by influential citizens is not important. What is important is that we understand that what affects one affects most; that a local visit from the Pope, for example, can benefit all religious archives and that the success of the state archives in fund raising can be used by archives in that state as a hand up to their own fund raising. We all hang together.

At the same time, archivists will become experienced with and skillful in seeking private funding. In her excellent chapter, "Money Talk," found in *Advocating Archives*, Judy Hohmann provides a primer for archivists. Two of her points are worth noting here. First, the private sector is still an excellent source of funds, if only we ask. Secondly, the preparation necessary among an archives staff to write cogent foundation requests, including agreeing on a mission statement, a set of goals and objectives, and a set of priorities for action, is far more useful to it than the efforts of one person to produce the pounds of paper required by most public sector funding agencies. There are other advantages to private sector fund raising bearing on advocacy, including outreach within the community, a sense of local ownership and access to other local support, and the opportunity to build ongoing funding, not temporary, one-time project monies. And the funders become advocates. The private foundation that

supported the NYLA grant mentioned above, for example, learned a great deal about archives as it explored NYLA's needs, and no doubt now has a financial and moral commitment to public libraries.

Finally, archivists will exercise their understanding of what museums and many other cultural institutions have known for some time, namely, that the support and mediation of people and institutions that are influential in their community is essential to their well being. These may indeed be very local celebrities: the mayor of your small city, your congress person or state legislator, local but regionally known novelists, film makers, or scientists, or they may be national figures. But intermediary support, recognizable by wide-ranging groups of people, can only advantage your archives. Intermediaries do what one cannot do alone, and they are essential to a good advocacy program.

A serious practice of advocacy could change us and our institutions in many other ways. I close by referring again to Peggy Barber, ALA's director of communications, who ended a talk to a group of New York State librarians and trustees with an injunction we should hear and ponder, given the very daily requirements of our professional lives. Celebrate libraries, she said. Paraphrasing her, let us celebrate archives:

- Celebrate being part of a proud and ancient profession.
- Celebrate the ancient continuity of archives, from Alexandria to Albany, from Rome of the Caesars to the plains of Kansas, from the Doomsday Book to the U.S. census.
- Celebrate knowledge, wherever and by whomever it is sought.
- Celebrate the curiosity that brings people to the tedium of research when there is no visible or culturally approved reward.
- Celebrate the insatiable curiosity of the young, the middle-aged, and the elderly, the educated and the not-so-educated.
- Celebrate the role that the past plays in today's knowledge and the significance of knowledge in a democracy where, even in an age of know-nothings, an informed opinion can change minds.

Lyman Beecher, theologian, father of Catherine, Henry Ward, and Harriet Beecher Stowe, urged his gifted children from infancy to "Trust in the Lord and Do Good." In a more secular age, a secular profession, let's enjoin ourselves to "Trust in our Work and Do Good." Let that work, our resources, our contribution to the welfare of the public, be known to everyone we meet. At the heart of it, this is what advocacy is, what professionalism is. Trust in our work and do good.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR: Elsie Freeman Finch began her career in archives at Haverford College, then became head of manuscript collections at Washington University, St. Louis. In 1971 she went to the Smithsonian Institution as assistant curator of manuscripts for the nationally-based Archives of American Art, then moved to the National Archives' public affairs office. The program that she subsequently developed as chief of the National Archives Education Branch came to include not only a wide range of publications for use in upper elementary through collegiate level classrooms, but also nationally delivered teacher training programs, professional development programs aimed at community and four-year college instructors and students, and conferences, workshops, short

courses, lectures, and demonstrations for life long learners, all designed to encourage understanding and use of the National Archives' extraordinary resources. She also directed a playwriting and performance program for theater arts professionals and the general public, based on archival resources.

A leader in the development of programs to promote the wider use of records and the interests of archives, she has published widely, and has been a consultant in public programs and archives management to a variety of historical societies, cultural institutions, professional associations, and archives. *Advocating Archives*, a book of essays on public relations for archives which she commissioned and edited, was published in 1994. Currently she is project editor for a series of case studies, funded by the NHPRC under the aegis of SAA, on the management of electronic records and automated information resources, designed for instructors and students in graduate, continuing education and inservice programs.

Before becoming an archivist-cum-educator, she taught in secondary school and university, and has worked in advertising, public relations, and publications. An undergraduate in literature and history, she holds a master's degree in English literature from Boston University. Now a free lance archivist, writer, and editor, she lives in Ithaca, New York.

NOTES

1. Larry J. Hackman, "Strategies for Archival Advocacy Nationwide." (Paper presented at the Fifty-eighth Annual Meeting of the Society of American Archivists, Indianapolis, Indiana, September, 1994).
2. Timothy L. Ericson developed the idea of reference reorganization in terms of volume and clientele in his article, "Preoccupied with Our Own Gardens: Outreach and Archivists," *Archivaria* 31 (Winter 1990-1991).
3. Elsie Freeman Finch and Paul Conroy, "Talking to the Angel," in *Advocating Archives: An Introduction to Public Relations for Archivists*, ed. Elsie Freeman Finch (Metuchen, NJ: The Society of American Archivists and The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1994), 5-22.
4. James Bressor and Julie Bressor, "Troubleshooting," in *Advocating Archives*, 99-108.
5. From the program notes to the session titled "Puffy Pillows and Plush Abe Lincolns: Products from the Archives?" (Presented at the Fifty-eighth Annual Meeting of the Society of American Archivists, September 1994). It is only fair to say that products such as these are unlikely to be developed by an archives, although they might be purchased for the museum shop from a specialized vendor. I use "product development" to mean items created directly from records, such as photo-calendars, posters, postcards, educational materials, and the like.

ARCHIVAL OUTREACH ON THE WORLD WIDE WEB

WILLIAM LANDIS

ABSTRACT: The World Wide Web offers archivists new opportunities for the dissemination of information about services and collections, and even digital facsimiles of items from collections. This review article provides some explanations of basic concepts and terminology associated with the Web, as well as pointers to information sources both on-line and in print. It also presents a few snapshot descriptions and discussions of representative archival repository Web sites. Finally, it discusses some broader issues for consideration as archivists prepare to exploit technological advances that allow for what amounts to a potential revolution in access to archival repositories by remote users.

Introduction

References to information regarding the World Wide Web and the Internet are appearing with increasing frequency in archival conversations and publications.[1] The World Wide Web is a new and exciting venue through which archivists can pursue outreach activities for their repositories, reaching potential audiences in ways never before possible. Prior to the development of the World Wide Web, archival outreach on-line was mainly limited to text-based systems making bibliographic records available through Public Access Catalogs, or providing collection inventories via Gopher software. The advent of an on-line delivery mechanism for platform-independent, dynamic access to text, image, and sound files provides both unprecedented opportunities and additional burdens for the archival profession.

This review article provides a consideration of this new genre of archival repository outreach activities on the World Wide Web. The first part of this review will provide a discussion of some key terms and concepts necessary for an understanding of the fairly recent phenomenon of the Web. It will, in addition, provide pointers to information resources, both on-line and in print, that are good starting places for archivists interested in creating a World Wide Web presence for their repositories.

From this basic introduction, the review will proceed to a snapshot description of four fairly mature Web sites already developed by archival repositories. These Web sites will be assessed critically for examples they provide of Web site design considerations and decisions. After examining these specific Web sites, this review will attempt to look abstractly at the creation of archival Web sites, asking—but not definitively answering—questions regarding, for exam-

ple, intended audiences and the application of archival context to information made available via the World Wide Web. These are issues that archivists should consider as they prepare to create or enhance a repository's Web presence.

Web Concepts

The World Wide Web, a small but rapidly growing part of the Internet, is distinct because it integrates sound and image files with text files, unlike other Internet interfaces which only display text files. It also utilizes hypertext capabilities to allow links from within a file to any other file to which access is provided by a Web server. The basic requirement for turning a computer with an existing Internet connection into a World Wide Web site is server software, while browser software is needed for accessing information available on the Web. Communications between server and browser software are governed by the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP), an international standard designed to facilitate the rapid transfer of hypertext-linked files over networks. These software packages—Netscape and Mosaic being perhaps the two best known—are available from a variety of companies, some free for the downloading and others available for purchase.

Although the various screens viewed by the user with Web browsing software are nothing more than a series of files to which access is provided by a Web server, one uses two terms generally to categorize these files. A "Web site" is simply a collection of files, created and maintained by a person or institution and often with a particular topical or institutional focus. These files often reside together on the same server, but that is not a requirement. The term "home page" is used to denote the introductory file through which a user gains access to the rest of the site.

Each file on a Web-accessible server has a Uniform Resource Locator (URL), which is the discrete Web address for that file. When a user is given a URL to a Web site it is generally for the home page of that site. In the following explication of a typical URL, it is important to note that this is merely a template and that there can be variations among URLs: *http://www.sils.umich.edu/BentleyMap/index.html.* In this example, the http:// invokes the HTTP protocol on the server, the www.sils.umich.edu gives the name of the particular Web server with which an HTTP session is being requested, and the remainder of the URL provides the pathway on that server to the desired files.

Hypertext Markup Language (HTML) is the basic building block for Web-accessible files. HTML is a set of tags (such as <TITLE> and <H1>) and rules for using the tags. Files of plain text are "marked up" by inserting these tags within the text, which informs the Web browsing software about the significance or purpose of a particular marked up word or block of text. HTML tags indicate the logical components of the organization of a text file. HTML tags also indicate to the browsing software when image or sound files are to be incorporated into the display of a file and when a particular word, phrase, or image serves as a hypertext link to another file elsewhere on the World Wide Web.[2]

HTML does not adhere strictly to the international standard for text encoding, ISO 8879, known as Standard Generalized Markup Language (SGML).[3] The

distinction between HTML and the international standard is a critical one. The SGML standard defines the rules for creating computer-readable markup languages, individual instances of which are defined by a Document Type Definition (DTD). The DTD defines the tags that can be included in a particular markup language and the rules for the use of those tags. An SGML-aware browsing software package should be able to "read" any SGML-compliant tag set as long as the DTD for that set can be delivered by a server to that browser along with the tagged text file.

For the purposes of this review it is sufficient to point out that most currently available Web browsers, including Netscape and Mosaic, are not SGML aware,

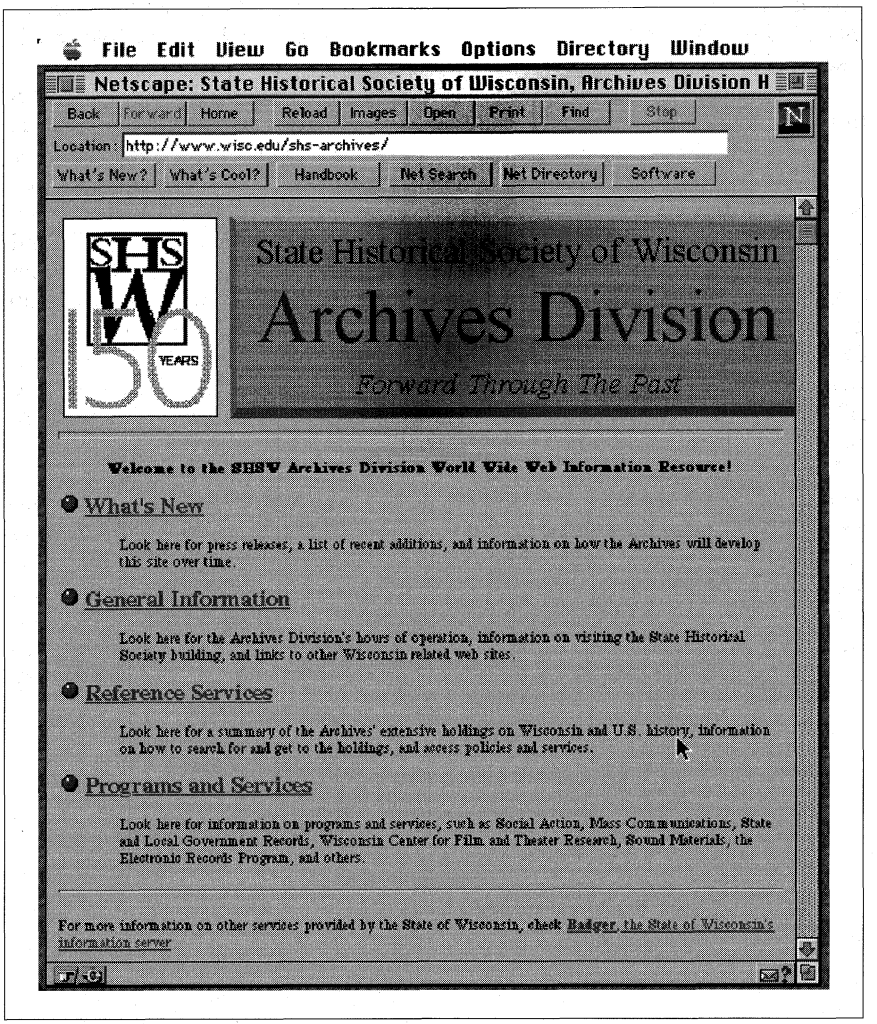

Figure 1
The State Historical Society of Wisconsin Archives Division home page on the World Wide Web; http://www.wisc.edu/shs-archives/

meaning that they do not require that a DTD be supplied with HTML-tagged text files. The rules regarding HTML tags and their use are part of the browser software package, thus limiting the markup that these browsers can "read" solely to HTML. A few, fairly expensive, SGML-aware browsers are currently available and efforts are ongoing to develop others.[4]

Information Resources

For archivists interested in creating a Web presence for their repository, a number of places provide information. For repositories without access to a computer running Web server software the development of a Web site will be more complicated. This review will not address setting up a server; however, information about this end of Web site development is also widely available and is discussed in the sources mentioned below.

The number of books on HTML has mushroomed in the past year, as a visit to the computer section of any good-sized bookstore will demonstrate. These books vary widely in their comprehensiveness and intended audience and it is not the purpose of this review to evaluate them. Many of the more simplistic HTML guides focus mainly on tagging issues, without going into detail about topics such as the history of HTML, the relationship between HTML and SGML, server administration, and future developments. These are issues about which archivists should be cognizant if they plan to expend the effort to develop a Web site for their repository. Ian S. Graham's *HTML Sourcebook: A Complete Guide to HTML* (John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1995; $29.95) is well-written and comprehensive, though prospective book buyers should browse HTML books for content and audience to be sure their purchase is one from which they can work and learn.

Numerous resources on the World Wide Web itself provide information, at varying levels of complexity, concerning Web site development. One cautionary note: information obtained on the Web is only as valid as the understanding of the person(s) who placed it there. Since no editorial review process exists for Web publication, perhaps the best gauge of reliability is the relationship of a particular site to an organization participating in on-going Web development. Another helpful indication of reliability is the currency of the information provided at a particular site; those that have not been updated for a long time may not be the best resources when the topic is something which is evolving as rapidly as the World Wide Web.

Perhaps the most authoritative place on the Web from which to obtain information about Web development is the site maintained by the W3 Consortium *http://www.w3.org/*. The Consortium is a group of self-motivated individuals and organizations who are working together to shape the future development of HTML and the Web. Despite the complexity of information provided, this is an excellent site with which to become familiar. One particular section of this site, *http://www.w3.org/pub/WWW/MarkUp/MarkUp.html*, is the most helpful for those interested specifically in the use of HTML.

Another valuable Web site for HTML beginners, with one caveat, is maintained by Netscape at *http://home.mcom.com/assist/net_sites/index.html*. Although Netscape is a participant in the W3 Consortium, the company has taken a lead in developing HTML "extensions," tags supported only by

Netscape's browsing software and designed to enhance the display and layout capabilities of HTML. Graham, in the introduction to his previously mentioned book, defines HTML as a markup language "designed to specify the logical organization of a text document, with important extensions for hypertext links and user interaction." In this definition of HTML (as in the SGML standard), information concerning display does not appear in the marked-up text files. User preference controls in the browsing software and the development of default style sheets[5] for the display of a file or group of files that can be sent by the server software along with the tagged text file are the two preferred means for dealing with issues regarding display of text files. This keeps the text file resources of the Web independent of the capabilities of any particular browsing software package and protects the open systems aspect that has been a powerful feature of early Web development. The development by Netscape of browser-specific tags is not supported by the W3 Consortium and represents the antithesis of that group's work to bring HTML into compliance with the SGML standard.

Archival Home Page Snapshots

The exact number of current repositories of archival and historical information with a presence on the World Wide Web is unknowable. A listing maintained by Terry Abraham of the University of Idaho Special Collections and Archives, *http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/Other.Repositories.html*, has hypertext links to over 600 such sites on Web servers around the world. This listing, possibly the most comprehensive available, offers an excellent place for archivists to begin an exploration of what other archivists are doing on the Web. The home page snapshots for this review[6] are all from sites on Abraham's list and were selected with no other criteria than that this author felt that they were laudable, fairly mature examples which offer points for discussion.

There is one problem with a time-delayed review of a dynamic medium in a static publication and that is the danger that, by the time this is read in print, the sites illustrative of the points made in this review may no longer be so. However, printed reviews of the use of this dynamic new medium by archivists have a certain value for the profession's history and development. They can serve as a record for the profession of the evolution of this new genre for reference, outreach, and communication. Perhaps they can help the profession by documenting the use of the Web by archival repositories in ways that heretofore have been unimaginable. With that in mind, this review will proceed with a snapshot description and discussion of four home pages and then with some broader considerations for the development of archival Web sites.

Idaho

The Web site containing the previously mentioned listing of repository Web sites is as good a place as any to begin. The University of Idaho Special Collections and Archives home page, *http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/*, presents a listing of hypertext-linked text that has been grouped into three broad headings: *Description of Collections*; *Inventories, Lists, Bibliographies*; and *Special Collections*. It begins with links to an on-line exhibit of artifacts from Special Collections and to information about what special collections are.

The majority of information contained at this site is descriptive of the various collections: historical photographs, primary sources, university records, and wilderness archives. Links to on-line inventories for some archival and manuscript collections are provided, as well as to lists of campus buildings, holdings related to pioneer women of the West, and mining records. It has a helpful tutorial on finding genealogical records in Idaho, and bibliographies concerning the history of the University of Idaho and the general topic of archives and manuscripts (See Figure 2).

Finally, under the somewhat confusing sub-heading of "Special Collections" (this entire site is, after all, about special collections), one finds links to information about using Special Collections, donating material, the Library

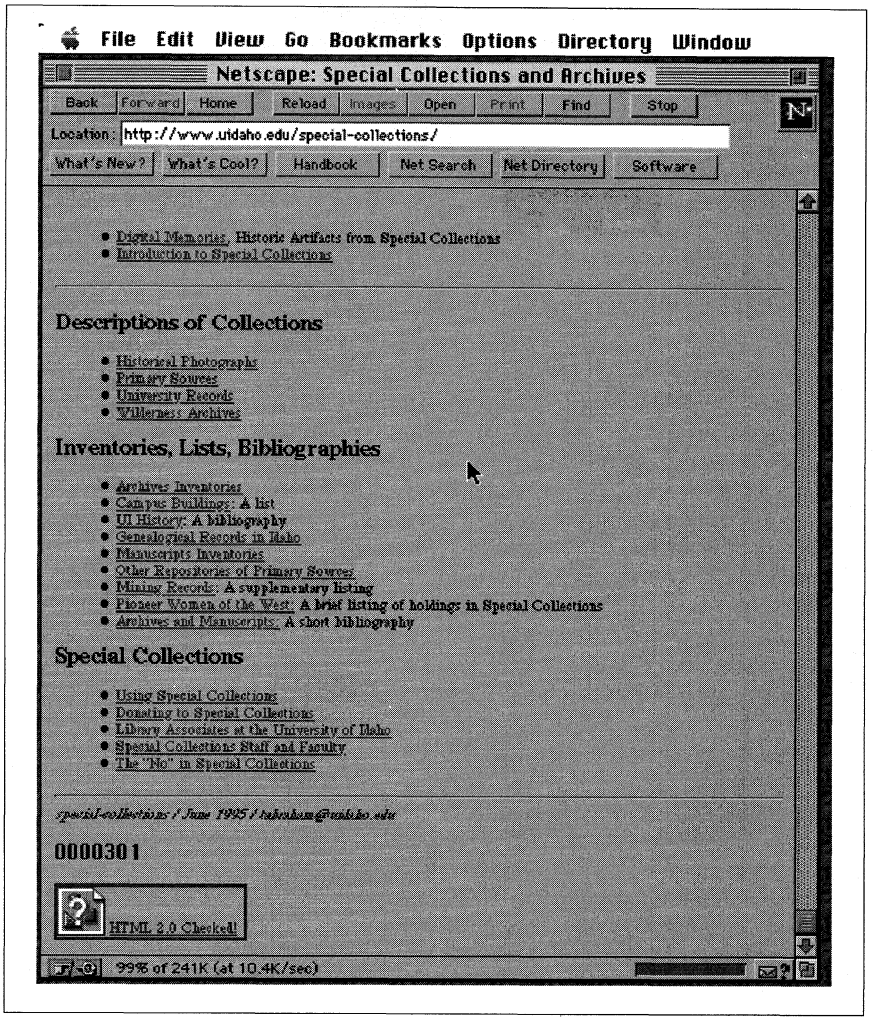

Figure 2
http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/

Associates group, the staff of Special Collections, and a listing of some explanations of things researchers are prohibited from doing while in the repository. At the very bottom of the page is an icon and the text "HTML 2.0 checked!"

This site provides a good example of one problem to consider in the organization of a Web site. Archivists' familiarity with the terminology and organizational principles of their profession might make them insensitive to the problems that non-archivists using archival Web sites might have when confronted by those same terminologies, relationships, hierarchies, and principles. As an example, a link on the home page under consideration leads from the heading "Description of Collections" to a page of information labeled "University Records," *http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/University.Records.html.* A different link leads from the heading "Inventories, Lists, Bibliographies" to a page entitled "Archival Inventories," *http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/Archives/.* The information on the former page is descriptive of and, for many users perhaps, necessary for the understanding of the inventories, yet there is no link directly between them. Furthermore, they appear under separate headings on the home page, which might not adequately suggest their relationship to a user of this Web site who was not already familiar with archives.

Another organizational question relating to this Web site is raised by the topically-arranged collection descriptions linked from the home page as "Primary Sources," *http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/Primary.Sources.html.* These are excellent, but perhaps the long, linear display method lessens their effectiveness. This is by no means a criticism of decisions that have been made to utilize such a display style, since it is fairly common in Web documents. It does seem possible, however, that this model for display is a holdover from textual publication and word processing and does not do justice to the unique hypertext capabilities of the World Wide Web. One must also wonder about the off-putting effects on casual browsers of scrolling through lengthy text files.

A cautionary example of creating links to images or resources on servers other than one's local Web server is evidenced by the strange graphic and message at the bottom of this particular home page. The graphic image to which a hypertext link has been created is one that resides on a server maintained by Halsoft, a company that offers a free service for checking HTML markup. The problem here is that the server has been moved, which severed the link from this page. The graphic image seen instead is the generic one that is displayed when image links cannot be successfully transacted by the browsing software. It is not clear why this particular link was created in the first place, since it has nothing obvious to do with the repository represented by this home page; however, it does nicely illustrate the point that the more hypertext links one creates to files external to one's Web server, the more opportunity exists for this sort of unexpected severed link.

Maine

The home page for the Maine State Archives, *http://www.state.me.us/sos/mawww001.htm,* begins with a welcome and a description of the repository's mission, some of which is obscured by the second of the two graphical images bracketing it. This is followed by a link to an advertisement for a small sampling of the photograph collection, duplicates of which are offered for sale as holiday gifts (See Figure 3).

The rest of the page contains short, descriptive paragraphs, each preceded by hypertext links to further information. These include the repository's location, hours, and phone, mail, and e-mail contacts; major collections, including legislative, judicial, and military records; genealogical resources; records management services for state and local governments; paper and electronic publications, including those available from a computer bulletin board system; and a listing of related cultural organizations in Maine. A listing is provided of hypertext-linked keywords for quick reference. Examples of these include not only genealogy, judicial, photos, and staff, but also BBS and HRAB, the latter two somewhat confusing to all but the initiated. The page ends with a link back to the home page of the Maine Secretary of State.

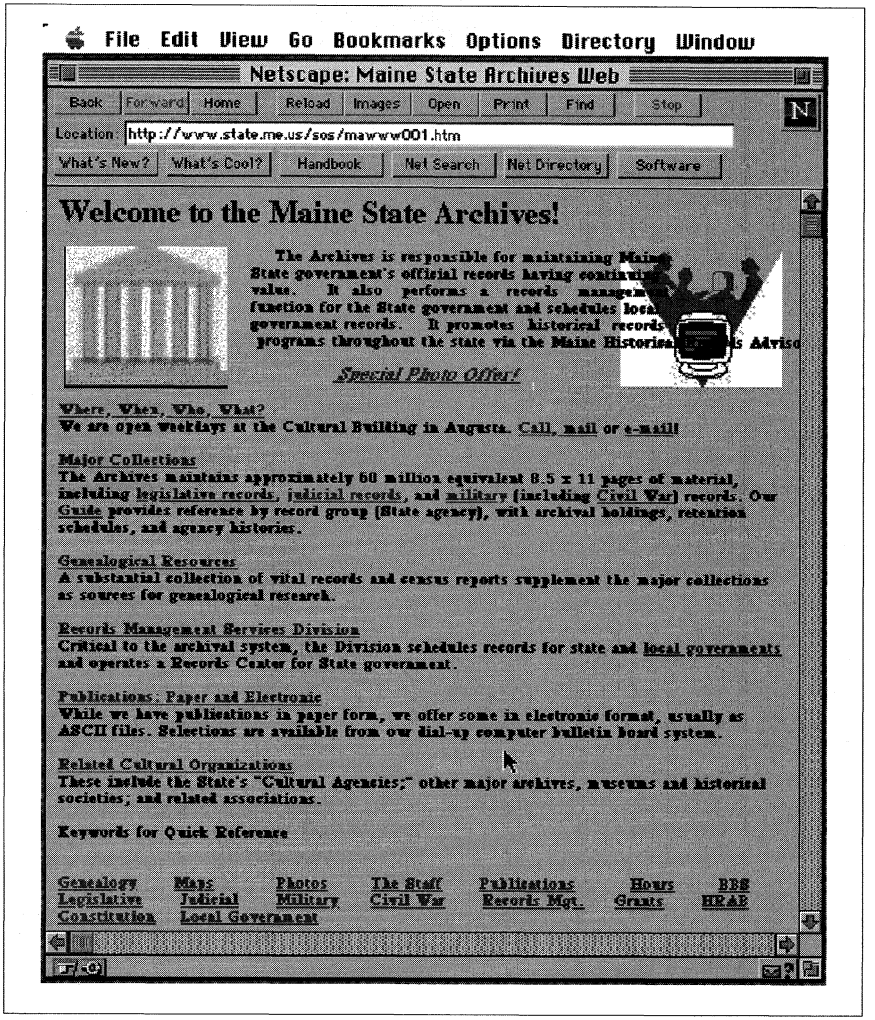

Figure 3
http://www.state.me.us/sos/mawww001.htm

This Web site provides a good example of the choice to organize text into large blocks rather than to create intervening lists to categorize information for the user. Again, nothing is inherently wrong with this model, but the same questions raised above about utilizing the hypertext capabilities of this communication medium apply here as well. A good example of this is the "Genealogical Records" page, *http://www.state.me.us/sos/genealog.htm*, in which hypertext links are embedded into text blocks toward the bottom of the page, forcing the user to read all of the text in order to build any context necessary to understand a link before following it. Users should be given enough information up front so that they can determine if long blocks of text are of potential use to them and should be read (See Figure 4).

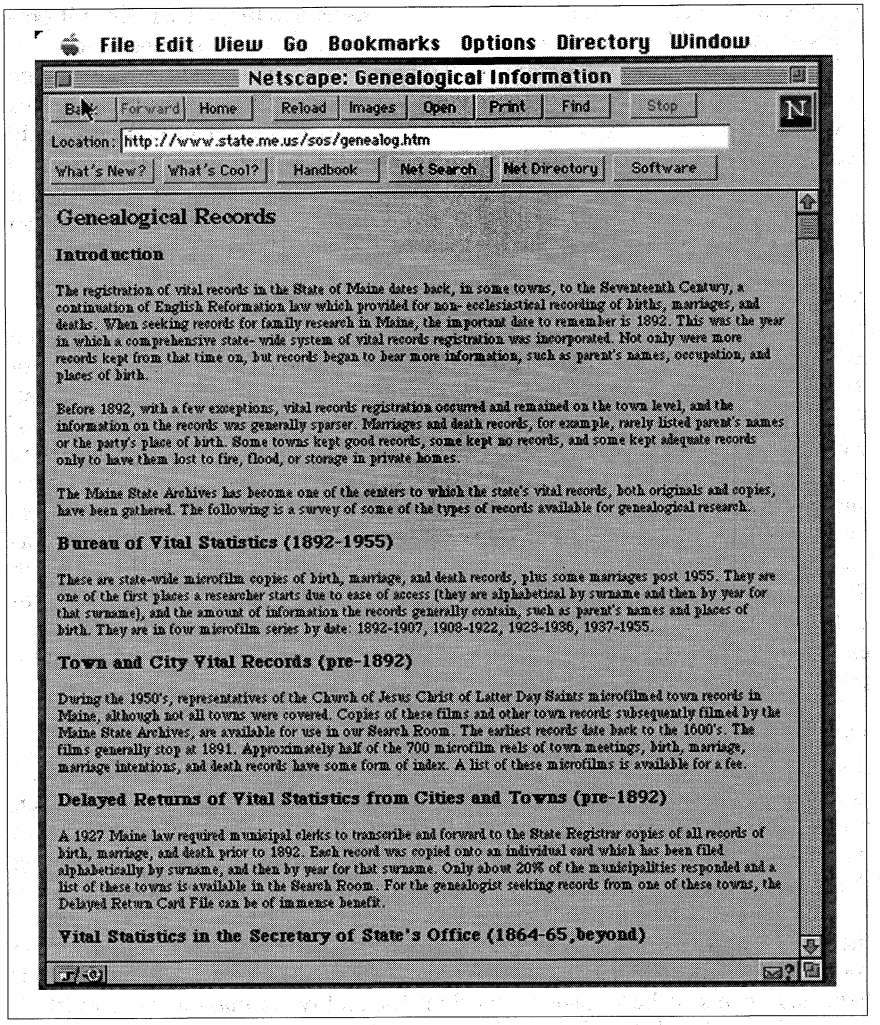

Figure 4
http://www.state.me.us/sos/genealog.htm

Another design consideration illustrated here is how to use emphasis within the text of a Web site. On the home page under discussion, the entire text is bolded. This would appear strange in a printed text and seems to fly in the face of conventions for emphasis currently in practice; is all of this text equally important? Most Web browsers offer a menu selection which allows the user to view the text file that is the source of the on-line document. This is an excellent way for Web novices to examine the display ramifications of markup tag choices. In this particular case, the bolding effect was achieved by bracketing the entire text file in <H4>...</H4> tags. Briefly, these tags logically identify the enclosed text as a level 4 (out of 6 possible levels) header and emphasize it in bold. The outcome in HTML terms is that this entire file has been identified as a header. This misuse of HTML tags does work—a representation of the text appears on the screen. It does, however, do a disservice to the user, since it provides no standard keys for helping the eye scan text for areas of importance.

The keywords provided at the bottom of the Maine State Archives home page warrant some attention, being a feature unique among the four home pages under consideration. Keywords are arguably a good way of providing speedy access to certain areas of a Web site for particular audiences. In this case, it is unclear for what audience this keyword list was created. It might be more useful generally if keywords were an option given as a link from the home page, so that some context could be given for their provision and use.

New York

The New York State Archives and Records Administration (SARA) home page, *http://unix6.nysed.gov/*, begins with colorful graphics that may or may not display as intended, depending on how wide one's browsing window is set. After a welcome, there is a long, bulleted list of concise headings, each of which is a hypertext link to further information. These links include agency news, SARA's mission, server information, and SARA services, holdings, and publications. Other links are provided for the on-line catalogue (with information on how to log on), database searching (with the disclaimer that this feature is under construction), the Agency's gopher server, the New York State Government Information Locator System, the Local Government Telecommunications Initiative home page, and an on-line comment and reference form. The page ends with contact information for SARA by mail, telephone, and e-mail (See Figure 5).

The SARA home page offers one organizational alternative to that of the Idaho site, a straight list as opposed to a hierarchical categorization of information resources. The resources on the SARA page are not grouped in any way, nor is any rationale behind the ordering of this list discernible. This approach raises some questions about the ability of this model to handle future growth without becoming unwieldy for the user. It also is not very successful in helping the user to build context for the information available on the Web site.

This site presents excellent finding aids; however, very little help is offered to the on-line user unfamiliar with archival organization of information. This same observation could be made of at least two of the other sites under consideration here and seems to be a general problem for archivists making their existing inventories and finding aids available on the Web. Because of its general applicability, this problem probably deserves more attention by the profession as a

whole and offers the potential for some research-based attempts to understand just how users unaccustomed to the protocols for doing research in archival repositories might make use of descriptive material and items from collections as they become available in digital facsimile over computer networks.

The SARA Web site also offers a good example of the problem of links not working in logical ways. From the SARA home page, following the link to "SARA Holdings," *http://unix6.nysed.gov/holdings.htm*, the user is presented with available finding aids grouped topically. Following the link from the "Guide to Records Relating to Native Americans," *http://unix6.nysed.gov/holding/aids/native/content.htm*, to the "Thomas Indian School Records," *ttp://unix6.nysed.gov/holding/aids/native/native.htm#thomas*,

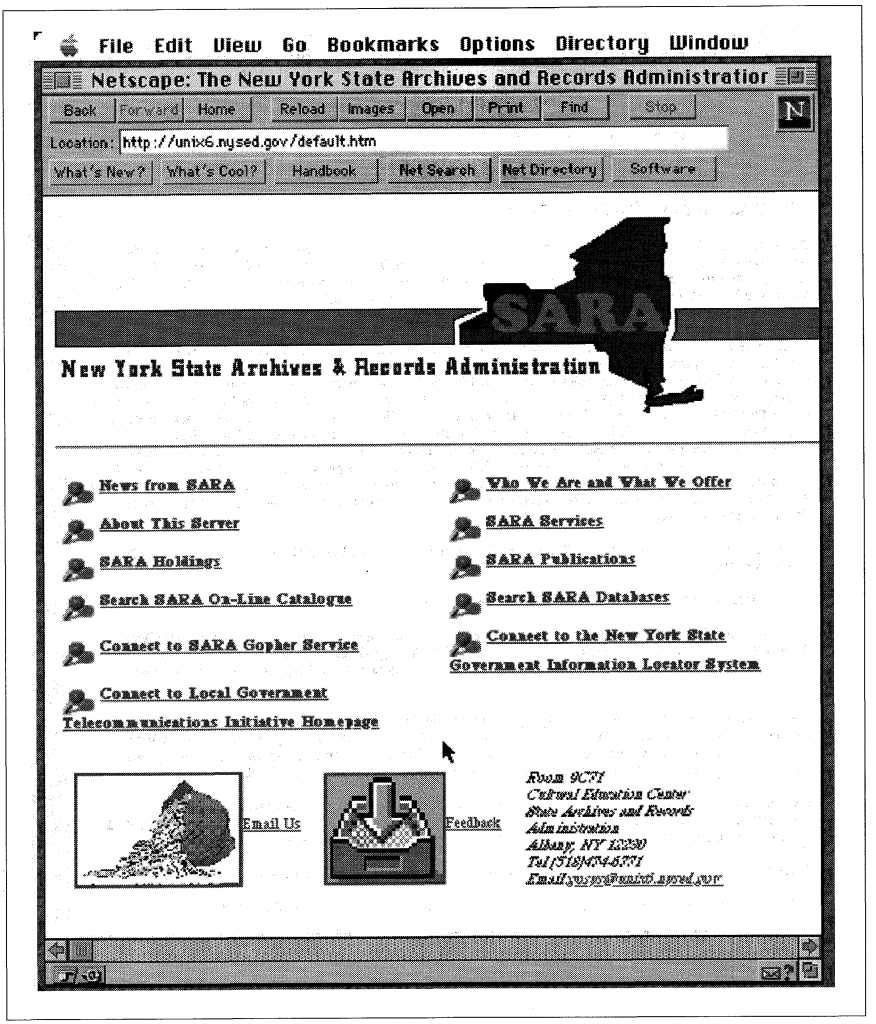

Figure 5
http://unix6.nysed.gov/

the user ends up at the bottom screen of what turns out to be a very long file. This is undoubtedly not the intended location of the link. Also illustrative of the previously mentioned problem with choosing lengthy file displays, this link forces the user to scroll up twenty-two times in this file to find the actual location of the Thomas Indian School Records. A crucial step in loading tagged text files onto a Web server is to check to see that hypertext links work as they were intended (See Figure 6).

Wisconsin

The final home page snapshot is for a Web site maintained by the State Historical Society of Wisconsin Archives Division, *http://www.wisc.edu/shs-*

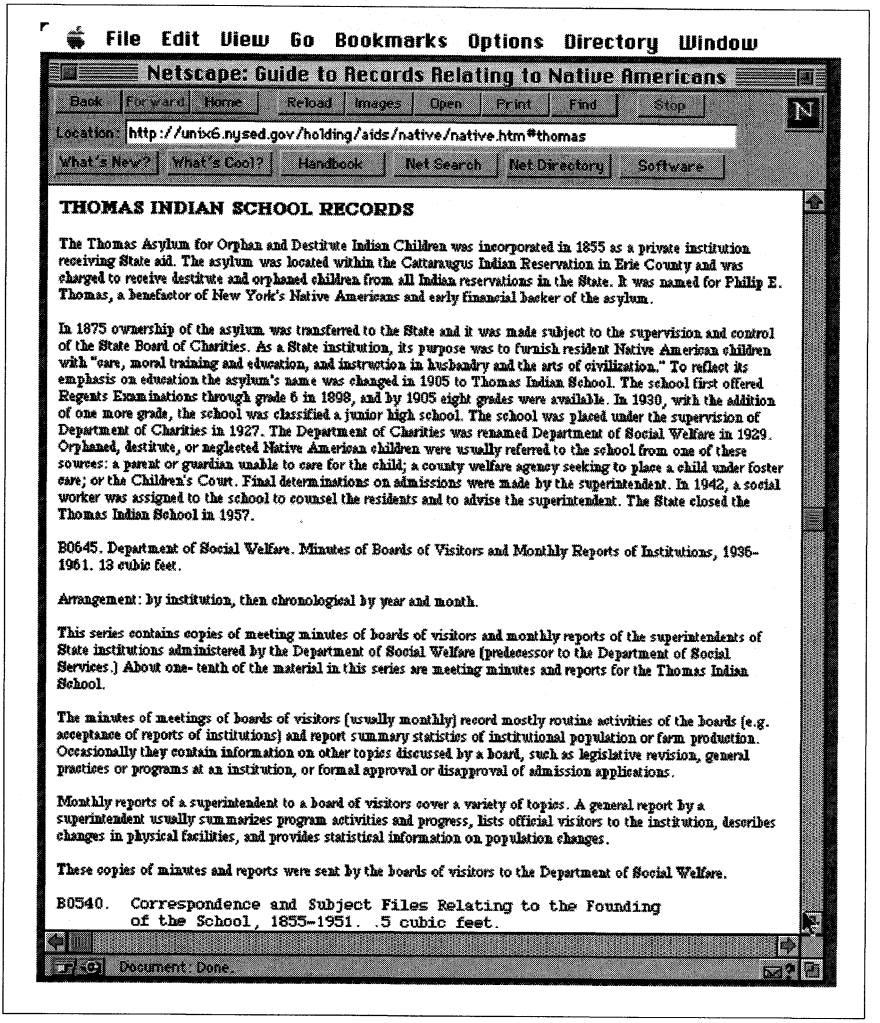

Figure 6
http://unix6.nysed.gov/holdings/aids/native/native.htm

archives/. Also beginning with graphical images and a welcome, the information on this page is organized into four hypertext links, each a general category described by a short sentence: *What's New*, *General Information*, *Reference Services*, and *Programs and Services*. These links lead to further information and other links, with each successive hypertext layer providing more detailed information (See Figure 1).

At the bottom of the home page there is a link to the State of Wisconsin's information server, as well as a link to a Web site comment form. These are followed by information for contacting the State Historical Society by mail and phone and the date on which this page was last modified.

This site offers an excellent tutorial for constructing a Web site in a way that will easily support future growth. This approach keeps files short, one or two screens of information, and layers descriptions in lists that begin fairly broadly and become successively narrower and more tightly organized. Following the link from the home page to "Programs and Services," *http://www.wisc.edu/shs-archives/sections.html*, yields an alphabetical listing of all the Archives Division's programs and services, with hypertext links to more detailed information about each. The layering effect, coupled with what appears to be careful attention to maintaining consistent terminology, helps to create context for information as the user navigates through successive links. Keeping files fairly short takes full advantage of the dynamic nature of the hypertext capabilities of the World Wide Web. Furthermore, if the Archives Division in the future significantly increases the number of programs and services it offers, it would be fairly simple to insert another context-building layer for the user, separating programs and services and keeping the volume of information on one screen at a manageable level (See Figure 7).

The directional information provided at the bottom of each page is an excellent example of providing navigational aids within a Web site for users. The links reflect the structure of the home page and are concise and consistent throughout the site. The graphics at the top of each page in this Web site, while simple, provide additional consistency and help the user to keep track of his or her location within the site.

An additional feature of the Wisconsin site, one that is unique in the four sites being reviewed, is the provision of a page detailing the strategy and scheduling for the future development of this site, *http://www.wisc.edu/shs-archives/planning.html*. The expressed commitment here to quarterly updating and the availability of an on-line comment and input form (also a feature of at least one of the other sites being reviewed) make it clear to the user that this is a dynamic site and one that at least solicits input from users (See Figure 8).

Broader Issues

As can be seen from these brief snapshots, solutions to issues concerning the design and content of archival Web sites can be varied and vexing, though they are also perhaps the most interesting issues to confront. Although the technical hurdles to getting access to a Web server, tagging text files, and digitizing images are not trivial, these can often be dealt with by archivists through creative partnering with those possessing such expertise within their organizations or communities. It is important, when bringing in outside expertise, that

archival managers empower their own employees as much as possible to build expertise concerning Web sites so that continued development can become more of an in-house venture.

The question of content development for nascent archival Web sites and the critical assessment of the content and design of those already in existence is one in which any archivist can and should engage, regardless of her or his knowledge of HTML tagging and Web server administration. Constructively critical discussions in archival publications and on-line discussion lists might go a long way toward moving the profession as a whole toward an understanding of the effects that this new technology will have on archivists, their institutions, and the clientele they serve.

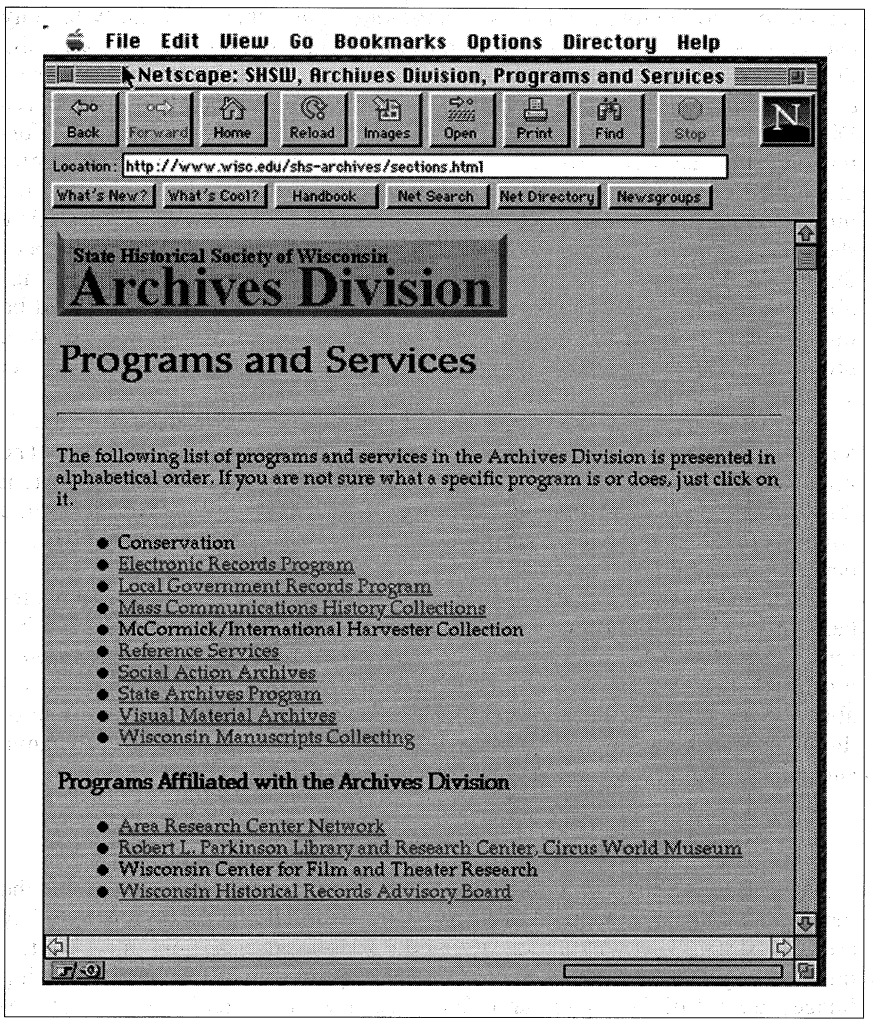

Figure 7
http://www.wisc.edu/shs-archives/sections.html

One of the key issues that archivists should consider when beginning to develop a repository Web site is whether that site will be evolving and dynamic or fairly static. This may make a difference in the approach chosen for the organization of the initial introductory pages of a site and, if not considered at the start, might force a considerable reworking of those pages if the site grows in an unplanned manner. Since many repositories do not have the staff or financial resources to engage in continuing Web site development, a static approach designed simply to advertise the nature of a repository's collections, conditions for their use, and details such as hours and location might be the most appropriate use of the Web. An initial decision to develop a fairly static Web site might also lead to contracting with a local Web consultant to design and implement a

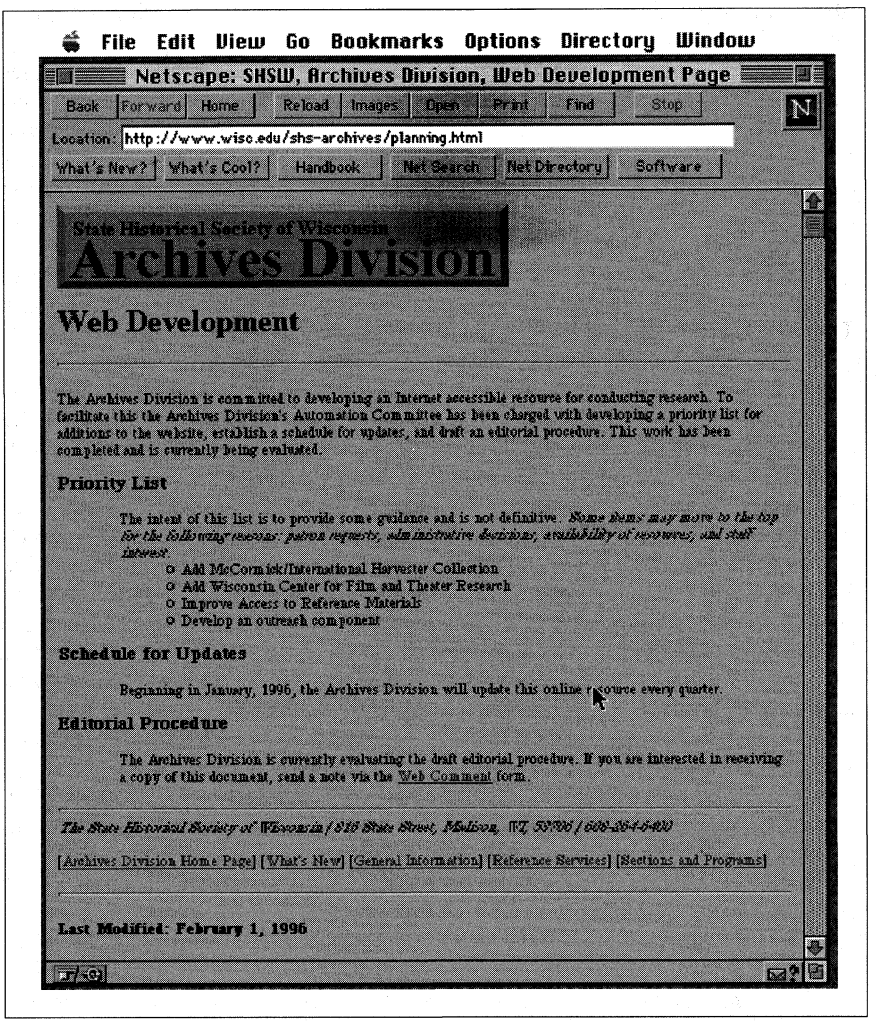

Figure 8
http://www.wisc.edu/shs-archives/planning.html

repository's Web site, a viable option depending on an institution's staffing levels, budget, and overall plan for the use of the Web.

The placement of images, including images of original manuscript material, on archival Web sites is an area that deserves further discussion within the profession. Copyright issues are of concern to the world beyond archival repositories and archivists may have to be content to lobby from the benches as the legal and judicial systems struggle to work out a policy on copyright that is operable in an internationally networked environment. Currently, copyright concerns are one of the major issues that a repository should consider when appraising collection items for digitization and inclusion on a Web site. Future developments in encryption, digital signatures, and controlled-access Web sites may eventually make it possible to provide networked access to images of items from collections with copyright restrictions as well as those with restrictive donor stipulations in force.

A particular concern of archivists regarding the provision of digital facsimiles of items from archival and manuscript collections is that of their use in ways that ignore or misrepresent the contextual framework of those items. Unauthorized or undetectable digital manipulation is another fear. A few things can be done with current technology, such as serving only low resolution images on Web sites and using digital watermarks to identify image files, in order to mitigate such concerns. The bottom line, however, is that a repository can do very little once it makes image files available on a Web server to control who downloads and uses those image files and in what manner they are used. This is perhaps another argument for the careful appraisal by repositories of the collection items that are digitized and made available on Web sites.

The relationship of HTML to SGML was briefly mentioned earlier, but warrants further attention in considering possible future directions for the use by archival repositories of the World Wide Web. A basic tagging problem—alluded to in the example of the misuse, surely not intentional, of header tags on the Maine State Archives home page—is that HTML is modeled on, but does not comply to, the SGML standard. Because of this, the previously mentioned "extensions" to HTML can be created by specific groups (a company like Netscape, for example) without the insurance that these "extensions" can be read by all currently available HTML browsing software. HTML browsers are basically "dumb" in that a version of the HTML tag set and rules are a part of the browsers' code. This means that HTML browsers can only process HTML-tagged text, but also that these browsers are forgiving of incorrect tagging, so most mistakes are ignored. This is not the case with SGML-aware browsers. Web servers pass the appropriate DTD along with a text file to these browsers, which proceed to parse, or break down, the tagged text file against the DTD. This independence from a specific DTD allows an SGML-aware browser to process files tagged with any DTD that complies with the SGML standard.

So why embrace the more rigorous SGML standard when HTML looks just fine? Adherence to standards creates the possibility of the broader exchange of archival information, as anyone familiar with the MARC encoding standard knows. SGML, precisely because it is standardized, also allows for sophisticated searching of tagged text files that is impossible in HTML as it currently exists. The recent development of the Encoded Archival Description (EAD) DTD, specifically designed to allow markup of archival finding aids, points

toward an intriguing future for archival Web sites.[7] As SGML-aware browsers become more readily available on the free or inexpensive model currently in place for the distribution of HTML browsers, archivists could take advantage of an SGML-compliant HTML DTD to mark up repository information and special exhibits and use the EAD DTD to tag collection-level inventories and guides. The potential exists to develop a DTD for the tagging of individual facsimiles of digitized items from archival collections, allowing those digitized images to be encased in metadata that would preserve important contextual and technical information about the items.[8] Archivists do have a stake in this convergence, which would move the profession closer to the creation of what Steve Hensen has called a "seamless web" of digital information about repositories and their collections. It may be casting a bit into the future, but these possibilities should be taken into consideration by archivists using HTML as it currently exists. Information about the move to bring HTML into compliance with the SGML standard is readily available on the Web.[9] Utilization of tagging guidelines created with the standardization process in mind will make this eventual development less burdensome.

Much of the discussion of the individual home pages considered above centered around what is essentially the issue of audience. Archivists have traditionally felt that they know fairly well the needs of the scholarly researchers and institutional administrators who have been targeted as the primary users of most collections, though this is certainly arguable. It is clear though that the development of Web sites makes information about archival repositories and even items from collections themselves available to a dramatically larger, virtually unknown audience.

As pointed out in the preceding discussion of four archival Web sites, the assumptions that archivists make about their clientele are often translated into the development of their Web sites, which has unknown ramifications on the use of this information by users of the World Wide Web. If a Web site is designed for those who already know quite a bit about research in archival collections, then that assumption should be made clear from the start. The Web is a potential outreach tool for archivists, but conscious decisions must be made in planning Web sites in order for this tool to be an effective one.

One way for archivists to learn more about possible users might be for individual repositories or local archival consortia to collaborate with professionals in other disciplines—an example might be curriculum planners in local high school history or civics courses—to develop digital access to selected collections for a narrowly targeted audience. In this way the development of digital access can be tested on a sampling of that intended audience and can incorporate feedback from them. Use statistics from Web servers, while of some interest, should not be the extent of explorations of the use of archival Web sites. Ultimately, a digital means of two-way user interaction with the Web site might prove most informative. Reporting about these projects in archival publications, or perhaps on a Web site, would be one good way of sharing information about users with the profession as a whole.

National and regional archival organizations might also play a more active role by coordinating and supporting projects aimed at the creation of introductory digital presentations on the profession and on the general use of primary source material geared toward a few non-traditional audiences common to all

repositories. This would get archivists working together toward the common goal of understanding the needs and interests of potential new audiences for archival material available on Web sites. It would also insure that each individual repository would not have to start from scratch when creating outreach material for non-traditional users of their Web sites.

All of these thoughts lead, perhaps, to a final question: "Why bother?" Leaving aside the fact that our society is moving rapidly into the digital realm for the creation of its records, and the much-discussed burden that fact places on this profession, the Web offers the potential for new ways for archivists to reach people and interest them in archival and manuscript collections without endangering the physical existence of those collections. Taking traditional paper guides and inventories, research protocols, and ideas about how collections ought to be used and simply translating them into a digital environment seems like a tragic mistake. Such strategies may offer a place to begin, but it is crucial for this profession that archivists remain alive to the possibilities that this new environment offers. It is quite clear from developments over the past few years that historical materials have an immense fascination for people generally and that there are those who are ready to exploit that fascination in whatever way they can. Archivists have something to offer this potential audience, but the audience also has something to teach archivists. We risk quite a bit by failing to grasp the realities and possibilities of the digital world and by failing to educate future generations of archivists about those realities and possibilities.

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NOTES

1. The following are just a few examples from 1995. Articles and reviews include Ken Hannigan, "The Archivist in the Information Age," *Irish Archives* 2:2 (Autumn, 1995): 23-29; Mark Shelstad, "Archives Listserv," *MAC Newsletter* 23:3 (December 1995): 12-13; David Wallace, "Archival Repositories on the World Wide Web: A Preliminary Survey and Analysis," *Archives and Museum Informatics* 9:2 (1995): 150-169. Presentations include Thomas Brown, Robin Chandler, Peter Hirtle, and Peter Nelson, "Toto, We Aren't in Kansas Anymore: Issues of Access for Archives on the Internet" (Session), Society of American Archivists Annual Meeting (Washington, DC), September 2, 1995; Greg Colati, "Like Magic: Creating a Sustainable Internet Presence" (Session), New England Archivists Fall Meeting (Worcester, MA), October 21, 1995 (also available on the Web at *http://www.bow-*

doin.edu/dept/library/arch/man/nea.htm); and Thomas La Porte and William Landis, "W3 and the Archives" (Workshop), Midwest Archives Conference Spring Meeting (Chicago, IL), May 6, 1995. Information about the on-line discussion list Archives and Archivists may be obtained by sending an e-mail message to John Harlan (harlanjb@muohio.edu).

2. The tag set <A>...</A> and the HREF attribute of this tag set are what give HTML its hypertext capabilities. Essentially, the tags provide the browser with the URL of another file on a World Wide Web server somewhere with which a connection should be requested. The text or image contained between the set of tags is highlighted in a special way by the browsing software. When a user clicks on that highlighted text or image, an attempt to establish a link to the URL specified by the HREF attribute is made according to rules governed by the Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP). An example of this would be the tagged text **<A HREF="http://www.uidaho.edu/special-collections/Primary.Sources.html">** Repositories on the Web</A>. A user clicking with a computer mouse on the highlighted text "Repositories on the Web" would be connected to a list of such repositories maintained by Special Collections at the University of Idaho Library.
3. The "Gentle Introduction to SGML," available at *http://info.ox.ac.uk/~archive/teip3sg/*, is an excellent primer on SGML. It utilizes in its examples the Text Encoding Initiative (TEI) DTD for the analysis of literary texts. Another good resource for general SGML information is the SGML Webpage maintained by Robin Cover at *http://www.sil.org/sgml/sgml.html*.
4. Information regarding Panorama, an SGML-aware browsing application currently available for the Windows platform only, is at *http://www.sq.com/products/panorama/panor-fe.htm*; information about Arena, currently in the development stages, is available at *http://www.w3.org/hypertext/WWW/Arena/faq*.
5. Information regarding the use of style sheets with HTML documents is available at *http://www.w3.org/pub/WWW/Style/*.
6. Web browsing for this review was conducted using Netscape 1.1 on a Power Macintosh 7200. Connection to the Web was via the School of Information and Library Studies server at the University of Michigan, using a Global Village TelePort Platinum modem.
7. Sources for further information regarding Encoded Archival Description include the online discussion list EAD (send an e-mail message to manager@sunsite.berkeley.edu for subscription information); Daniel Pitti, et al., "Encoding Standard for Electronic Finding Aids," *Archival Outlook* (January 1996): 10-13; and, on the Web, *http://sunsite.berkeley.edu/FindingAids/*.
8. SGML-compliant documents can contain generic areas for information. Meta-information about the document can be separated from the information in the document itself. In one possible scenario, a digitized image of a single item from an archival collection could be the sole displayable content of a file tagged using a hypothetical DTD. Meta-information about that image, such as links to the appropriate EAD-tagged finding aid, technical information about the digital image itself, and links to preceding and succeeding images if this is one in a series of images, could be contained in a file header that serves permanently to link this information to the image facsimile. One potential benefit of this independence of digital facsimiles of collection items is that these images could then be more easily used outside of the structure of the finding aid, such as in online exhibits.
9. The HTML information directory maintained by Yahoo at *http://www.yahoo.com/Computers/World_Wide_Web/HTML/* is another good source for information, especially regarding HTML 3.0.

DOCUMENTING THE DIFFICULT OR COLLECTING THE CONTROVERSIAL

KAREN M. LAMOREE

ABSTRACT: Conflict has traditionally been a wellspring of historical research and interpretation, for it is inherently interesting. Examining controversy permits study not only of the contested issue itself but also of the context in which it is found and the factors that led to its appearance. Despite such inherent interest many archival and manuscript repositories have failed to document relatively recent conflicts in their areas of collection responsibility. Why, as a profession, are we reluctant to document the battles over school prayer, integration, abortion, gay rights, and even the fluoridation of water?

Political conflict of the legislative kind from any period is automatically accorded historical significance by our profession. *Old* community disagreements, particularly if all participants are long dead, are also apparently deserving of historical attention. In contrast, political conflict of the grassroots sort, the messy, divisive, deeply felt, sometimes ugly sort, is often seen as less worthy of our professional attention, especially if it is current. Perhaps this judgment reflects less an historical analysis than our own discomfort with conflict, inexperience in analyzing current events for historical importance, elitism, fear of being tainted by controversy in coming near it, and/or lack of knowledge about the best way to proceed with documenting controversy.

Lack of knowledge and the fear of being tainted with the brush of controversy often seem to override a repository's potential interest in documenting a conflict. Knowledge can be obtained only through experience; a repository or archivist embarking on documenting a controversy should indeed proceed with caution. Nonetheless, most, if not all, potential problems can be avoided by a careful and thoughtful approach to collecting. *The key to success lies in a strategy for documenting an issue rather than a side, group, or individual.* Other essential points are always to present a neutral, objective, professional image; to constantly reiterate the fact that the repository's program and personnel are neutral, fair, and evenhanded; to provide a forum in which everyone with an axe to grind may talk with the archivist as part of a local documentation project; to know the issue and the participants to the extent that the archivist can anticipate their reactions; to have the right staff; and, finally, to have the right timing.

Documenting an issue rather than an individual, side, or particular event places a repository in the best possible position to reap the fullest benefits and

incur the fewest losses, both politically and professionally. *The potential to obtain a well-rounded and complete collection is the most important long-term benefit from issue-oriented collecting.* Such holdings permit and encourage comprehensive research which might then depict the complexity of society and promote more sophisticated analyses.[1]

Collecting, or at least attempting to collect, material on all sides in a dispute also enables the repository to present itself as fair and evenhanded, a desirable and useful image. Fairness, both apparent and real, is an essential, even necessary, aspect of documenting a controversial issue. From childhood cries of "No fair!" on the sports field, to jury deliberations involving large corporations' liability, to the current debate over affirmative action, Americans seemingly have a passion for the pursuit of fairness. This concern often manifests itself in a desire for one's story to be included as fully as possible and cries of foul when an individual or group feels left out or misrepresented (as any parent of two or more children can attest). Encouraging all participants to donate materials fosters a sense of inclusion, enables actors in an issue to be participants in the documentation of that issue, and often diffuses criticism of a repository's choice of documentation projects. Occasionally, a group not necessarily considered fanatical will argue against fairness. Such groups are vocal minorities seeking to erase painful memories or otherwise "offensive" events or words from existence. Being sensitive to such feelings should not preclude professional responsibility to fairness, objectivity, and intellectual freedom, all fostered through collecting comprehensive, well-rounded collections.

In donor or public relations, this neutral and comprehensive position allows staff to counter arguments that the repository should not be documenting the "other side." In the State Historical Society of Wisconsin's statewide treaty rights and national abortion collecting projects, staff has found that the vast majority of people can not, or will not, argue with the fairness of documenting both sides because that would make *them* seem unfair.

The key to handling activists is to know and understand their level of activism. As one progresses up the ladder toward fanaticism, the fairness argument can become less effective. In such cases, a useful technique is to ask, "What do you think of the other side?" Inevitably the answer of an activist of this type will be, "They are evil, or at the very least, crazy." The archivist may then ask, "How will people of the future know that unless we document what *they* think and what *they* do?" Most people are swayed by this point. If not, their next argument tends to be that the other side's attitudes, actions, or materials are deeply offensive and should not be saved. It is not effective to say, "In this country we do not have a right to not be offended." Rather, the archivist should return to the last point, with a new twist: "If you find that material offensive, if you cannot believe that someone would say, think, do such a thing, imagine how unbelievable it will be for people of the future to understand not only the other side but also your response if they don't know to what you were/are responding? Isn't it important that we remember that this exists?" The author has found that this argument almost always brings agreement.

Occasionally, there may well be fanatics who will not participate in your project if you so much as mention the other side and, although usually small in number, they can make a lot of noise, especially when they are staff in your own institution. The collecting path should be so well prepared that everyone

touched by the project responds that it is being run professionally, objectively, and fairly. To take a lesson from the advertising world, if one says something long enough, often enough, and loud enough, people will buy the product. As many a manufacturer has learned, however, the public will keep buying a product only if it lives up to its promises. The repository must truly make the attempt to document the issue.

The repository can emphasize its neutrality by the title or description of the well-rounded, comprehensive project. For example, rather than announce that the repository is documenting the "attempts of Earth Firsters to stop local logging," state that the goal is to document natural resource allocation. Stating that it is documenting "racism toward American Indians" will not build as many bridges as a statement that the repository is documenting race relations. At all times, stick with the official title of the project and do not shorten it to the "Earth First" project or the "tree huggers" project. Somehow, someway, someone will hear about it, decide the repository and/or the archivist has a bias, and the repository and project will suffer for it.

The right staff people are crucial to the success of this type of collecting. Just as not every archivist is suited to donor relations, not every donor relations archivist is suited to documenting controversy. The archivist must be able to look at and to be involved in an issue solely from an historical viewpoint, ignoring or suppressing personal beliefs or transforming them into useful tools. Archivists must be professional and objective in their demeanor and interactions with donors, the press, and the public in general at *all* times. This means that the archivist must not participate publicly in any partisan activity which touches on the issue, from protesting at a rally to writing letters to the editor of the local newspaper. Maintaining neutrality is essential to successful donor and public relations in collecting controversies.

To be sure, this is a fine line the archivist must tread. While using the helpful approach of appealing to a potential donor's ego, the archivist must avoid sycophancy or acceptance of a subordinate status as such a position will result in loss of control over the donor relations interaction. The archivist must seem sympathetic, understanding, and accepting, yet not make a point of agreeing with the potential donor. She or he must be able to hide incredulity or even disgust at a belief expressed or outright lie told by either side of an issue. It may be difficult, but it is just as important, to hide one's opinions from those with whom one agrees as from those with whom one disagrees, in order to maintain the image of a fair, objective professional. Potential donors may ask the archivist quite bluntly for their opinion on the issue. They may ask subtly, or they may wait to see if they can ascertain it from words, demeanor, or body language. When asked, the archivist should be prepared to answer. The author has found the following response to be effective: "My opinion is quite irrelevant because I am acting as an objective, professional archivist and historian." This will reinforce the stance of neutrality and invariably halt further questioning, without seeming terse. For those who continue to prod, it is best to deflect them with humor; have a joke or two prepared in advance. To be sure, working with fanatics is neither enjoyable nor easy, and even the staff person most capable of suppressing personal beliefs will have the occasional problem dealing with such individuals. If all else fails, the staff can remind themselves that they have the power to ensure that this type of thought or action is documented for posterity.

In short, donors will think the archivist and the repository are going to handle the papers well either because the archivist agrees with them or because the archivist is a professional and that is what professionals do. The latter is a preferred belief to cultivate in terms of donor relations. Agreeing with a donor's politics for the sake of obtaining a collection always puts the repository in a precarious position, if only because if one side thinks staff agrees with it, the other side will learn of it. Then the mantle of objectivity is removed and at the very least the repository will not get materials from the opposing position.

To foster and reinforce the appropriate image and to begin collecting, the repository must be visible and open to all sides. For example, in the case of the raging and sometimes violent conflict over treaty rights in Wisconsin, which occurred during the 1980s and early 1990s, the author visited reservations and nearby towns and talked with everyone possible in the fall, when tensions were low. In the spring, when controversy was at its height, the author visited a boat landing during a protest, in part to ascertain how best to document this aspect of the issue. The press, which converged on the landings every spring, had heard of the Historical Society's work and sought the author out for a story. The reporters were so intrigued with the notion of documenting history as it happens that the Society received three highly favorable articles in papers throughout the state. These visits provided not only an opportunity to collect, but also a visible presence and a chance for people on all sides to give staff "advice" on how to document the issue in a well-rounded manner.

Providing people with a chance to talk with an historian/archivist is an especially effective way to involve people in a project, make them feel good about it, and yet maintain control. Performing oral history interviews is another way to achieve these goals and, more importantly, to capture those aspects not otherwise documented.

In its nearly century-long practice of documenting social action, the State Historical Society of Wisconsin has endeavored to collect information and materials about a controversy either as it was happening or shortly thereafter. Two of our best-known areas of collecting—the anti-Vietnam War movement and the civil rights movement—were documented as they happened. However, they were not the result of efforts to document an issue but movements organized against the existing order. Today wherever possible the Society documents issues to achieve a well-rounded collection which permits research not merely of particular aspects of an issue, but also the interrelationships between philosophies, practices, and people. Timing, however, remains essential. The information and paper explosions notwithstanding, we live in a mobile, disposable-oriented society which does not foster the saver mentality or space necessary for fruitful collecting twenty years hence. If the repository approaches an issue at the right time, the archivist will only occasionally find donors who want to retain their papers indefinitely out of sentimentality, belief in their currency, or fear of allowing them "out." In such cases, if the collection is less than a cubic foot or so and staff consider it to be highly important, it is usually possible to arrange to duplicate it. If the collection is larger, it is best to inform the donor of existing interest and keep in close contact. The more common problem with contemporary collecting is a donor's desire to restrict all or part of a collection because of privacy, safety, or confidentiality concerns. Depending on the issue in question and its currency, these concerns are not *necessarily* the result

of paranoia. If the collection merits acceptance and the donor is handled with care, the papers may be donated with some restrictions, which, of course, have a sunset date on them.

The Society's history of documenting controversies is of great benefit in collecting materials about contemporary conflicts, not only because current donors can find something with which they agree or that they admire in our "older" collections, but because of the long tradition staff can point to when seeking documentation of potential hot potato controversies such as the treaty rights issue or the national debate over abortion. Having a proven track record when it comes to handling difficult issues is a useful advantage and one that can and should be cultivated over time. For example, on the few occasions when someone has expressed disbelief about the Society's wading into treaty rights or abortion, someone else will invariably dismiss their concern with, "Oh, they always do stuff like that." When an individual or institution does something "outrageous" successfully and long enough, it begins to seem "normal."

In conclusion, several factors are keys to documenting a controversy. First, choose an issue rather than a group, side, or individual. Staff must know the issue and the players well, be able to anticipate their reactions, and counter any arguments against the project. They must always present a neutral, objective, professional image. Reiterate that both staff and repository are neutral, fair, and evenhanded. Provide an opportunity for all parties to speak to staff as part of a local documentation project, but structure such a forum so that staff retains control of the conversation and of the project. Finally, the project needs the right staff and the support of the larger organization. Documenting a controversy requires playing one's cards right, and proper planning and implementation can provide the repository with a winning hand.

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NOTE

1. If it is not possible or necessary to document both sides, the repository should state its intent to document the issue as far as possible. If another institution or corporate body has responsibility or authority over records documenting an aspect or side of the issue, staff should know what the other repository is collecting and be in communication with it. Resources should be spread evenly over the issue if they are limited; do not document only one side because of resource deficiencies. Such decisions are, to outsiders, clear indications of the repository's stance on the issue.

WOMEN COACHES, PERSONAL PAPERS, AND UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES COLLECTIONS: A CASE STUDY

MILA C. SU

ABSTRACT: Collegiate athletics are an important campus institution that tends not to be adequately documented in university archival collections. This is especially true with regard to women's athletics. The author presents the results of a case study in which she examined the personal papers of four coaches of women's intercollegiate athletic teams held in the Penn State Archives, in order to assess their utility in documenting women's intercollegiate athletics. She concludes that existing collections do not provide adequate documentation, although she considers coaches' papers to be an appropriate vehicle for providing that documentation. She suggests appraisal guidelines for materials likely to be found in coaches' papers, and argues for oral history as a means toward filling documentary gaps.

Academic archives, a body of materials that includes the records of the academic, business, and extracurricular activities of the university population and its affiliates, maintain the historical memory of the institution. However, in the area of extra-curricular activities—specifically in the area of athletics—academic archivists do not necessarily apply the same level of scrutiny as in other areas. Yet information on intercollegiate sport has a place in university archives, especially with an increasing interest in the role of sport[1] in academia. Thus it is important to begin to establish effective strategies for collecting and acquiring this type of information in order to ensure its existence. As archives collect faculty members' papers to enhance documentation of institutional history, so too should they collect coaches' papers. I therefore conducted a case study to examine what types of coaches' materials exist in an institutional archives.

The original intent of this project was to evaluate the papers of four coaches in the Penn State Archives. This exercise has introduced some of the potential problems and issues involved in gaining an understanding of what can be found in collections of coaches' papers. Reviewing the selected materials in the archives revealed several factors that could influence how and where information is saved. Also, I interviewed coaches who had placed their materials in the Sports Information Department to gain a better understanding of why they had done that.

Naturally, a coach plays an important role in sports, but not many people consider the amount of paperwork and record keeping that is also part of the job. She or he has responsibilities for training, recruiting, monitoring practices, and many other activities. A coach's record keeping may include recording and collecting information on opposing teams and players, concerns about his/her team and players, rule changes, daily practice drills, disciplinary actions, and other things that may affect his/her decision making about the team. There are also specific types of information required by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and the various conferences and division levels, including recruiting visits, injuries, grievances, and so forth.

But how much of all these materials does a coach actually retain and forward for posterity to the university archives? In order to discover what might possibly exist in a university archives, my case study examined and assessed materials relating to four coaches of five different women's sports in the Pennsylvania State University Archives. The sports represented are volleyball, gymnastics, field hockey, lacrosse, and swimming. The study evaluated the differences in the collection materials retained between coaches of team and individual sports, between coaches of different genders, and among coaches of different sports. I hoped that this procedure would also determine the types of materials that were missing in these collections that should be considered for preservation in a women's intercollegiate athletic collection.

Archival collections include many materials related to sport,[2] but sport is a subject area in which many archives do not have formalized appraisal guidelines for establishing or monitoring a collection. The absence of a collecting policy for intercollegiate athletics may have several causes: a lack of awareness of researcher interest, insufficient or inadequate staff to solicit and appraise materials, or a conscious decision not to include sports. Unfortunately, the archival literature contains little concerning sport materials to help archivists.[3]

Helen Samuels' *Varsity Letters* (1993) addresses some of the issues and problems that pertain to sport collections in archives. Samuels forms her archival philosophy around the functions of colleges and universities and therefore includes the areas of extracurricular activities as a distinct functional area. She emphasizes that sports, among other activities, need to be focused on more closely.

Certainly in the area of women's sports, many guides and handbooks for coaches and players, as well as anthologies on the history of women's participation in sport, exist. However, aside of Nancy Ley's *The Summitt Season* (1989) very little has been published for biographies of women's coaches who have made an impact on the sport. Apart from Joan Hult's *A Century of Women's Basketball: From Frailty to Final Four* (1991) it is difficult to find a publication that contains a full account of the history and development of a specific sport. Compilations such as Michael Davis' *Black Women in Olympic Track and Field* (1992) and chronologies such as Ruth Sparhawk's *American Women in Sport 1887-1987, a 100 Year Chronology* (1989) are combined histories that focus on the famous few athletes on the professional or Olympic level. It has only been in recent years that the success of women's sports is spoken of with pride and that women are presented with honors similar to their male counterparts. Thus an evaluation will provide an assessment of the archival materials that are available on women's intercollegiate athletics.

Authors of intercollegiate sport history have incorporated few archival sources in their biographies of coaches and books on team histories. I reviewed a random selection of biographies of college coaches and histories of specific sports to assess how many sources included archival research[4] (See Appendix 2 for a list of titles). Of the eighteen sources reviewed, only seven cited the use of archival materials. Some of the biographies included information from the sports information office, but generally coaches' biographies do not include bibliographies or footnotes.[5]

One notes, in reviewing the titles listed in Appendix 2, that the focus is on men and their sports. This gap reflects the traditional emphasis to publish materials on men's sports with little available in print on women's coaches, women's teams, or women's sports in general.[6] While the role of women in the extra-curriculum has not been ignored, women's sports are a unique story that deserves attention.

Women's intercollegiate athletics began very differently from men's. Soon after women entered institutions of higher education (coed and single sex), they were required to participate in exercise and sport activities under the guidance of physical educators. These educators formed athletic associations for women that emphasized development of skills, motor coordination, socialization, and the spirit of cooperation. At many institutions during the 1920s, the Women's Athletic Association existed under the direction of the women's physical education department. Most athletic contests were between dorms, sororities, and other residential groups. There were different levels of participation through intramural, interclass, and club activities that, while physical, functioned more in a social framework.[7] Participation in recreational physical activities continued under departments of physical education until the 1960s.[8] Times were changing and, during the 1960s, women students and others began to question and criticize the "non-competitive" construct of participation and began to explore a more competitive style of play. This change was directly reflected in the women's athletic associations. By 1968, serious consideration on how women's intercollegiate athletics would be structured was under committee investigation. By 1971, the women in physical education and athletics formed a new organization that would be known as the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). This unique organization was responsible for overseeing all aspects of women's athletics and maintained this responsibility until 1982 when, after a heated struggle, the organization lost its control of women's sport to the NCAA.

The difference in the development of women's sport from departmental control to athletic program, in comparison to men's separate program development, is a crucial point in researching this area. Naturally, this would reflect the history of the particular institution.[9] Information from department, college, and program files may alert the researcher to check other related records such as senate files, school newspapers, yearbooks, and sports information.

Neglect and ignorance contribute to the problems associated with one's researching women's intercollegiate athletics. Coach, archivist, and researcher all may fail to realize why collecting this information is important. Neglect of the collection can result from this subject area's being overlooked in past years; from infrequent donations of materials; or from a casual approach by the archivist and the persons involved with sport with regard to retaining informa-

tion that might serve to contribute to the institutional memory. However, as women's intercollegiate athletics has grown stronger, awareness of its existence and contribution to the institution has increased. Educating coaches, archivists, and others on why collecting information in this area is important would increase the materials that are available.

As indicated by the previous discussion of the scarcity of information in the literature, a basic issue revolves around the types of materials that would be collected: coaches' papers, administrative records, compiled histories of the sport, student records, scholarship files, sports information records, press releases, student newspapers, conference membership records, both institutional and individual, and so forth. Archivists would then need to describe these materials in a method that allows easy access. Traditionally, these materials are found within records of the institutional body that created the materials. Administrative records would therefore include the record groups of the university presidents, departments and colleges, and senate minutes. Video tapes and photographs produced by the sports information department would also be found within that group.

This case study began with a review of the administrative history of the athletic department to establish a framework for understanding where coaching responsibilities fall. Women at Penn State had their own separate physical education department by the turn of the century. The university incorporated athletics with physical education in the School of Physical Education and Athletics from 1930 to 1963. In 1952, a Director of Athletics position was created and became independent of the College of Health and Physical Education in 1963. By 1965, there were seven varsity sports for women as well as an administrative position of Woman's Assistant Athletic Director to oversee their growth and development. In the PSU archives, the Women's Recreation Association encompasses the years 1919-1974, and records of women's intercollegiate athletics start in 1961. This means that these two groups have a thirteen-year overlap in which important materials regarding the transition at Penn State to varsity level competition are found.

In more than twenty-five years, Penn State women's varsity teams have successfully participated in many national championship competitions and won a number of national titles. They have gained national attention and a strong following on campus, in the community, and among alumni. I reviewed the papers of the coaches for the sports of volleyball, gymnastics, swimming, and field hockey and lacrosse to assess what types of materials actually are available in the Penn State Archives.

Volleyball

The materials documenting the beginnings of women's intercollegiate volleyball are located in the coach's personal papers.[10] He initially coached both men's and women's programs and had to petition three times to have volleyball moved from club to varsity status for both men and women. This was a case in which the student interest was strong, but no funding or administrative interest in investing personnel resources for this sport existed. The collection preserves important documentation of the origins of the team and the process and struggle of appealing for varsity status. Additionally, there are scrapbooks, information

on sport camps, records of his coaching honors, correspondence, policies, rules and procedures, and committee appointments. There are also newspaper clippings, a few media guides, and some statistical information on the various teams. The coach donated this collection after retiring from coaching. This appears to be a typical collection in its combination of statistical, historical, and personal information.

Gymnastics

The women's gymnastics coach donated her papers before she moved to another institution. She had not only saved some interesting information but had also organized her records thoroughly. For each season, every meet has its own separate file. Score sheets and programs are found in almost every folder. Sometimes there are annotations on a folder with driving directions to the competition. From time to time she filed coaching notes on individuals. She included tournament situations, marching and rotation information, behavior expectations, and rules. One also found indications that she considered protesting the results of meets on occasion and, in one case, she responds to another coach's accusations of unethical behavior. The collection even contains a note proposing a program overhaul to improve the team's image with the press. All this information provided a sense of how the coach worked and how the program evolved.

Field Hockey, Lacrosse, and Swimming

The field hockey and lacrosse coach and the swimming coach each gave her materials to the Sports Information Department. The materials were incorporated into the department's records and forwarded to the archives where, according to provenance, they were filed in the Sports Information record group. This example reflects another area where coaching materials may be found, as well as demonstrating why other access points need to be considered. These records provide an idea of the coaching information that might be found in sports information records.

The women's swimming materials included statistics, game programs, and regional and national championship programs. Only one letter concerned advance scheduling of meets. The files on meets included correspondence among the athletic director, sports information personnel, and visiting coaches. Other documents indicate that the coach had been on several committees that examined sports issues, including issues in women's athletics.

The same person coached both field hockey and lacrosse. This collection contains newspaper clippings, programs, media guides, score sheets from every game, team lineups, national championship programs, and an article from *Time* featuring a woman lacrosse player from Penn State on the cover. Press releases provide additional information, such as the circumstances associated with the lacrosse coach's resignation and negotiated rehire in 1983. The lacrosse file has very little information on the coach's personal style of coaching, on changes that she made in game plans, or on related issues. Materials that might have been of interest, such as diagrams of plays, lobbying for rule changes, and other contributions that this coach made, are not available.

Little difference is evident in the type of materials donated by these two coaches. A press release on their accomplishments was published when both women retired. The swimming coach became an administrator and the field hockey-lacrosse coach returned to full-time teaching. Upon retiring from coaching, they forwarded information they thought would be of interest to the sports information office. Neither coach had considered giving her coaching papers to the archives.

Comparing the four collections contributes to understanding some of the issues at play in archives. The volleyball coach's papers comprise a good cross section of what a coach might save. The scrapbooks provide a brief history of the sport at the institution. Documentation of the struggle toward varsity status shows the effort it took to attain that goal. Other information places the coach in the national perspective. The gymnastics coach's papers offered another perspective. The arrangement of her materials reflected her organizational skills. Even though she retained mostly game statistics, she included other information that gave a glimpse of her personality and a feeling for her aggressive style. The information from the swimming and field hockey-lacrosse coach revealed very little about either coach's style or personality; rather, they reflected institutional concerns about documenting the success of the teams.

After examining these latter two coaches' files from the sports information records, I decided to use oral interviews to discover what information about these coaches might be missing from their records. The follow-up questions that were used in the interviews are listed in Appendix 1. The information requested in the questions had the potential to supplement the personal files of these former coaches.

From these interviews, I learned many aspects of the coaches' careers and personal philosophies that were not documented. For example, during their tenure as coaches, both were also faculty members who felt teaching was their primary goal as a coach. They were proud of their career achievements, noting their success in enlarging their coaching staff, improving budgets, and including scholarships. They filed annual team reports to the women's assistant athletic director, but never kept copies in their personal files. They were active in professional organizations that governed changes in women's athletics, especially regarding rules. Implementation of rule changes is a major contribution to the development of a sport, but unfortunately this information was not available. Because of the lack of personal files in this area, one would have to rely on the minutes of participating organizations to verify who contributed to the discussion of the rule changes.

In their interviews, both coaches expressed personal frustration with the perception that women's athletics are less important and competitive than men's, although they noted improvement in this attitude more recently. They told me that these three teams had been the subjects of studies by university researchers, but no documentation is found within the records either describing the studies or suggesting their results. Both teams were unable to go abroad to compete because of financial constraints, even though great interest by coaches and players existed. However, the field hockey and lacrosse teams were able to host several teams from England, which accorded the players a taste of international competition and attitudes. Both coaches had many speaking engagements locally, regionally, and nationally. These engagements occurred specifically for their sport(s) and, generally, on behalf of Penn State.

The coaches' responses to these questions supplied a better sense of their coaching philosophy, expectations, and responsibilities. During the interviews, the former coaches began to understand the potential importance for historians of their contribution to the institution and, therefore, the significance of the future availability of their papers. In fact, while being interviewed, the former swimming coach reported that many team files, including a brief history of women's swimming at Penn State, were housed in a storage area at the natatorium. I passed this information on to the archivists.

In analyzing my case study, I found it difficult to determine if differences due to gender of coach or type of sport might contribute to a pattern in the types of information that were saved. It was also not possible to assess whether the coach's personality and attitude toward the importance of saving these materials would necessarily be reflected in the results. The initial response from the two former coaches who were interviewed contained a mix of curiosity and disbelief. This attitude seemed to stem from their perception that the primary focus in sports is on the contests and their final results. These coaches did not really care for attention focusing on them rather than on the team; they wanted to remain behind the scenes.

Coaches do not look at their activities in the same way that faculty members do. Faculty understand that seeking out information is a natural step prior to writing a paper or conducting an experiment. Still, many, if not most, faculty do not see what they do as being worth documenting in an archives, much as coaches do not necessarily document all of their activities. The days of keeping diaries of the drills and activities used in practices and games, along with the successes and failures of each, are long gone. The evolution of a sport and the development and maturation of a coach are much harder to document without materials that reflect the coach's style, philosophy, and accomplishments on and off the field. Legal issues are beginning to influence the need for more complete documentation in various activities. Many times, because of multiple duties, coaches do not have the time to document all of the ongoing activities involved with the team. Researchers would be interested in all the steps, procedures, and related information involved with the individual's tenure as a coach.

Archivists should conduct further study of coaches' papers to fully assess the issues involved. Further discussion must address the gaps in the records of coaches' activities and how they can be filled. Oral histories can capture missing information. Additional questions, beyond those found in Appendix 1, could include how the coach contributed to his/her sport historically through rule changes and specific game incidents or controversies (protests, tournament appeals, dangerous game conditions, questionable officiating, and unethical behavior of coaches or players). These are all little pieces of the greater picture concerning the contributions of women's intercollegiate athletics.

Concurrent with the growing interest in the history of intercollegiate athletics for men and women will be the use of academic archives. If archivists begin to consider and implement strategies to ensure these materials are collected, they will preserve the various levels of activity within intercollegiate athletics.

As the case study evolved, I expanded the list of issues and concerns that are involved with coaching. From this list I developed a set of collecting guidelines for soliciting coaches' papers to help educate those in athletics and to assist archivists (see Appendix 3). Since there has been no defined approach for col-

lecting and identifying materials in sport, I hope that these suggestions help those who consider developing a policy.

This case study revealed that the topical area of women's intercollegiate sport, particularly coaching, is not adequately documented in archives and that a formalized strategy needs to be developed. It is my hope that people involved in this area will become educated with regard to how their role can contribute to preserving this information. Coaches have a responsibility to contribute to an understanding of the history of athletic teams and sport in the academy. Adoption and consideration of a collecting policy will clarify the materials an archives should keep. Researchers who understand the various record series to access for coaching information in an archives will expedite their research. With this shared understanding, cooperation among these parties can contribute to new insights into the role of athletics within university life. Now is the time to act to ensure that the archival legacy in this area survives.

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NOTES

1. In this paper, the word sport, referring to athletic contests in which there is an outcome, will be used in reference to all sports in general. There will be occasions when the word sport and sports, that is in reference to a particular sport, are used interchangeably.
2. The most typical materials might include programs, press materials, photographs, videotapes and films, sports artifacts, memorabilia, posters, and oral histories.
3. Two recent conference papers, however, do address this area: Douglas A. Noverr, "Sport Archives: A Preliminary and Selective Survey of Patterns of Use, Needs and Resources" (Paper delivered at the North American Sport Library Network Conference, Overland Park, Kan., October 1991), and Amy Doherty, "College and University Sports Collections: Their Unique Collections and Nature" (Paper delivered at the spring meeting of the Mid-Atlantic Regional Archives Conference, New Jersey, May 1993). Noverr's paper reported his survey of various archives and hall of fame sport collections concerning their holdings and procedures for collecting, maintaining, and providing user services in the area of sport. Doherty's paper described the varied uses of a sports collection and the multitude of areas in archives that can be accessed while researching. She also discussed the issues of documentation and collecting information for sport archives. See also Maynard Brichford, "University Archives: Relationship With Faculty," pp. 31-37, and Laurence Veysey, "A Scholar's View of University Archives" pp. 145-154, both published in *The Management of College and University Archives* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1992), which also provide useful background on faculty knowledge and use of archives. Brichford's article emphasizes the role of the faculty as users and donors of archival materials. He discusses why archivists need to develop a relationship with this group of people and the types of materials they generate. Veysey comments on the tendency to view an institutional archives locally when in actuality there is more than a one-dimensional relationship involved. Not only do archivists collect materials that are generated by their parent institution, they also, by virtue of inter-institutional communication, receive materials generated by other institutions and individuals. Therefore, it is more sensible to see institutional archives functioning on a national level as well as on local and regional levels. He also emphasizes the need to solicit materials from faculty to help balance the collection. These articles are relevant in understanding issues regarding faculty materials which are related to coaching materials.
4. The perception that the materials on team histories and coaching biographies are of public rather than academic interest contributes to the lack of archival use.

5. An example of archival materials on sport history ending up in archival custody can be found in Lynn Marr-Hugunia, *A History of Iowa Wrestling 1912-1984* (Ames, IA: Nicholas Enterprises, 1986). In this history of wrestling at Iowa State the author states in his preface about his thirty year cumulation of papers: "I was going to throw them out but...." He fortunately was persuaded otherwise and the papers are now housed in the archives.
6. Two recent publications on women coaches recently appeared: Nancy L. Price, *Courtly Love: A Profile of Coach Marsha Sharpe* (Arlington, TX: Sweet Pea Press, 1994), and Nena Rey Hawkes, *Elaine Michaels: Grand Lady of Volleyball* (Thesis, Union Institute, 1994).
7. Rewards were based on a point system for participation rather than on achievement. The associations allowed women to compete against each other through activities known as "field days," "play days," and, later on, "sport days" where exposure to various sports and social interactions occurred. During this time these events evolved from students representing different institutions playing together on one team against another similarly formed team, to multiple-sport events, to specific sport days where women from different institutions played against one another. Competitions were also held through telegraphing the results of individuals among various institutions. The athletic associations present in the majority of institutions provided leadership opportunities for students to direct the various programs. With the stigma that was attached to the word "athletic," some associations were later renamed "recreation associations."
8. In general, there was a movement for women's athletic teams to achieve varsity status during the mid-1960s to the early 1970s. However, when Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 (20 U.S.C.A., sec. 1681-1686) was passed, it required many institutions to implement varsity status by 1974.
9. Many of the coed institutions and women's colleges provided early opportunities for women to participate in "competitive" physical activities. For these institutions, from the 1800s to the middle of the nineteenth to mid twentieth century, the main archival access points to women's sport will be under the physical education department records. There is a point in time for every institution where athletics and physical education splits into two separately administered departments. Again this varies by institution as well as for men's and women's athletics. However, as a general observation, by the later part of the twentieth century, women's sport is no longer under the auspices of the physical education department, but is separately administered under intercollegiate athletics usually with administrators of the unit.
10. Both men and women were coached simultaneously from club level to varsity status.

APPENDIX 1

Oral Interview Questions

1. What was your academic status?
2. What did you think your role was as a coach in higher education?
3. What do you feel you have contributed to PSU athletics?
4. Were you involved in:
   - achieving varsity status?
   - maintaining a budget?
   - recruiting?
   - awarding scholarships?
   - acquiring assistant coaches
   - protesting games?
   - legal repercussions?
5. What were your responsibilities? To whom did you have to report information?
6. What kind(s) of information did you have to report?
7. What positions did you hold in local, regional, and national associations? (contribution to sport/rules)
8. What was the most frustrating aspect of being a coach?
9. Was the team ever the subject of study by persons/departments doing research at PSU?
10. Did you ever take the team abroad?
11. Did you ever have speaking engagements?
12. What are the three biggest changes you have seen during the years you have coached to the present?

APPENDIX 2

Bibliography of Selected Titles that were Reviewed

* Barner, W. G. *Mississippi Mayhem.* New York: Leisure Press, 1982.

* Borkowski, Richard P. *Life and Contribution of Walter Camp to American Football.* Thesis: Temple University, 1979.

Caldwell, Howard. *Tony Hinkel: Coach for All Seasons.* Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1991.

Clary, Jack. *Army vs. Navy: Seventy Years of Football Rivalry.* New York: Ronald Press, 1965.

Cross, George Lynn. *Presidents Can't Punt.* Tulsa: University of Oklahoma Press, 1977.

Herskowitz, Mickey. *The Legend of Bear Bryant.* New York: McGraw Hill, 1987.

Koehler, Michal D. *America's Greatest Coaches.* Champaign, Illinois: Leisure Press, 1990.

* Look, Margaret K. *Courtney Master Oarsman, Champion Coach.* Interlaken, New York: Empire State Books, 1989.

McCallum, John D. *PAC-10 Football: The Rose Bowl Conference.* Seattle: Writing Works, 1982.

* Marr-Hugunia, Lynn. A *History of Wrestling at Iowa State University, 1912-1985.* Ames, Iowa: Nicholas Enterprises, 1986.

Nickerson, Elinor. *Golf: a Womens' History.* Jefferson, North Carolina: McFarland, 1987.

* O'Brien, Michael. *Vince: a Personal Biography of Vince Lombardi.* New York: Morrow, 1987.

* Rice, Russell. *The Wildcats: a Story of Kentucky Football.* Huntsville, Alabama: Strode, 1975.

Stabley, Fred. *The Spartans: A Story of Michigan State Football.* Huntsville, Alabama: Strode, 1975.

* Steele, Michael R. *Knute Rockne: a Biobibliography.* Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1983.

* Webb, Bernice Larson. *The Basketball Man: James Naismith.* Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1973.

Will, Perry. *The Wolverines: a Story of Michigan Football.* Huntsville, Alabama: Strode, 1974.

* asterisk indicates that archival resources were used and cited by the author.

APPENDIX 3

Collecting Guidelines for Coaches' Papers: Suggested Records and Manuscripts

Coaches contribute to an academic institutions' history and culture. Their papers and related information should be saved so the information may be used by researchers in the future. The following list is by no means inclusive, but serves to highlight information that can be used. Archivists need to exercise caution regarding confidentiality of student information. For any additional information contact the staff at the University archives.

1. Annual reports or related types of documentation that show a progression/direction/ philosophy of the coach and team.
2. Correspondence of coaches on all matters of team issues; e.g. scheduling, team philosophy/discipline, controversies, etc.
3. History or notes of rule changes that affect the team, sport, coaching, etc.
4. Documentation on changes in team status e.g., club to varsity or attempts to change status.
5. Studies or experiments conducted by other departments (a note of referral to department, and type of experiment would provide a cross reference).
6. Documents regarding permanence of coaching and other personnel.
7. Notes regarding practice schedules, diaries/journals.
8. Copies of speeches and other presentations.
9. Testimonies before legislative or investigative bodies.
10. Committee reports (internal and external) and staff meeting minutes.
11. Media guides, programs (if not already transferred by sports information), and other printed materials (scrapbooks).
12. Photographs: teams and individuals.
13. Films, video, or audio tapes.

PUBLICATION REVIEWS

Archives Interdites: Les Peurs Françaises face à l'Histoire Contemporaine. By Sonia Combe. Paris, France: Albin Michel, 1994. 327 pp. Bibliography. 120 French francs.

In the last month of 1994 a book appeared in France, written by a researcher who identifies herself as a specialist in Eastern European history. The author, Sonia Combe, is associated with a library of international contemporary history, the Bibliothèque de documentation internationale contemporaine. When her book was released, on a cold winter day, the small world of French archives was totally upset. French archivists do not like making a fuss about what they say or what they do. However, perhaps for the first time in many years, someone who did not belong to "their" background dared speak about their everyday work in contemporary archives, especially archives of World War II, which is a special period for France since the Republic disappeared and institutions changed. Worse, she dared judge and criticize what they did. Indeed such an attitude is rather uncommon: people, be they researchers, who are not well accustomed to the world of archives are wise enough not to assert what they do not really know. In explanations which are not always very clear, Combe tries to prove that the French government struggled from 1945 until now to hide the truth of 1940-1945 French history from researchers. First she explains that French archivists are taught in a graduate governmental school, l'Ecole nationale des chartes in Paris. She almost depicts it as a camp where students are trained to tell what the French administration wants them to say (pp. 51-75). There are many mistakes in her analysis. For instance, she tries to show, in a very unclear Freudian explanation, that the archivist is a bitter researcher and that that would be the reason why he would be so eager to hide materials from the historian. This does not seem to be very convincing.

Then Combe deals with the French law on archives of January 1, 1979. This part is really more interesting (pp. 79-170). Indeed, she asks some accurate questions concerning the point when materials stop being a risk for state security, social stability, and private life. But even if the questions are good, the answers she offers do not seem to be. She believes that the historian has a necessarily cathartic role to play for the rest of the citizens. She depicts herself as a martyr because she was not allowed to look at certain materials, while others were. One has to admit she's not so wrong. But on the other hand, she finds that delays are too long. She only sees her interest as a researcher and does not care about the issue of privacy. And, like many, she believes that forbidden materials are necessarily very interesting or very important. This is often a false point of view.

Then the author shows that special delays have been created by the French administration in order to prevent researchers from having access to sensitive

materials of World War II. This is a very narrowly-focused point of view. Indeed Combe seems to ignore that it is impossible even for genealogists to have access to l'état civil, even if they merely intend to acquire the precise date of a relative's birth who was born during the past 100 years. What is more, it is forbidden to have access to materials giving medical details of a citizen before 150 years have passed and nobody can access materials giving details about the personnel of an institution or enterprise for 120 years from the date of creation. Despite these conditions, Combe finds it unjust that she's unable to take a look at administrative materials before they are dated sixty years or older. However, one cannot imagine archivists able to determine which individual documents should or should not be accessible. Sonia Combe, a very optimistic person, is quite confident in those who do inspect materials. But when a private life is damaged, it's definitely too late. One must remain very careful and wise. The association des archivistes français, a free-lance group, expects to suggest some new solutions regarding private life and materials in a 1996 session.

Combe accuses both the state and archivists of choosing historians who are to have access to sensitive materials thanks to a process known as the *dérogation* (pp. 157-170). This opportunity could be particularly French. If a historian asks to have access to documents which are inaccessible according to the 1979 law, the archivist must reach an agreement with the administration which gave the materials. Whether or not the archivist agrees with the request for access, he must send the relevant file to the Direction des Archives de France in Paris, which is a part of the French ministry of culture. The archivist may give his own point of view. The Direction des Archives de France eventually reaches a decision. Most of the time there is agreement between the Direction des Archives de France, the former administration, and the archivist. Some *dérogations* can fail because of bad instructions by archivists. This is one of the dangers of the *dérogation*. Even if the system if far from perfect, it does exist. There is no material exempt from this process of *dérogation*, which does not mean that it is easy to obtain access ultimately.

Combe's outrage is fiercest when she writes about historians for whom the French administration and archivists are helpful. She claims that the relationship is less supportive for freelance historians like herself because she would tell the truth. This section of the book is excessive and harms the whole publication.

Despite too many partisan points of view, Combe's book is useful for French archivists. Some of her questions are warranted. Some French archivists neglected to read her book because its excessive claims discredited it. This is a mistake, even if Sonia Combe should sometimes wonder if she is the crusader of a new approach to materials or the mere advocate of her own single file.

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Electronic Evidence: Strategies for Managing Records in Contemporary Organizations. By David Bearman, edited by Victoria Irons Walch. Pittsburgh, PA: Archives & Museum Informatics, 1994. 314 pp. Softcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, $40.00 members/$45.00 nonmembers.

The archival literature dealing with the management of electronic records is a small but growing body of work, dominated by a few individuals. The most notable, David Bearman, is author of a new collection of previously published articles and essays, entitled *Electronic Evidence*. Although all ten chapters in this book have appeared previously in various publications, the essays come from such a broad variety of publications, some of which are not on most archivists' subscription lists, that to have them collected into one volume makes this a useful addition to the archival literature.

The essays are arranged thematically with the goal of conveying a consistent methodology through a series of articles written as that methodology was forming (p. 1). The ten essays are broken down into five sections, dealing with the problems posed by electronic records, policy guidelines for management, suggestions for the design and implementation of electronic records systems, a discussion of standards, and a final section on program management and structures. In spite of this organizational effort, *Electronic Evidence* is like most collections of essays: each essay stands out more on its own merits than does the collection as a whole.

As the title indicates, Bearman's concept of electronic records, indeed of records in general, relies heavily on their evidential properties. Because of this emphasis, the essays have a strong records management component. While most archivists are accustomed to receiving records at the end of their primary lifetime, Bearman argues that archivists and records managers need to be involved in the development of record-keeping systems from their inception within the organization. The point is well taken, but ignores the realities that most archivists face in a typical organization. Much of what Bearman describes in his essay on the electronic office would require a substantial amount of customized software which is well beyond the means of any but the largest or most affluent of organizations. To his credit, though, he does suggest that archivists advocate the need for national and international standards for the recording of contextual information in an electronic records environment.

At first glance, one would expect the essay on electronic mail (originally published in *Archives and Manuscripts*) to be the most useful. The amount of business transacted via electronic mail in the modern organization has reached such a high level that the paper records in the archives of some of these organizations are showing gaps due to the lack of institutional policy for preserving electronic mail records. Although Bearman provides a useful theoretical framework for managing electronic mail records in the future, archivists looking for direction for dealing with the electronic mail systems of today will be disappointed.

The e-mail chapter is, in fact, indicative of the entire collection. In spite of the book's subtitle, *Strategies for Managing Records in Contemporary Organizations*, this collection should not be taken as an archivist's field guide to electronic records. Bearman's book is a clarion call to archivists, urging us to become involved at the systems development stage of record creation. His essays give us a backdrop for assisting in the development of archivally sound

record keeping systems. However, a fundamental gap still exists in the archival literature when it comes to handling the electronic records of the present and the immediate past.

A minor point about the book that cannot be left unmentioned is the quality of both the editing and design of the book. It contains innumerable typographical errors, minor editing problems, and it is far too evident that the book was published on a personal computer. For a 300-page paperback with a price tag of $45, one expects much more.

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Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archives, User Studies at the National Archives and Records Administration. By Paul Conway. Pittsburgh, PA: Archives & Museum Informatics, 1994. 156 pp. Softcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, $40.00 members/$45.00 nonmembers.

Exactly who are the users of archives and what are their historical information needs? For the past two decades, a small but growing number of archivists have begun to examine use and its impact on the overall archival mission. Understanding the identity and habits of our research clientele is neither simple nor straightforward. Much of what we know continues to be grounded on misguided assumptions or misleading statistics acquired indirectly from daily visit logs and researcher registration cards. Few informal user studies have been conducted, and even fewer yet have been published. Paul Conway has done both in *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archives, User Studies at the National Archives and Records Administration.*

This publication is an account of a series of unified studies executed by Conway from 1990 to 1991 at seven of the National Archives' reading rooms in the Washington, D.C. area. The purpose of the project: "to learn who contacts the archives in person, by telephone and by mail; what information they are seeking; what services they use; and some of the ways they seek answers to their questions" (p. 43). The book, however, is much more than a summary of this project. It is also, as the author himself asserts, "the story of a failed user study" (p. i)—namely because the study's findings, outlined in a draft report, never were completed, approved, or released publicly by the National Archives, nor were any of Conway's suggestions ever accepted or implemented.

The publication is subdivided into four sections. Chapter One, entitled "Origins and Outcomes," describes the context from which the National Archives was conceived.

Chapter Two, "Methodological Considerations," provides an interesting and informative discussion of the underlying concepts which were influential in the final design and implementation of Conway's project. The chapter also includes a general overview of the methodologies actually employed in the National Archives user study.

Chapter Three is the unedited text of the aforementioned draft report submitted by the author to the management of the National Archives and Records

Administration in July, 1991. Seven original appendices to the draft report comprise Chapter Four. These appendices contain detailed information on the individual research projects which make up the complete user study, questionnaires and analysis forms, as well as a comprehensive, annotated bibliography.

The conclusions drawn from the National Archives study are thought-provoking, and so are many of the recommendations which Conway puts forward. Most intriguing is the inference derived from user data which "point[s] away from the notion of increasing researchers' dependence on archivists" (p. 46). The results of the study clearly suggest that most users of the National Archives are self-driven, self-sufficient, and have a fairly concrete idea of their informational needs. These researchers not only demonstrate a moderately strong comfort-level in using computers, but they also claim to be familiar with some forms of automated information retrieval systems. The author thus challenges the National Archives to move away from a gatekeeper to a more user-oriented approach to patron services, one in which access to the archives does not rely primarily on the expertise of the reference archivist as the intermediary between the user and the record.

Many more important questions are raised here, the implications of which are too numerous to mention. Although the study and its published findings relate specifically to patterns of users and use at the National Archives, the outcome of this research project demands serious consideration from the entire profession. The results of this study, when tested elsewhere, may prove to be quite valuable in other archival settings.

If there is one shortcoming in this publication, it must be the occasional repetitive nature of the text. Certain facts—such as the processes and techniques involved in the study—are presented more than once throughout the book. In addition, a few of the tables are unnecessarily repeated in both the draft report and in the appendices. This is oftentimes tiresome for the reader. Despite this limitation, the book is highly recommended. It is essential reading for archivists of all types: both for those who work on and for those who work beyond the reference desk.

Chapter Two closes with the following statement: "... a well-crafted user study can be a management tool for archivists, but we all do not have to do one. Although we all need to understand how our reference and access systems function from our patrons' perspectives, archivists should not bother gathering extensive information about their users unless they have a very specific purpose in mind and have the administrative support necessary to make adequate use of the findings" (p. 42).

Thanks to Conway's efforts, archivists at smaller institutions who have contemplated carrying out a user study now have a well-crafted model on which they may base their own investigations. Those who do not have the benefit of adopting the valuable lesson learned from the National Archives study: how all users of archives are indeed our partners in research.

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Guide to the Archival Collections in the Niels Bohr Library at the American Institute of Physics. College Park, MD: American Institute of Physics, 1994. Hardcover, $135. Softcover, $75.

The *Guide to the Archival Collections in the Niels Bohr Library at the American Institute of Physics* contains bibliographic citations to accessions predating January, 1993. The American Institute of Physics (AIP) is one of the country's most extensive and accessible repositories specializing in a particular subject—in this case, the history of physics. The AIP has long had an enlightened leadership, and an admirable policy of placing collections when appropriate homes can be found.

The *Guide* will be useful for anyone studying the history of physics, especially for twentieth century American research and programs. The *Guide* is divided into eight chapters and includes an index. The chapters reflect the intellectual division of collections at the AIP: archives, collections on microfilm, miscellaneous physics collections, manuscript biographies, institutional histories, oral history interviews, and audio-visual materials. Reflecting the AIP's commitment to sharing as much information as possible, there is also a chapter listing finding aids from other repositories. Each of the first seven chapters provides the name and title of the collection (using names established according to national cataloging standards), format of material, brief administrative history or biographical note, and an abstract of the collection. The AIP *Guide* does itself a disservice by the division by type of record, especially because the types seem to overlap. While the division may make sense for internal AIP administrative purposes, no real reason exists to use these distinctions in the guide. For example, John Archibald Wheeler collections are found three places in the guide. The index to the guide is comprehensive and critical for using this work. Even if the division of collections by media is not particularly helpful, the index certainly allows readers to find every name used in the guide. The index is less valuable for subject searching, and provides access to only general concepts in physics.

The abstracts are very well written, and include concise information about what each collection documents. Needless to say, a background in physics might be helpful in understanding muonproton inelastic scattering experiments, the use of oxide filaments in thermionic vacuum tubes, or any number of other studies in the field. The AIP deserves credit for writing the abstracts as clearly as possible. An electronic version of the guide which permits keyword searching would be a valuable aid for finding collections concerning specific types of research or topics.

A paradox about the guide concerns its listing of 25,000 photographs within the Emilio Segre Visual Archives. According to Joan Warnow-Blewett's introduction (p. xii), the Segre photographic collection "is the most heavily used of the Library's resources," yet receives only a cursory listing in the guide (pp. 359-360, 367). The partial list of names for whom ten or more images are available is impressive, but no information is provided about pictures of society meetings, laboratories, apparatus, observatories, and academic departments. While a detailed listing of the images is obviously beyond the scope of the guide, some greater effort should have been made to expand the sparse level of information provided.

The AIP is a great resource for the history of science. Its *Guide to Archival Collections* is vast in scope and content, and made truly usable by its index. Despite several shortcomings, the guide is a major work, and will be of valuable use in the history of science.

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Oral History Cataloging Manual. Compiled by Marion Matters. Chicago, IL: Society of American Archivists, 1995. 109 pp. Indexed. Bibliography and Appendixes. Softcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, $20.00 members/$25.00 nonmembers.

As the title implies, the *Oral History Cataloging Manual* (OHCM) is designed to assist catalogers in creating computer catalog records for oral history materials. Compiler Marion Matters has attempted to create rules which "respect the characteristics of oral history as a distinct intellectual form while following the conventions of standard cataloging practice" (p. 1). In order to accomplish the latter, the rules are compatible with *USMARC Format for Bibliographic Data, Anglo-American Cataloging Rules* (AACR2), and Steven Hensen's *Archives, Personal Papers, and Manuscripts* (APPM). Matters is no stranger to the process of creating cataloging rules, since she was one of the people who worked with Hensen on the second edition of APPM. Matters was assisted in her work on OHCM by an editorial working group and an advisory committee.

This volume is basically a fusion of AACR2 and APPM; it draws from AACR2 for specifics of physical description and APPM for intellectual description. It is also organized similarly to the other two volumes and contains cross references to specific rules in those manuals. The useful introduction defines the manual, oral history terms, and cataloging terms; it also contains notes to the expected users of the manual: oral historians as well as experienced and novice catalogers. Three chapters follow which discuss general rules of description, specific rules of description, and choice of access points. Rules regarding headings for persons and corporate bodies, geographic names, and uniform titles are not included in this manual because those areas have already been comprehensively covered in APPM and AACR2. Subject headings are also outside the scope of this manual; it is assumed that repositories will continue using Library of Congress Subject Headings or whatever standard heading list they are currently using. The appendices provide seventeen complete sample oral history catalog records and tables which relate descriptive elements to the pertinent MARC fields and subfields.

In order to determine how useful this manual would be for an individual repository, it is important to consider the nature of oral history materials present in the collections. As Matters indicates, there are three primary categories of oral history materials, each best described by a different cataloging tool. The first category is original oral histories, which are most effectively cataloged with OHCM. These include single oral histories, oral history projects, and oral history collections. Oral history projects usually are managed by an institution

with a specific plan and focus on a specific subject or theme. Oral history collections consist of various interviews brought together by a collector or repository, the latter generally for convenience in intellectual and physical control. The rules in OHCM clearly indicate when individual interviews and groups are to be treated differently.

The second category is published material which contains some sort of authoritative source (i.e., container label, title screen, title page, etc.) with a formal title and publication details which can be cataloged separately with AACR2. The third category is oral history materials as part of a larger archival unit (i.e., record group, series, collection). For this type, it is most appropriate to catalog the entire body of material from APPM. In this case, separate catalog records of the oral history materials could be made using OHCM.

The one thing I wish had been included in OHCM is something similar to appendix two of APPM. Both APPM and OHCM provide examples in the text for each rule, but appendix two of APPM conveniently gives the USMARC tagged version of the examples used in the text cross referenced by rule number. I find it easier to consult these cross referenced examples than scanning the sample full cataloging records to see if any illustrate the particular rule with which I am wrestling.

OHCM is a useful volume for repositories wishing to catalog original oral history materials in their collections. The rules are clear, concise, and easy to use. Catalogers familiar with APPM should have no problem assimilating the information in OHCM or finding answers to specific cataloging questions. Catalogers who have used AACR2 exclusively will find the primary idiosyncracies of archival cataloging—description of groups of materials and focus on the context in which materials were created—presented succinctly and in a familiar manner.

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Designing Archival Programs to Advance Knowledge in the Health Fields. Nancy McCall and Lisa A. Mix, editors. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1995. 232 pp. Introduction, illustrations, bibliographies, appendix, index. Hardcover. $38.50.

In the conclusion of *Designing Archival Programs to Advance Knowledge in the Health Fields*, editors Nancy McCall and Lisa A. Mix state that their primary goal in producing this volume was "to promote a greater awareness of the archival issues associated with twentieth century documentation in the health fields" (p. 221). McCall and Mix have skillfully accomplished their mission by bringing together a collection of articles which examine the applicability of traditional archival theory and practices to the massive documentation generated by the health fields. The contributing authors, drawn from a range of backgrounds, identify the characteristics of historical documentation unique to the health fields and the challenges of their management, underscoring McCall and Mix's call for stricter documentation guidelines and for standardization of collections management practices.

Published in an attractive, oversize format, the book is widely illustrated with photographs from the holdings of the Alan Mason Chesney Medical Archives of the Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions and includes numerous charts and diagrams depicting the various concepts presented. The book is divided into three sections, each consisting of three to five chapters—quite a few of which are authored by McCall and/or Mix. Each section is preceded by an introduction from the editors summarizing the chapters within the context of the central themes of the volume. Both the chapters and the introductions to the sections include ample bibliographies.

Part I ("The Broadening Base and Changing Media of Evidence in the Health Fields") serves as an introduction to archival appraisal issues in the health fields and is perhaps most informative for archivists with little knowledge of the health fields or for the beginning archivist. In the first chapter, "Assessing the Context for Archival Programs in the Health Fields," Joan Krizack describes the organization and functions of an academic health center. She wisely advises archivists to analyze the role of their academic health center within a broader functional context in order to refine documentation strategies and offers a "Checklist for analyzing academic health centers" (Table 1.I). (Further information regarding Krizack's contextual method of analysis can be found in her recently published book, *Documentation Planning for the U.S. Health Care System.*)

In Chapter 2 ("Archives as Fundamental Resources for the Study and Teaching of History"), Paul G. Anderson begins with an overview of historians in the health fields and their research needs, and goes on to review the types of documentation produced as a result of teaching, service and research in an academic setting. His discussion of the historiographic value of records provides a smooth segue into the format-based approach of the next three chapters. Chapter 3 ("Preserving Patient Records to Support Health Care Delivery, Teaching, and Research," Joel D. Howell), Chapter 4 ("Collecting Scientific Data with Ongoing Value for Research and Teaching," Jane Williams), and Chapter 5 ("Computerization and a New Era for Archives," Nina W. Matheson) are each devoted to specific types of documentation commonly generated by the health fields. Emphasizing the research value of the documentation yet acknowledging its vastness, the authors propose policies to guide selection and recommend sampling methods.

The editors touch upon the central themes of stricter documentation guidelines and increased standardization of practices throughout the work, but it is in Part II that McCall and Mix expand upon their concept of a curatorial program model for the health fields. In the introduction to Part II ("Preparing Archival Programs for the Health Fields"), the editors assert that the primary barriers to access in medical archives are due to "a lack of either unification or standardization in the management of empirical evidence" which "ultimately undermine the fundamental purpose of these programs, which is to further the growth of knowledge" (p. 87). The following chapters (Chapter 6, "Reconceptualizing the Design of Archival Programs," Nancy McCall; Chapter 7, "Building Relevant, Well-focused, and Coherent Holdings," Nancy McCall and Lisa A. Mix, with Arian D. Ravanbakhsh; Chapter 8, "Promoting and Facilitating Wider Use of Holdings," Deborah McClellan and Nancy McCall, with Anne Slakey) acknowledge the existence of these barriers and proceed to propose guidelines

to further "unification" of curatorial practices among institutions. The thought-provoking issues presented in this section relating to the management of contemporary documentation are not necessarily limited to any institution-type, and make interesting reading for a range of archivists.

The chapters comprising Part III ("Standardizing and Unifying the Management of Holdings") address the lack of common procedures for collections management, defining the types of evidential materials typically found in the archives of academic health centers. In Chapter 9, "Computerizing Basic Archival Functions," Lisa Mix advocates the use of technology to expedite and organize the administrative functions of an archives. The remaining chapters are each devoted to a different medium, outlining special considerations and the implications of their acquisition (Chapter 10, "Making Provisions for the Management of Contemporary Records," Nancy McCall and Lisa A. Mix, with John Dojka and Gerard Shorb; Chapter 11, "Making Provisions for the Management of Historical Records and Personal Papers," Nancy A. Heaton; Chapter 12, "Making Provisions for the Management of Material Evidence," Philip D. Spies II). The textbook definitions of basic archival terminology, such as the difference between records and personal papers, may seem elementary to more advanced archivists, but the chapters also tackle such issues as coexisting and collaborating with records management programs (Chapter 10).

As part of a five-year grant from the National Historic Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC), the staff of the Alan Mason Chesney Medical Archives of the Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions conducted a survey of the records-keeping practices of a number of teaching hospitals. There are mentions of the study in a number of places, and the hospitals which participated in the study are listed in the Appendix, but, with the exception of Joel Howell's chapter on patient records, the findings of the survey and their contribution to the book's recommendations are not communicated to the reader.

This is an extremely comprehensive work (some might argue overly comprehensive), and the editors and contributing authors are to be commended for organizing such a broad topic into one volume. Nancy McCall and Lisa Mix make a strong case for more selective acquisitions and offer realistic recommendations regarding the organization and management of collections to improve standardization of archival practices among institutions. As today's institutional archives strive to accommodate the needs of their researchers and their institutions within the constraints of limited resources, the issues discussed in this work are quite timely and often transcend the intended audience, appealing to a wide range of archivists.

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Protecting Your Collections: A Manual of Archival Security. By Gregor Trinkaus-Randall. Chicago, IL: Society of American Archivists, 1995. 84 pp. $30.00.

Bound in a cover of bronze, a color inspiring visions of armored cars, vaults, and a general sense of safekeeping, *Protecting Your Collections: A Manual of*

Archival Security sets the stage even before the reader opens the book for a guide that treats security as an area of archival work deserving thorough and serious treatment. Written by Gregor Trinkaus-Randall, an archivist who has been responsible for library and archival security in all his professional positions, the manual is engaging, succinct, and clearly written. Trinkaus-Randall highlights the primary components of a comprehensive archival security program, while emphasizing that "each archivist [should] take into account the unique nature of his or her repository, its collections, its mission, and its location in developing a security program."

Protecting Your Collections emphasizes that security "must be considered...an integral component of archival management along with appraisal, arrangement and description, preservation, and reference." While all archival functions encompass various aspects of security, the author argues, archivists tend to regard security as a burden or an extra step, rather than as a perspective that will influence collections handling from the outset. Trinkaus-Randall advocates an integrated security approach as the most effective way to manage risk within a repository. As part of this strategy, the author stresses the importance of establishing and maintaining liaisons with outside organizations, such as other archival repositories and the local fire and police departments.

The manual is composed of an introduction, eight chapters, an interdisciplinary bibliography, and appendices (primarily security-related checklists). Photographs, diagrams, and sample forms support and clarify the text. The guide is well organized, progressing logically through the following areas of importance: the evaluation of archival security needs, specific concerns regarding security in the stacks and reading room, environmental controls and disaster preparedness, staff training and patron awareness, physical security systems, and crisis management. The introduction draws the reader into the topic by presenting various scenarios that pose security risks. In one scenario, a university archivist receives a call during the night informing him that a water main in the stacks has burst, the rising water level has already left some collections submerged, and the institution has no disaster plan. Hypothetical situations such as this demonstrate the relevance of security issues to an archivist's daily activities.

The first chapter's prescription for a security evaluation from the "outside in" suggests a comprehensive approach that allows the archivist to develop "a [thorough] knowledge of potential problem areas and establishes in his or her mind a priority of security issues that must be addressed." The manual recommends an analysis of the facility's exterior (window and door alarms, external lighting) and interior (the HVAC system, potential fire hazards) prior to an evaluation of the archival collections themselves.

Chapter six is innovative for several reasons. First, it recommends creative visual approaches to security education such as posters and exhibits. Second, it suggests how a high-profile security plan can act as a powerful public relations tool: Potential donors are likely to feel more comfortable giving their collections to a repository if they feel that their materials will be properly cared for. Finally, the chapter offers logical and concise arguments for why archives should enforce security policies. As an example, Trinkaus-Randall suggests that archivists can address researchers' concerns regarding stringent security rules by impressing on them that the collections they are handling are unique and

irreplaceable. The author emphasizes that "researchers must understand completely that when they are...work[ing] in an archives or special collections department, they are working with materials that for whatever reason have been designated as 'special.' This means that there will be 'special' rules...[governing these materials]." The arguments Trinkaus-Randall provides can help archivists educate their staff and the public about the need for an archival security program. The negative feelings sometimes engendered by security policies can be offset by such straightforward discussion.

Chapter seven's detailed discussion of physical security systems covers a broad spectrum of locks, alarm systems, and surveillance equipment. While not all archival managers will need the degree of technical detail that the author provides, the chapter should prove useful to managers responsible for establishing and maintaining physical security systems by furnishing them with enough information to interact intelligently with vendors. The author stresses that while physical security is important, it is "only one component of the overall security operations of the repository."

The final chapter moves beyond disaster plans and theft deterrent measures to address what to do in the event of a crisis. Especially insightful is the discussion on how to handle a suspected theft. The chapter extends what is traditionally taught in archival degree programs by including a law-enforcement perspective of the crisis situation. The reader learns the basics regarding confrontation, legal issues, and behavior patterns typical of employees who commit internal theft. The chapter also touches on the emotional impact of theft on archival staff. According to the author, the key to minimizing the potentially damaging effects of theft is to take pre-emptive actions, such as implementing a step-by-step security action plan.

Among the greatest strengths of *Protecting Your Collections: A Manual of Archival Security* is the variety of professional disciplines and fields upon which it draws. Trinkaus-Randall references not only archival sources, but also library, museum, fire protection, and security literature, and state and federal legislation. The museum literature references provide a valuable perspective, as museums have extensive security experience derived from the continuous movement (e.g., loans, travelling exhibits) and public displays of their artifacts.

I highly recommend this comprehensive guide to both novice and seasoned archivists. The manual conveniently incorporates information that readers would otherwise have to glean from numerous, diverse sources. After reading Trinkaus-Randall's manual, it is likely that an archivist will approach each of his or her duties with the question, "Now, how does this affect the overall security of the collections under my care?"

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