It is not surprising that employers issue badly-worded advertisements for archivists, or assign the posts to ancient employees or superior filing clerks. Employers are not to blame for this. Archivists are. We have no public standards by which we can be judged. —Edwin Welch

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Some of the best archivists that I have known on both sides of the Atlantic had no formal training in archives. They had become archivists almost by accident after training as librarians, historians and for other more unlikely professions. They did not agree about the operation of an archives (and I would not always agree with them either), but they had clearly thought about the tasks ahead and established working solutions. On this basis I might almost agree that training is unnecessary, until I remember that the worst archivists I have known also had no formal training. There were those who devised incomprehensible and unworkable systems of arranging documents; those who mixed the contents of several separate archive groups to the confusion of future historians; and those who, in England, thought that any document younger than 1888 was of no value whatever.

I cannot recollect any archivist with some professional training who reached these depths. There may be some inefficient qualified archivists, but at least they know the rudiments of accepted practices and can usually be trusted to follow someone's "system" blindly to a moderately good solution. As graduates of archive training courses grow older, we shall probably see another generation of good archivists—a third generation of the same calibre as Hilary Jenkinson, Ernst Posner or W. Kaye Lamb. This, then, is the first basic argument for education. We shall be spared an influx of charlatans and cranks if there is a standard of training established for archivists.

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More important still, the archives themselves will be spared the onslaught of such people in the future. At the present time, anyone with a degree in history thinks that he has achieved good results by arranging all the papers in chronological order, or, if he has a degree in library science, by arranging them in subject order according to Dewey or the Library of Congress.

But the necessity of education goes much further than this. If archivists are ever to achieve professional status in the eyes of laymen, then they must have a standard qualification as a means of distinguishing themselves from those who are only archivists in title. The administrator, the historian and the owner of archives cannot judge whether a person is trained as an archivist, or whether an assessor is capable of judging an archivist's qualifications. When an employer chooses someone for a professional position, he looks for a degree, a diploma, or a certificate at least, to assure himself of obtaining professional competence. At the present time, it is very difficult to find archivists who possess such paper qualifications. It is not surprising that employers issue badly-worded advertisements for archivists, or assign the posts to ancient employees or superior filing clerks. Employers are not to blame for this. We are, because we have no public standards by which we can be judged.

There is another, less public, reason for education. Education is contact and discussion with other people of the same interests. It is shared problems and shared solutions. Most conference-attenders know that the most important parts of a conference are the chats over a cup or glass in the evenings. One or two of the papers read at a conference may be of particular interest to an individual, but more true education comes from discussion and argument about archival problems. Training courses which bring archivists with different backgrounds together are of great value to everyone. They are particularly worthwhile for archivists who work alone or in small offices where the opportunities for discussion are very limited.

Most of the training available on this side of the Atlantic is to be found either in short, intensive courses which usually are restricted to practising archivists, or in special lectures which constitute part of a course for some other qualification. In the absence of other forms of training, these courses can be considered
better than nothing. Most of their organisers already recognise the defects of what they are trying to do, and are attempting to improve the training they provide. The danger is that we shall become content with inadequate training, that the public and the universities will come to believe that such training is all that is needed, and that the graduates of such courses will emerge thinking that they know "all about archives" after thirty hours of lectures.

The situation in Europe is somewhat better, because more adequate training is available. Perhaps the oldest and most highly developed courses are in France and Germany. The Ecole des Chartes in Paris takes four years to train an archiviste paléographe. All students must be college graduates and pass an entrance examination. The course for Archive-Assessor at the Bavarian School of Archives takes only three years, but normally requires a doctorate. Both courses are concerned with all aspects of archival science, and neither appears to include practical work. The training for an archivist-historian at the Copernicus University in Poland also lasts three years but includes practical work in the university vacation. The British courses probably are the shortest in Europe, lasting only one year. But there is general agreement that this is too short a period for basic training and lengthy discussions are in progress on ways to add extra subjects to an overcrowded curriculum. Palaeography, sigillography and similar subjects are losing their old importance in European training, and their places are being taken by courses in the uses of computers and audio-visual archives. Though courses are becoming more like those needed in North America, the European institutions lack a sufficiency of student-places in the universities and offer no continuing education for archivists.

If archivists in North America are ever to achieve professional standing, then they must get established, by some means or other, several basic training courses for young archivists, which produce graduates of a recognised standing and which last at least one academic year. Several courses are required to serve different regions and to provide some variety of content and teaching. The advantages which appear to arise from one centralised course in Washington or Ottawa are fallacious. A course in either of these places inevitably would be dominated
by its national archives. I have very great respect for both institutions, but they are no more the repositories of all archival wisdom than the Public Record Office or the Archives Nationales. An even greater danger is that with a limited number of staff and students, the teaching of a centralised course might well become inbred and formalised to an impossible degree. The existence of alternative courses is the best remedy for this. Diversity is an advantage in teaching. The existence in England of two training courses which were originally based on different concepts and philosophies undoubtedly has stimulated and improved both courses.

Above all, we should try to avoid the malaise which has haunted much of the training of librarians. The emphasis in most library schools has been on formal training. Books are catalogued according to a set of rules which cannot be altered or amended to suit local circumstances. These rules are taught more by rote than as a set of logical principles to be applied with common sense. It may be necessary to teach librarians in this way in order that every library from Salem to San Francisco has its biography of Huey Long in the same place. It would be most dangerous to train archivists in this manner—as a cursory examination of the French national system of classifying archives, wherein every departmental archives has to use exactly the same rigid arrangement for its records as the Archives Nationales in Paris, will reveal. Archivists must inevitably be people who think. And if they are to reach professional status, then their education must teach them to think. It is time we began to provide that training.
Genuine professional work is basically intellectual and is usually undertaken only after college and postgraduate education. It is reasonable to assume, therefore, that culture of the mind in academic experience can be one of the first aids to professional growth. This seems equally as true today as it did more than a century ago when John Henry Cardinal Newman, in the course of his famous defense of a "liberal education," contended:

General culture of mind is the best aid to professional and scientific study...and the man who has learned to think and to reason and to compare and to discriminate and to analyze, who has refined his taste and formed his judgment and sharpened his mental vision will...be placed in that state of the intellect in which he can take up any one of the sciences or callings...for which he has a taste or special talent, with an ease, a grace, a versatility, and a success, to which another is a stranger.¹

The cultivation of intellectual power, therefore, may be viewed as an aid in any calling. It is obvious, however, that such power, when brought to a particular professional endeavor, needs to be accompanied by specialized training. The nature of this necessary training for an efficient American archivist has been a subject of discussion among archivists and historians from the era of Waldo G. Leland to the age of Theodore R. Schellenberg.

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The basic content of such training recommended in 1938 by a committee of the Society of American Archivists, headed by Samuel Flagg Bemis, still invites attention and in its educational emphasis remains without significant challenge. For those persons who were to assume the most responsible positions in national, state, and local archival administration, and presumably perform with the highest professional standards, the Bemis Committee called for specialization "in the social sciences, including a reliable knowledge of the American political system and its political development, together with the history of the United States and a broad knowledge of modern history and international relations." Basic elements of this specialization, it was felt, might well be obtained through study in American history leading to the doctoral degree. For those who were to be entrusted with archival responsibilities in small public agencies and private organizations, and who apparently were to work under less exacting standards, the Bemis Committee recommended study in social sciences on the level of the master's degree. Some young men and women, of course, by "hard work and self-discipline and study" might well deserve to attain the highest ranks of archival employment without formal university training.2

Three decades after the Bemis proposals, leading American archivists still agree with the basic emphasis on historical study. Schellenberg wrote in 1968 that "The best training that an archivist can have...is...in history. Such training has a twofold value for him. It will lead him to appreciate the value of archives and manuscripts, for they are the source material used in producing historical monographs. It will also fit him for his work." Schellenberg reasoned that courses in national history would provide an archivist with a knowledge of his country's development and of the documentation upon which it was based. Moreover, the instruction in research methodology would "teach him to look into the origin, development, and working of human institutions."3

Important as historical and related social science study may be for the professional development of an archivist, it needs to be buttressed by methodological training in archival administration. Here the archivist can learn the basic principles and techniques that distinguish his profession.
Some three decades of experimentation with methodological training in the United States have produced varied opportunities to learn the fundamental tenets of archival enterprise. The latest directory of educational opportunities, published by the Society of American Archivists in December, 1973, lists some sixty courses, programs, and institutes at academic and archival institutions in the United States and Canada. (Current information on opportunities for archival training is provided in a bimonthly newsletter published by the Society.) These offerings of course vary in scope and quality. Though the Society has recognized the need for evaluating them, it has lacked the resources.

When instruction in archival principles and techniques has not been available, conscientious archivists often have been able to increase their proficiency through work experience. Indeed, many tasks in archival arrangement, description, and reference require a minimum of theoretical study and a maximum of practical consideration and imagination. It should not be forgotten that pioneer staff members of American archival institutions often were scholars who possessed no training in archival methodology, but were able to adapt themselves and develop techniques for their profession and for the new problems they faced in archival administration. History has credited many of them with brilliant performances.

The professional development of an archivist should not end with his training, formal or informal, in archival administration. Rather, such experience should be the foundation for professional development. Upon this foundation can be based a number of efforts that broaden and enrich his contribution to his archival institution, the public, and the profession. His job assignments, for example, in description, analysis, and evaluation of records may offer opportunities for introducing new techniques and casting new flashes of light upon obscure, significant documentation. His service to visiting researchers may aid him in keeping abreast of scholarly interests in varied fields and give him fresh insights into the value of the documentary resources entrusted to his care.

Still another opportunity for professional self-improvement may be offered by formal in-service training. Changing conditions often require new professional techniques
and outlooks. Accordingly, archival institutions may find it advantageous to have particular employees enrolled in programs to keep them posted on new developments in their special fields. It is generally recognized that archival personnel concerned with technical and administrative matters should receive important consideration for enrollment in these programs. Less recognized, unfortunately, is the possible need of in-service training to keep subject matter specialists abreast of historiographical and other research trends with which they should be familiar in describing, servicing, and evaluating records. Hence the professional competence of the archivist might well be enhanced by his enrollment in refresher courses in history, public administration, American civilization, and other subjects.

Professional insights gained in these jobs and job-related situations may be strengthened by other experiences. Participation in activities of professional societies and the reading of their publications are immediately suggested. Attendance and involvement in meetings and other affairs of national, regional, and state groups of archivists obviously increase one’s professional stature and usefulness. Less obvious for this purpose, but nevertheless important, is cultivation and maintenance of close contact with scholarly groups whose members profit, or can profit substantially and continually, from the use of archival resources. If a principal raison d'être of the archivist is service to needs of scholarly research, such contact would seem to be indispensable. This, of course, is not to suggest that he has no obligations for service to organizations that create his holdings and provide financial support for their administration, or for assistance to varied non-scholarly inquirers. It is only contended, rather, that he clearly should have good contact with those searchers or potential searchers, the service of whose needs tends to exact the greatest intellectual skill. Not content with dialogues among themselves, archivists seeking greater enlightenment for performance of their tasks will participate in affairs of varied scholarly groups and will strive to involve members of these groups in discussing, planning, and evaluating archival activities.

Moreover, there is professional enrichment to be found in taking archives to the public beyond the search room and the exhibit hall. Such service can be rendered
effectively through publications and appearances before professional, academic, and other groups. Archival, historical, and related social science journals welcome articles describing broad research potentialities of particular bodies of documentary materials or exemplifying new research uses of such materials. The pages of the *American Archivist* always have been open to writers describing significant archival resources, as well as to those discussing archival principles, techniques, and achievements. Prologue, the *Journal of the National Archives* invites contributions based on specialized knowledge of particular classes of records and in general those enhancing the interchange of information and ideas between archivists and users of archives. National, regional, and state historical and archival journals have been receptive to articles revealing the archivist's unique grasp of the research value of his holdings. Teachers, students, public officials, and varied citizen groups are becoming more aware of the educational, cultural, legal, and administrative value of archives and are seeking more enlightenment concerning their nature and use. In responding to this public interest, the archivist is likely to be inspired to deepen and refine knowledge that he has gained at his institution in hours of arranging, describing, servicing, and evaluating records. In so doing he will be opening the world of archives to a growing number of persons. Moreover, in the words of Albert R. Newsome, first president of the Society of American Archivists, he will be making himself "more culturally dynamic and significant" and will be contributing to the "development of the archival profession as an...agent of American scholarship and culture."4

The professional insights and usefulness of an archivist may be enhanced further by his scholarly efforts. This view is contested by those who perceive the archivist essentially as a manservant to the visiting scholar or a miner of documentary nuggets to be refined by the academician. Accordingly, it is held that if the archivist uses records for his own research, even on his own time, he inevitably develops a conflict of professional interest that lessens his usefulness as an archivist. While some misguided students of history entrusted with archival tasks may poorly conceive the proper emphasis in these tasks, there is no inherent incompatibility in an archivist using records for research that does not conflict with his archival duties. Indeed, his use in some instances may effectively exemplify and publicize the research value of
archival materials far better than an unimaginative, stereotyped archival compilation. Hilary Jenkinson, who frowned on the archivist assuming the mantle of an historian, conceded that "the Archivist must himself turn Historian in at least one field--that of Administrative History and it would be hard if he were cut off from occasional excursions into others."5

Excursions, if you please, into the scholarly world also tend to make the archivist a more viable and credible character in that realm. With some reputation for scholarship, he is more likely to reduce the credibility gap between doubting and demanding academic searchers and seemingly unresponsive keepers of records. It is also relevant to note that many archival decisions importantly affect the interests of scholars. H. G. Jones, in his perceptive study, The Records of a Nation, has called attention to the "awesome duty" of archivists in determining what records should be permanently preserved for research and other purposes.6 Similarly, W. Kaye Lamb has pointed out frequently the crucial role of archivists in judging the needs of scholars and in passing "life and death sentence" on records relating to varied aspects and periods of the history of the region with which their institutions are concerned.7 Lamb has concluded:

Experience in historical research enables one to appreciate how manuscripts and records are used. The archivists must be able to judge the probable value of sources to a scholar or research worker, and this ability can be developed best by personal experience in research.8

It should be noted furthermore that the suggested scholarly stance of the archivist does not need to be confined to historical research. There are many areas of archival policy, principle, and practice that deserve more intensive investigation and scholarly exposition than shown in existing archival literature or provided in training programs. Schellenberg's last major publication, The Management of Archives, appropriately pointed out the need for further study and evaluation of a number of methodological matters as a prerequisite to the standardization of procedures. It noted that although this standardization must be effected collaboratively, contributions to the systematization of techniques could be made individually.9

Finally, the comparing of institutional policies and practices and the sharing of ideas and experiences
contribute to professional growth and outlook. Archivists seeking to broaden their experience should seek participation in special studies, purposeful travel, and other enterprises that take them to a wider world of concern and action in the preservation and use of archival resources.

Although the primary purpose of this paper has been to describe individual efforts that contribute to professional development, it seems appropriate to mention the importance of institutional encouragement in these efforts. Such encouragement can be offered in many ways and is vital for creation of a positive and sympathetic climate for professional growth. One of the important elements of such a climate, perhaps the most important, is morale. Morale, in the words of Leonard D. White, "reflects a social-psychological situation, a state of mind in which men and women voluntarily seek to develop and apply their full powers to the task upon which they are engaged, by reason of the intellectual or moral satisfaction which they derive from their own self-realization, their achievements in their chosen field, and their pride in the service." According to White and other authorities on public administration, having a climate of good morale there are opportunities for individual self-expression, the development of individual pride in workmanship, stimulation of a sense of identity with the employing organization, and creative participation in the formulation and pursuit of organizational objectives. Without question, good morale is as vital in archival work as in any other institutional enterprise.

Other institutional circumstances also significantly affect individual motivation for professional improvement. The participation of an archivist in affairs of professional societies, research projects, and varied public relations efforts, for example, may be dependent upon institutional endorsement, liberal leave policy, and financial assistance. Although intellectual, social, and other nonfinancial rewards of an organization may loom large in the aspirations of an archivist, financial returns are natural components of such aspirations. It is unrealistic to assume that the desire of an archivist to increase his professional skills in institutional activities has no significant relationship to financial earnings. Philip Mason noted nearly ten years ago, after surveying the economic status of archivists, that relatively low salaries were a major problem not only in attracting college graduates to the archival
profession, but also in retaining experienced persons. He therefore contended that the problem deserved the "concerted attention" of professional organizations and archival institutions. Moreover, it is equally unrealistic to think that motivation in professional work will not be adversely affected by superior financial rewards given more regularly for managerial performance than for professional expertise. Concern for morale and development of archivists, therefore, should be manifested to a strong degree by institutional efforts to accord professional contributions some rewards equivalent to those too often bestowed only for administrative advancement.

Varied ways and means, therefore, can be used to assist the professional development of an archivist. The development begins best on a basic intellectual foundation. It builds and takes form with specialized training, job experience, scholarly effort, and contacts with professional, educational, and other groups. The professional eminence that the archivist attains may be determined importantly by his alertness in seeing opportunities for self-improvement and his motivation and zeal in using them. He may not develop the capability that Francis Bacon attributed to a wise man—to "make more opportunities than he finds." With diligence and institutional encouragement, however, he may obtain the satisfaction of personal achievement contemplated in the observation of Samuel Johnson: "To improve the golden moment of opportunity and catch the good that is within our reach is the great art of life."

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FOOTNOTES


Atlanta boasts a collection of archival enterprises as rich as is to be found anywhere in the United States. Within its metropolitan area are federal, state, university, corporate, historical society, professional organization, religious, and private foundation repositories—archives young, old and a-borning; archives large, small, and in between; archives of national, local, and regional significance; archives housed in modern, well-equipped facilities and stuck away in proverbial nooks and crannies; archives whose treasures predate the United States and archives whose holdings span no more than the present century. Of course it is the holdings—the irreplaceable, one-of-a-kind resources—that make each operation unique. And each truly is unique. By the same token, however, it is the very number and variety of archival programs that give Atlanta its unmistakeable luster as a jewel in the nation's archival crown.

The Atlanta Historical Society, a private institution in Buckhead which administers the Tullie-Smith House Restoration and the Swan House Museum and has published the *Atlanta Historical Bulletin* since 1927, holds unquestionably the largest collection of material bearing on the city itself. But because of Atlanta's central role in the history of Georgia and the South, the Society's files contain much more. McElreath Hall, the new, modern archives and administration building, houses more than 750 private collections of papers and records, a collection of city directories dating from 1859, maps, architectural drawings, periodicals and newspapers, photographs, and specialized collections of Atlanta imprints and genealogical material, in addition to the official records of both the City of Atlanta and Fulton County.

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The City records date from the first City Council meeting in 1848, while those of Fulton County (which include the records of the former Campbell and Milton counties) date from 1828. The financial records, which survived the Civil War, especially document the city's motto "Resurgens," as they display the rise of the treasury from a balance on hand on October 1, 1864, after the city's fall to Sherman's Army, of $1.64. The Society's extensive private manuscripts collection, which reflect particularly business and politics in Atlanta from the period of the Civil War through the end of the nineteenth century, ranks among the most interesting in the state. Included are the papers of Dr. Robert Battey, the first gynecologist in the South, the governors Brown, engineer Lemuel Pratt Grant for whom Grant Park is named, material relating to the Leo Frank lynching case, blockade-running merchants McNaught, Ormond and Scrutchin, and a variety of organizations, such as the Georgia Writers Association, the Don't Worry Club, the Honorable Order of the Blue Goose, and the Order of Old Fashioned Women.

Dwarfing the Society in size of holdings, but not in reputation, is the Federal Archives and Records Center in East Point, whose building sprawls over seven acres and services more than 660,000 cubic feet of records, each cubic foot containing 1,500 to 2,000 pieces of paper. That is enough paper to build a wall thirty inches high all the way round Atlanta's perimeter highway. Though the idea for a network of regional centers for federal records was as old as the National Archives itself, implementation was not achieved until after World War II, when the flood of war-generated records threatened to swamp the ship of state with their sheer bulk. The records centers were set up at first merely to control the unimaginable quantity of files, that is, they were designed solely as records management agencies. Among material the East Point Branch received were the draft registration cards from World War I, including that of Al Capone, Chicago mobster, who listed his occupation in 1917 as "butcher." Archival operations were first established within the regional records centers in 1969 to facilitate removal of historically valuable records from the records management branches and to ease pressure on the bulging National Archives in Washington.

The archives branch at East Point holds about 23,000 cubic feet of records, or approximately 3 percent of the total. (This, incidentally, is a standard figure
for the amount of federal records worthy of preservation.) None of the files in the archives are, or will be, less than 20-25 years old. Most of them, some 22,000 cubic feet, were created by the United States courts in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North and South Carolina, and Tennessee, the area served by the East Point facility. Including civil, criminal, patent and copyright, equity, naturalization, and admiralty cases, they date from 1716 and contain suits brought by Eli Whitney to defend his patent on the cotton gin. Within this record group are dockets of Confederate Courts and the files of U. S. Marshalls who reestablished federal control in ex-Confederate areas. The other 1,000 cubic feet are divided between records of executive agencies in the South and materials disbursed from the National Archives. Executive department records include those of the Cherokee agency in North Carolina, the Seminole agency in Florida, and Internal Revenue Service assessment lists, 1867-1917. From the National Archives, the East Point Branch obtained records of fortifications prepared in the South by the Corps of Engineers since 1807, and of New Deal-World War II agencies such as the National Recovery Administration, the Office of Price Administration, and the Committee on Fair Employment Practices. Of course, the archives branch maintains copies of microfilm publications of the National Archives, including the United States Census. More than 8,500 reels are on hand, and additions are being received regularly.

The Georgia Department of Archives and History, in its white marble monolith at the junction of the three interstates downtown, occupies the finest archival facility in Atlanta, and one of the best in the nation. The Department was established in 1918 in response to a growing concern for records of the Revolutionary and Civil War periods. Like the federal program, however, effective measures for controlling and handling the records of state government did not evolve until Georgia faced the records volume crisis following World War II. The official records, dating from the founding of Georgia as a colony in the 1730s, include executive department correspondence and minutes, journals of legislative sessions and constitutional conventions, records of the state-owned Western and Atlantic Railroad, judicial records, the files of the adjutant general's department relating to the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, the Indian Wars and the Civil War. An extensive records management program ensures the orderly and continual influx of modern state-created records. On
microfilm, the state archives has acquired colonial records from the Public Record Office in London and significant files from more than three quarters of the counties. The microfilming is continuing. In a section of the archives devoted to historical manuscripts are preserved records of churches, businesses, educational institutions, and various organizations and societies, as well as the papers of many notable Georgia statesmen, generals, authors, artists and scholars. Among these are collections of correspondence of Governor John Brown Gordon, papers of architects Henry J. Toombs and Philip Marye, and those of humanitarian Rhoda Kaufman. Finally, the state archives is a center for genealogical research because of its original holdings and its accumulation of appropriate microfilm publications.

Five universities in the metropolitan area support historical manuscripts programs of various dimensions. This list excludes schools, like Oglethorpe University, that maintain only their own records, even though Oglethorpe's accumulation over 150 years no doubt is significant in the history of education in Georgia.

Though Atlanta University west of downtown had received manuscripts several decades before, its Negro History Collection within the Trevor Arnett Library did not achieve separate identity until 1963. Since then it has become a primary source of information for Afro-American, American, and urban studies. The earliest files concern slavery in the colonial period but these are not extensive. The records become more voluminous as the years pass, with strong holdings reflecting abolitionist activity, relating life during the Civil War and Reconstruction periods, and concerning work in social areas in the twentieth century. Records illuminate the activities of the Neighborhood Union in Atlanta, the Commission on Interracial Cooperation, the Association of Southern Women for the Prevention of Lynching, and the Southern Conference for Human Welfare. Papers of black scholars and artists include those of W. E. B. DuBois, John Hope, and W. C. Handy. A fine Guide to the Negro History Collection was completed in 1971.

The Interdenominational Theological Center Library, near the Atlanta University Campus, houses possibly the most comprehensive historical manuscripts collection in the United States on Negro religious history. One of the three major divisions of the material, Africana, holds information on Africa collected through the Stewart Missionary Foundation.
at Gammon Seminary, a member institution of the ITC, and spans the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The Slavery and Anti-Slavery Propaganda Collection, 1788-1890, is composed largely of printed material. The largest of the three divisions, which dates primarily in the nineteenth century, concerns Negro church history in the United States. Minutes, reports, journals and other papers, buttressed by a significant collection of church periodicals, record annual and general conferences, meetings, conventions and activities of five denominations. Within this group are the papers of the Reverend Samuel W. Williams, Baptist minister, civil rights leader and educator, which contain, in addition to files reflecting these concerns, material on the Friendship Baptist Church, the oldest Black congregation in Georgia. More than a dozen archival and manuscripts collections, dating into the 1960s, relate to the operation of ITC and its members, including Gammon and Turner seminaries. Among the others are extensive records of the Freedmans Aid Society and Southern Education Board, which functioned at least into the 1920s, the American Missionary Association, and the Methodist Episcopal Church Mission in the South during Reconstruction.

The Special Collections Department atop the Robert W. Woodruff Library at Emory University holds more than a quarter million historical manuscripts. Dating from the mid-eighteenth century, the collections fall into three principal fields: the history of Methodism, the history of the South, particularly in the Confederate period, and Southern literary figures. Recently the repository has begun to develop a fourth focus on Southern women. Among the holdings on Methodism are papers of John Wesley, who brought Methodism to this country, and of Methodist bishops, missionaries, and other Church officials, as well as organizational records. Representative holdings of prominent Southerners include records of the Burge Family of Newton County, Georgia; letterbooks of Joseph M. Brown, concerning the Western and Atlantic Railroad; papers of Henry W. Grady; the Candler family of Atlanta and Coca-Cola; and journalists Emily Woodward, Julian LaRose and Julia Collier Harris. Confederate period material includes items of President Jefferson Davis, Vice President Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia, many soldiers' accounts of the war—both Union and Confederate—and records of the Stone Mountain Confederate Monumental Association. Joel Chandler Harris, creator of Uncle Remus, and Ralph McGill, prize-winning editor of the Atlanta Constitution, head the list of Southern authors.
The Southern Labor Archives at Georgia State University reflects the current trend in historical research away from the traditional areas of study. Founded in 1971 to support a newly-established doctoral program in history at the University, it is one of six labor archives in the country. Within the general field of organized labor, it collects broadly, taking not only union records, but also material that illuminates labor's longstanding activity on social issues and civil rights. The holdings touch every state in the South, but at this early date are stronger for Georgia, Florida, and Alabama than for more distant areas. Though five collections date in the nineteenth century, the bulk of the material was created during the last forty years. Representative collections include the voluminous records of both the international and southern offices of the United Textile Workers of America, 1930s-1970s, and the southern regional office files of the International Woodworkers of America, 1943-1959, of the AFL-CIO organizing offices for the Deep South, 1930s-1970, and of the Service Employees, 1958-1970. Among the finest bodies of local union records are those of the Atlanta, Birmingham and Jacksonville typographical unions, 1890s-1970s, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers (Macon), 1884-1949, and of the Atlanta Lodge No. 1, the founding lodge, of the International Association of Machinists.

One of the youngest repositories in Atlanta is the archives of the Southern School of Pharmacy of Mercer University. In addition to the records of the school are prescription books of six pharmacies and papers of H. Custer Naylor, owner of Lane Drug Stores, 1929-1953. These materials are open to the public upon approval of the Dean of the School.

Anniversaries, which stimulate reflection and quicken interest in the past, have brought many archives into existence in the United States, one of them in Atlanta. To "properly commemorate" the centennial of the Atlanta Public Schools in 1972, the System began assembling and collecting all material it could obtain on its development. Laudably, the project was not dismantled upon publication of a centennial history. Among the records accumulated and open for study are minutes of the Board of Education since 1869, material on changing curricula, a collection of publications of the system and its schools, payroll records (1900-1928), and photographic items, both movie
and still. In addition, the archives has acquired file folders full of historical data about each school in the system, biographical information on system administrators, employees, and students, as well as materials of Parent-Teacher Association groups from several schools.

Though archives are found more often in conjunction with governmental and educational agencies, some flourish under the auspices of private organizations and corporate endeavors. The Georgia Association of Educators, a private organization promoting teacher interests, maintains not only its own records since its founding in 1973, but also those of its predecessors—the Georgia Education Association and the Georgia Teachers and Education Association, 1920s–1973.

Founded in 1968 after the assassination, the Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Social Change, a private organization, has established a significant collection of materials bearing on the life of Dr. King and the Civil Rights Movement, particularly in the 1960s. More than 16 major collections include, in addition to the papers of Dr. King, the records of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, the Congress on Racial Equality, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, headquartered in Atlanta, the Episcopal Society for Racial Equality, the Montgomery Improvement Association, and the papers of many individuals associated with these organizations, such as Atlantans Julian Bond and Andrew Young. The papers of Mrs. Coretta Scott King especially carry the Movement forward since 1968. The holdings of original materials are supplemented by an oral history project consisting at present of more than 200 interviews, a considerable photograph collection, and a laudable microfilm program that secures for research in the Center collections of papers and records unavailable to it in the original.

Several firms maintain their noncurrent records in their own archival operations for their own use. Few of these collections are accessible for research. The Coca-Cola Company too holds most of its records in confidence, yet has effectively employed certain of its holdings in advertising. A complete file of advertisements since 1886 is readily accessible. Also in the visitor center at the company's headquarters is a variety of interesting memorabilia describing the rise of the beverage and the company it spawned in Atlanta in the 1880s.
Atlanta is a principal center of archival activity in the United States. Not only in terms of the different kinds of archival operations and of the priceless holdings of its repositories, the city is alive also with developing programs. More than half of the twelve repositories described above have been established within the past decade. And presently at least one repository percolates in the minds of planners.

To the researcher and to the archivist, then, Atlanta beckons and bids welcome.
CHECKLIST OF ARCHIVES IN ATLANTA

1. Atlanta Historical Society, 3099 Andrews Drive, N.W., Atlanta 30305, phone 261-6055, hours 9:00-5:00 M-F.

2. Georgia Department of Archives and History, 330 Capitol Avenue, S.E., Atlanta 30334, phone 656-2381, hours 8:30-4:30 M-F, 9:30-3:30 Sat.

3. Federal Archives and Records Center, 1557 St. Joseph Avenue, East Point 30344, phone 526-7477, hours 8:00 -4:30 M-F.

4. Negro History Collection, Trevor Arnett Library, Atlanta University, 223 Chestnut Street, S.W., Atlanta 30314, phone 681-0251, hours 9:00-5:00 M-F.

5. Library, Interdenominational Theological Center, 671 Beckwith Street, S.W., Atlanta 30314, phone 522-1744, hours 9:00-5:00 M-F.

6. Special Collections, Robert W. Woodruff Library, Emory University, 1380 Oxford Road, N.E., Atlanta 30322, phone 377-2411, ext. 7688, hours 9:00-6:00 M-Sat.

7. Southern Labor Archives, Georgia State University, 104 Decatur Street, S.E., Atlanta 30303, phone 658-2477, hours 8:00-12:00, 1:00-5:00 M-F.

8. Archives, Mercer University Southern School of Pharmacy, 345 Boulevard Street, Atlanta 30312, phone 688-6291, open by appointment.

9. Archives, Atlanta Public School System, Community Affairs Division, Administration Building, 224 Central Avenue, S.W., Atlanta 30303, phone 659-3381, hours 8:30-4:00 M-F.

10. Georgia Association of Educators, Division of Research, 3951 Snapfinger Parkway, Decatur 30032, phone 688-6291, open by appointment.

11. Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Social Change, 671 Beckwith Street, S.W., Atlanta 30314, phone 524-1956, hours 9:00-5:00 M-F.

12. Coca-Cola Company, 310 North Avenue, N.W., Atlanta 30301, phone 897-2121, hours 10:00-3:00 M-F.
William Benedon, Corporate Director of Lockheed Aircraft Corporation for Records Management, and former President of the American Records Management Association, defines "records management" as: "The direction of a program designed to provide economy and efficiency in the creation, organization, maintenance, use and retrieval, and disposition of records, assuring that needless records will not be created or kept and valuable records will be preserved and available." Implicit in this definition are concepts, functions, facilities, and materials ranging from correspondence, forms and reports management to equipment surveillance, filing system control, inventories, microform applications, records centers, records managers, retention and disposal schedules, screening, searches, storage density, and vital records control and audit.

A cursory glance at records management seems to indicate that it is not within the purview of the archivist. A closer examination, however, reveals otherwise. Today's current valuable records will be tomorrow's archives. The records manager's main concern with current records is economy and efficiency, whereas the archivist's is the identification and protection of valuable records before arrival at the archives. The archivist's involvement in records management also can help prevent the archives from being a dumping ground for unwanted records of questionable value. As Frank B. Evans has written, "The interest of the archivist in records management is therefore not only legitimate--it is essential."

Implementing a records management program consistent with Benedon's definition is not feasible for many institutions. Constructing, or even renovating, a build-

Ms. Bartkowski is Assistant University Archivist at Wayne State University.
ing to make it suitable for a records center can be costly. Additional staff salaries also must be considered. A university archives, like most archives, is faced with budget, staff, and space contraints. Its primary concern is collecting, arranging and preserving material, preparing finding aids and giving reference service. Within this framework, records management becomes one facet of the archives program.

Consider the case of two individuals in Macon who want to reach Atlanta, but for different reasons. Airplane, car and bus are the conventional means of transportation. Each has advantages and disadvantages, but each will allow the individuals to realize the goal of reaching Atlanta. Assume for whatever reason—lack of funds, expired drivers license—that one of the two cannot use these conventional methods. Does this necessarily mean that the goal must be sacrificed? No. One can walk to Atlanta. Admittedly more time and effort must be expended, but in taking the first step, no matter how small a step, progress has been made. This paper is intended for the walking archivist—that is to say, the archivist who must be both archivist and records manager, the archivist without the conventional records center, and the archivist, recalling Benedon's definition, who implements a program designed to assure that needless records will not be kept and valuable records will be preserved and available.

The walking archivist's first step can be to standardize transmittal of material to the archives. Records arriving in a variety of containers present an archives, especially one where space is a critical factor, with several problems. Non-uniform containers prevent maximum storage density. Their size may prohibit their shelving and force stacking on floors. Boxes of different dimensions may not stack easily, or withstand the weight of other boxes, thus causing damage to records. Tall stacks may topple and cause injury to employees. Larger containers, such as transfile and bankers boxes, are usually too heavy for easy lifting by one person. To alleviate these problems, it is preferable to use the standard records center container, with dimensions of 10x12x15 inches, which can be used for either letter or legal size files. Further, if the archives will supply offices with records center containers, it will save itself from the time-consuming necessity of transferring records into appropriate boxes. This standardization of containers can increase storage density as well as save the archivist's back.
The next step is to answer the question: "What's in the box?" Anyone who has searched ten or fifteen linear feet of uninventoried records knows that answering this question can be tedious and frustrating. The recourse is to secure a folder title inventory. Of course it takes time to prepare an inventory—time that the archivist could put to better use for other activities. An alternative is to have the sending office prepare the inventory. The archivist can explain quite positively that the archives has thousands of files, and for the archives to give the office the type of reference service that it needs and expects, a folder title inventory is necessary. Convince the office of this fact, and most of the time the office will provide an inventory.

To increase the likelihood of receiving the desired inventory and transmittal information, the archives should provide offices with a combined transmittal inventory form (p. 128). Such a form secures the name and address of the office, signature of administrative official, name and phone number of person preparing the shipment, folder titles keyed to box and folder numbers, and access restrictions. To this information the archivist adds an accession number, date of receipt, name of record group into which the material fits, if different from the name of the office, and, finally, destroy date where applicable. When completed, the original copy is maintained in the archives and the carbon forwarded to the office.

At times offices may need information from, copies of, or temporary physical return of, records. Requests for reference service may be made by telephone or in writing, but the archives should record the transaction on a request for reference service form (p. 129). The form serves the archives by impressing upon offices the value of an inventory, while helping to establish a systematic reference procedure. It will indicate the type of service needed—copies of records, information from records or return of records—as well as accession, box and folder number, folder title, name and address of office, name and title of requester, date, any specific instructions, and the signature of a person in the office authorized to obtain the files. One copy of the reference service form should accompany the records from the archives to the requesting office and back. This ensures that upon their return the records will be replaced in their proper location with a minimum of time and effort expended by the archivist. The office copy should be dated and attached.
**WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES RECORDS TRANSMITTAL AND INVENTORY SHEET**

**NOTE:** PLEASE FILL OUT THIS FORM IN DUPLICATE. SEND THE ORIGINAL TO THE UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES. RETAIN THE DUPLICATE FOR YOUR OFFICE FILES.

**FOR ARCHIVES OFFICE USE ONLY**

1. **ACCESSION NUMBER**

2. **DATE RECEIVED**

3. **RECORD GROUP**

4. **RECEIVED BY (SIGNATURE)**

5. **NAME OF TRANSMITTING OFFICE**

6. **ADDRESS OF TRANSMITTING OFFICE**

7. **PERSON PREPARING SHIPMENT**

8. **TELEPHONE**

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**INVENTORY OF RECORDS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BOX NO.</th>
<th>FOLDER NO.</th>
<th>FILE FOLDER TITLE</th>
<th>DESTROY AFTER</th>
<th>DATE DESTROYED</th>
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**RESTRICTIONS ON USE OF RECORDS:** (IF NO RESTRICTIONS, WRITE "NONE")

**FORM 10-462 SC (12-72)**

**ARCHIVES COPY**

http://digitalcommons.kennesaw.edu/georgia_archive/vol3/iss2/13
### WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES

**REQUEST FOR REFERENCE SERVICE**

**TYPE OF SERVICE REQUESTED (PLEASE CHECK ONE ONLY)**

- [ ] COPIES OF RECORDS
- [ ] INFORMATION FROM RECORDS
- [ ] RETURN OF RECORDS

**RECORDS OF INFORMATION REQUESTED**

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<th>ACCESSION NO.</th>
<th>BOX NO.</th>
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<th>FILE FOLDER TITLE OR DESCRIPTION</th>
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**REMARKS**

**NAME OF ORIGINATING OFFICE**

**ADDRESS OF ORIGINATING OFFICE**

**NAME OF AUTHORIZED REQUESTER**

**TITLE**

**DATE**

**RECEIPT FOR RECORDS RETURNED TO ORIGINATING OFFICE**

*IF RECORDS ARE TO BE RETURNED TO THE ORIGINATING OFFICE, PLEASE SIGN BELOW AND RETURN FORM TO THE UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES IMMEDIATELY.*

**AUTHORIZED SIGNATURE**

**TITLE**

**CAMPUS EXTENSION**

**DATE**

**FORM 10-464 SC (12-72)**

**ARCHIVER COPY**
to the archives copy to indicate that the records have been returned. Reference service forms provide a record of telephone and written requests, document the types of services given, record which offices are using the archives and how often, and indicate which records are out and which have been returned to the archives. Consequently the forms can be a convenient tool when compiling annual reports and usage studies.

Standardized transmittal and reference procedures are basic to an archives' records management program. To comply with these procedures, however, offices need to know that such procedures exist. Too often the archivist overlooks or dismisses this need, as well as the educational function of communication. The archives can inform offices about records management activities through memos, flyers, presentations, brochures and pamphlets. Each has advantages. Memos and flyers are inexpensive; presentations allow personal contact; brochures and pamphlets are attractive and may be more detailed. Whatever format is used, the following points should be emphasized: 1) offices will realize monetary savings since space is money; 2) offices are assured of quick retrieval of records or information from records when needed; 3) not all inactive records belong in the archives; 4) records of permanent value will be preserved. Since most offices are not concerned that records of permanent value be preserved, major emphasis should be placed on space savings and reference services.

Approximately two and one half years ago, when shelving requirements were being drafted for the proposed Walter P. Reuther Library building, the staff of the Wayne State University Archives reviewed its transmittal and reference procedures. It found a reference service often unnecessarily time consuming and inefficient, a considerable backlog of un inventoried, odd-size boxes, and storage space rapidly diminishing. Changes, the survey concluded, were required.

The archives set its first goal as having records inventoried and housed in records center containers before deposit in the repository. Under the new procedure, offices wishing to transfer records are supplied with appropriate boxes, and a newly-designed combined Records Transmittal and Inventory form. Secondly, to facilitate and document reference activities, a Request for Reference Service form was created. Both forms have proved highly serviceable.
At this point the archives decided that it was desirable not only to inform the university at large of our new procedures, but also to reiterate the archives' existence. Frankly, it was hoped offices could be enticed into becoming involved in the records management program rather than resorting to the indiscriminate destruction of records. After careful consideration of methods of communication, costs, and expected results, the repository chose to produce a handbook. The handbook, along with a covering memorandum from the executive vice president, was mailed to all executive officers, deans, directors, and department chairmen. It generated interest, fostered cooperation and gave visibility to the archives. Surely the handbook did not solve all of the problems, but our experience with it confirms that publications play a vital role in the success or failure of an archives' records management program.

When record accumulations threaten to evict university office personnel, the archives usually is called. In this crisis situation the office's primary concern is to gain space by ridding itself of records. The archivist easily can remove those records which should be kept permanently and earmark for destruction those which should not. This crisis situation presents the archivist also with the opportunity to promote other records management activities. Adopting a systematic procedure for the disposition of inactive records helps prevent future chaos and similar crises, alleviates space and filing difficulties, and promotes efficiency. In short, sell the offices on the concept of records retention and disposal schedules.

To establish schedules, the archivist must first gather data. What is the function and organization of the office? Where is the office located in the organizational structure of the organization? Which are the general administrative policy records, the operational records, and the housekeeping records? What is the quantity? Where and how are the files housed? Do other offices have similar records? Who is responsible for maintaining the records?

Directories, organizational charts, and consultations with office personnel are helpful in answering these questions. Professional literature such as Records Management Quarterly, Information and Records Management and the American Archivist provide necessary background information.
Considering that there are approximately nine hundred state and federal regulations concerning the disposition of records, it is essential to establish a good rapport with the organization's attorney.

Even within an institution that has a formal policy regarding the disposition of inactive records, an archives often must pursue a course of tactful diplomacy to elicit cooperation. Coercion to compel compliance may be political and fiscal suicide for an archives. Then too, acquisition of the personal papers of employees is dependent upon their cooperation and interest. Within a university, the business, student and personnel records offices are usually most receptive to records management activities, while departmental and administrative offices quite often are reluctant to accept them. From an archival perspective, records from the latter offices, in particular policy records, are generally the most valuable. Establishing retention and disposal schedules requires careful work with both records and office personnel. Where Teddy Roosevelt could "Speak softly and carry a big stick," the walking archivist must speak softly and carry a records center container.

Space is usually at a premium in an archives' records management facility, and priority should be given to records of an archival nature. To accept records routinely for temporary storage should be the exception rather than the rule. Semi-inactive records, or those that have a high retrieval rate, should be retained in offices until they become inactive. One way of determining the status of records is to ask "How often have these records been referenced in the past year?" If the answer is once or twice, the records may be considered inactive. As a rule of thumb, most departmental and administrative records generally become inactive after three years.

The archivist is vitally concerned with ease of access and maximum efficiency in retrieving records and information from files in the archives. There should be a similar concern for records outside the archives. An institution runs on its files. Unless information can be retrieved, for all practical purposes it is lost. Yet filing is often relegated to the least experienced member of the office staff, without special instruction or even the simplest orientation to the work of the office. Although alphabetic files are the most common, some
individuals create their own filing system. With two or three individuals filing and with turnover in clerical personnel, it is not unusual to have several systems operating at the same time. Retrieval becomes time-consuming, inefficient, and highly distasteful. To help alleviate these difficulties at Wayne State University, the archives staff designed and is gradually implementing a university-wide subject filing system. A handbook publication again is being used to disseminate the system.

The archivist-records manager must realize that offices will participate in records management activities in varying degrees. Some will contact the archives only in a crisis situation. At the same time, they will reject retention and disposal schedules, files revision, and any other services available. Others desire all assistance that can be given. It must be realized also that archives differ and consequently will place emphasis on different records management activities. Because of staff, budget, and space constraints, most archives cannot have a sophisticated, well-developed records management program. But if the archivist is truly concerned with the preservation of records and the quality of records that are preserved, there must be an involvement in records management. It is only when the archivist takes the first step that he becomes the walking archivist.
FOOTNOTES


In a modern manuscript repository, the single-item manuscript is rather an anomaly and a waif. Most manuscript materials received today are collections of records or papers—aggregations of material—not single items. These masses have required new techniques, many derived from archival practices, to cope with the problems inherent in large bodies of paper. Yet single items still manage to struggle into repositories, either as culls from larger manuscript groups, as gifts, or through purchase. For repositories whose systems have been designed to handle mass collections, incorporating the single item can create difficulties.

In the not too distant past, manuscript description concentrated on the single item to the detriment of the relationship between one piece and another, or between separate files of material. One early method often used in institutional card catalogs was the description of each item on separate cards, all interfiled in one alphabet. Unfortunately, this destroyed the concept of an organic whole, or fonds, which was developed for archival material. These archival techniques were in time borrowed for manuscript use. And since, as one authority has put it, "Item description, with rare exceptions, is justifiable only

Mr. Abraham is Librarian, Manuscripts-Archives Division, Washington State University Library, and is a former contributor to GEORGIA ARCHIVE.

*"... the real waifs of the manuscript population, unable to boast of membership even in a group of autographs"—William Jerome Wilson, "Manuscript Cataloging," Traditio, 12 (1956), 527.
after comprehensive control has already been established for the collection as a whole,"¹ single items have frequently been overlooked.

Not only has the modern trend of manuscript processing tended to shortchange the single item, but, perhaps in reaction to previous practices of overdescription, this development has been encouraged by the literature. T. R. Schellenberg, for instance, strongly advises:

Individual record items do not ordinarily deserve the attention required in the catalog process, which is rather slow and difficult. They are generally too insignificant for cataloging, unless they comprise a highly important collection. To give each of them the full cataloging treatment, which has acquired complexities through years of refinement, results in waste of energy and effort, and is likely to divert the staff of a repository from more constructive work.²

The single item and the problems of its description will persist, however, unless some coordination is made in that middle ground between the excesses of overdescription and total neglect. The single item in the context of an organic manuscript group, of course, seldom needs individual description. It is the waifs of the manuscript world which need an "orphanage" of descriptive access and to which this paper is addressed.

Three descriptive systems for single-item manuscripts follow. The first, and most extensive, is that employed in the Washington State University Library for the past five years. The other two methods, briefly described, are essentially variations of the first system, based on experiments in providing specialized access to some large collections. They are proposed in order to illustrate alternate ways the basic descriptive needs of the researcher and manuscript archivist can be accommodated. Once the parameters of a descriptive system have been established, each repository must adjust that system to its own needs.

Examining the description of single-item manuscripts apart from the requirements of large manuscript groups, several descriptive elements can be isolated.³ These are: author, title, date, subject, form and location, plus a number of supplementary notes relating to provenance and restrictions.
The author of a manuscript is an alien concept in many repositories. Manuscript groups seldom have an author, for they are either an individual's collection (say, of twelfth century medical manuscripts) or those papers received by the individual in the course of an activity, a profession, a hobby, or an occupation (which would be his "Papers," "Records" or "Personal Archives"). These last may contain materials "authored" by the individual, especially if there was a secretary and carbon paper available, but often they contain only materials received by the individual. For these reasons, such an individual may be considered, for purposes of description, as the "main entry" or, in the terminology of the National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections (NUCMC), the "Principal name around which the collection is formed." (An integral part of this main entry is whatever is known of the birth and death dates of the author.) As used by NUCMC, this is a different element of description than the "Name of collection."4

In single manuscript items, the matter is not this complex. A letter from John Doe to Richard Roe is authored by John Doe. A letter to Richard Roe with the last page lacking and the signature missing has an unknown author. In ordinary library practice, an item without an author would be listed under title. Thus some thought must be given to the differences in practice and theory between library, manuscript and archival processes.

As larger and bulkier manuscript collections accumulated in repositories, a shift toward archival techniques of description occurred in order to handle their increasing bulk. This was coupled with a turn away from the descriptive methods of librarianship, which have never been able to deal satisfactorily with problems of multiple authorship or subject.

Within their own domain, however, librarians have managed to develop descriptive techniques that persist in having application to work with manuscripts. One early attempt to incorporate manuscripts in library procedures was Charles A. Cutter's Rules for a Dictionary Catalog (4th ed., 1904) which contains Worthington C. Ford's "Cataloging special publications and other material: Manuscripts." More recently, both the American Library Association and the Library of Congress have published rules for the description of manuscripts.5
The reason for this, of course, is that basically librarians do for books what manuscript processors do for manuscripts. Both, at the most fundamental level, provide information which will identify and give access to the material, whether it be book or manuscript. Book cataloging has, over the years, developed an extensive set of rules and procedures, such as the Anglo-American Cataloging Rules, which attempt to standardize this effort for the convenience of the library staff and the public. Without going into these rules too deeply, processors should recognize that many of the elements common to book cataloging are also factors in manuscript description. Primary among these concerns is the question of entry. All catalogs, indexes, bibliographies and lists require a determination of the entry, the key-word by which the list is arranged. Librarians have opted for the author, in general, as that key-word. It seems reasonable enough for use with single-item manuscripts as well. (Most of the complexities in cataloging rules result from the exceptions, the rules themselves are quite simple.)

Having determined to enter the manuscript under the name of the author, the next element to be considered is the title. This, like the question of author entry, does not seem to apply to manuscript description, for manuscripts generally have no titles. As some do, and as the purpose of this paper is to consider general principles, let us assume a title element. In a few cases this element will be the title from the manuscript itself: "Early telephones in Lincoln County." In other cases, where the item otherwise does not have one, the title, as an expression of the subject of the piece, will be supplied by the processor, such as "Reminiscences of the Civil War." "Reminiscences" is both a subject and a form designation, however. A title can be both or either.

The title element is followed by a date element. This may be specific to the very day, or only as specific as possible: ca. 1920. The initials "n.d." indicate that the date is not known. Dates can be written either in normal order--January 27, 1892--or inverted for ease of arrangement--1892 January 27. While the normal month-day-year sequence is illogical, and thus not adapted to machine use, most researchers and repository support staff are so accustomed to it that even a relatively complex chronological filing system, by year, then by month, then by day, is completely comprehensible even though it requires mental transposition.
In many instances the location of the writing of the manuscript is of some significance. If known, this should be placed following the date.

As a summary of the first four elements, examine the following:


Acme Hardware Company. Ledger, 1899-1901, St. Louis, Missouri.

Untold stories of the Interstate Commerce Commission, ca. 1925, Washington, D. C.

In most cases these four elements—author, title, date and place—are sufficient to describe the material in terms of what it is. They are not sufficient, however, to describe what it is about. While some items are self-evident, such as the S. J. Roe one, others are not. For them it is necessary to describe the content, or subject, of the material. In most cases this will be resolved in a brief explanatory phrase: Letter, January 27, 1901, New-Bedford-on-the-Hudson, N.Y. to Alex Gillies, New York City, concerning transportation rates on the Erie Canal. Should the title be in some way inappropriate or unclear, the explanation can resolve the ambiguity: Reminiscences of the Civil War, ca. 1870, Richmond, Virginia, an account of Reconstruction life in Virginia by the wife of Col. Edward L. Roe, U. S. Army.

The greatest care must be taken by the processor at this point to ensure that the description applied to the material is truly descriptive. It also should be concise and free from subjective value judgments.

Having thoroughly described the form and content of the item, the processor then turns to its physical description. For most manuscripts this is a question of its quantity, size (in centimeters, height first), and character. Describing the quantity, or bulk, of an item, "l" and "p" indicate "leaf" and "page" respectively. A leaf is one piece of paper, while a page is but one side of the paper.
The initialisms A.L.S., L.S., A.D.S., D.S. (A. - autograph, L. - letter, S. - signed, D. - document), once commonly employed to describe the character of an item, have fallen into disuse. More common, outside of sale catalogs, is "holograph" for an item in the hand of the author, "manuscript" or "typescript" to indicate form, and an indication by "signed" that the author did in fact sign it. The physical description of a letter, then, could be:

1. holograph, 18x12 cm
2. manuscript, 9x12 cm
4. typescript, 28x21.5 cm

In addition, note should be made of significant physical characteristics which may influence its use, such as its fragility. It is also necessary to indicate if the item is a facsimile, a photocopy or a transcript. For items in this form, the description should give the location of the original manuscript.

There are four categories, often connected, of supplementary notes essential to adequate description of manuscripts. These are: provenance, publication, restriction, and literary rights. Provenance, of course, is an account of the item's previous circumstances. In most cases this is merely a statement of how the repository came by the item--gift or purchase--and the date.

If the item has appeared, in whole or part, in published form, or if some significant mention of it has been made in a publication, a complete bibliographical citation should be given. Such information is particularly useful to researchers distant from the repository who must decide whether a trip to view the item would be worthwhile. Of course, the development of clear and inexpensive photocopies has somewhat lessened the need for this information. Nevertheless, the object of description is to provide researchers with sufficient data to reduce the unnecessary handling of material.

Restrictions on use or quotation of the material should be noted so as to prevent researchers from traveling to see documents closed to them. Similarly, basic questions concerning the ownership of literary rights and copyrights should be answered by the description. The phrase "Open to investigators under library restrictions" generally refers only to those common restrictions concerning circulation, the use of pens, and eating in the reading area. "Open
to investigators under restrictions accepted by the repository generally refers to donor-imposed restrictions. This, of course, is the clue to the researcher to inquire into the extent of the restrictions. It may be that only a small portion of the collection is restricted, or that a pro forma authorization is needed.

The location device of an item in a library is the call number, which reflects a subject analysis of the contents of the item cataloged. Classification and shelving by subject is an excess of complication in dealing with manuscript material. Subject access can be treated more successfully through proper and extensive cross references in the catalog. Therefore, most manuscript repositories employ a simple sequential number, often an accession number.

A final facet of the location information is identification of the institution in which the item is located. This is especially important if the entry is to be included in a union list.

The following is a sample of a completed description of a single-item manuscript. Although the provenance is apparently unknown, and the size is not indicated, it includes the main elements of the description:

VF Holland, Josiah Gilbert, 1819-1881.  
2725 Letter, March 2, 1869, Springfield,  
264 to My Dear Elwell, re: Autographs of Whittier and Longfellow.  
2 1. holograph signed.  
Washington State University Library.

The thoroughness of this descriptive approach reduces the handling of the original manuscript material and, perhaps more important, records information in a standardized format that will remain useful despite changes in personnel or techniques. Many institutions rely on a very simple catalog supplemented by the collective memory of the staff. Such a system of description is subject to the human frailties of memory and the problems of staff turnover. The increasing use of machine systems for record keeping, which one day will knock on all our doors, will be facilitated by the thoroughness of the cataloging.

There are, to be sure, problems with the kind of thorough description outlined above. One is that a single item as described in the catalog or guide appears to be equal in size and importance to a larger and multi-faceted
collection. In addition, the preparation of this full cataloging devotes a disproportionate amount of time and staff to the single item. Large collections are concisely described in the catalog where reference is made to a more complete description in the container list, register or other finding aid. In some cases, as in a calendar, this additional description may extend to the item level.

This imbalance suggests a different treatment for the handling of waifs. Rather than cluttering the card catalog with individual descriptions of hundreds of single items, it would be more economical to create an artificial open-ended collection for these exceptions.

It is already the practice in some institutions to create artificial "Miscellany" files, usually on a broad subject or occupation basis (e.g.: Transportation Miscellany Pioneer Miscellany) for this purpose. These seldom appear to be part of an overall scheme for the handling of manuscript waifs. In fact, they are often created by breaking up small collections of letters and dispersing them into a subject arrangement, a practice to be avoided.

Approaching from another vantage, the parameters of NUCMC exclude collections smaller than fifty items. These smaller units, including single-item manuscripts, are incorporated into the NUCMC system through the description of an artificial collection. "It is suggested that repositories owning very small groups of manuscripts or significant single items ... consider combining them, either physically or simply for the purposes of description, using an individual, area, subject, or period as the basis for so doing."6 Caution must be exercised, however, or appropriate indication made that the collection is artificial, that it was created by the repository for its convenience and does not imply any relationship between the individual items. In collections received as an organic whole, the relationship among individual items is of course of prime importance. The integrity of the original order has assumed such proportions that it must not be implied where nonexistent.

An artificial, open-ended "miscellany" collection would expedite the handling of the truly miscellaneous single-item manuscripts. Each item would be numbered sequentially as added to the collection. This number would be used to key access to the material. Each item would be described in the collection's container list in sequential
order. An open-ended description of the "collection" as a whole would be made for the general catalog providing information as to the existence of the "collection" and its container list. Subject and author tracings, plus the miscellany sequential number, would provide access to the container list, then to the item. A card containing such information might appear as follows:

416 Manuscript miscellany: a collection of individual items acquired from various sources. Unpublished container list in the library.

The Holland manuscript, described earlier, would be added to the descriptive mechanism by giving the item a sequential number at the end of the previous entries. (The 416 above would be the accession or location number for the miscellany collection as a whole.) In the container list, the manuscript would be described in complete detail as in the previous example. The description would also include a list of the required tracings. From the stock of main entry cards for the miscellany collection, enough cards would be withdrawn to provide the appropriate number of cross references. In this example these would be:

Authors, American - Correspondence, reminiscences, etc.
Autographs
Holland, Josiah Gilbert, 1819-1881.
Whittier, John Greenleaf, 1809-1892.

Each added entry would be followed by the Holland item's sequential number within the collection, thus providing immediate access. In all probability, the first of these would already be in the file, and it would only be necessary, therefore, to add the sequential number to the previous numbers on the card.

It can be seen that this system affords the integration of the separate descriptive mechanisms for both single items and large manuscript groups. It permits too the handling of single items within the framework of a descriptive mechanism designed to provide access to large bodies of material. In addition, it provides economies in processing time with little loss of information to the researcher.
As in so many other areas, one must attempt to balance the effort with the results. The trade-off between improved access and the processor's time must take into account the expected level of usage. Since the larger proportion of individual items rely on their author, rather than their content, for significance (particularly when acquired for their autographs), another alternative would be to establish an artificial collection arranged alphabetically by author. This would require less effort at the time of processing and a correspondingly greater effort at the point of reference.

These alternatives for the handling of single-item manuscripts range from the fully descriptive to the minimal access. Each is adaptable to specific circumstances and, as well, none is exclusive. A repository may have use for all three, depending on the kind and uses of its material. The important point is to ensure that the single-item manuscript be rescued from its designation as a "waif" in the modern manuscript repository.
FOOTNOTES


3 The elements of description do not necessarily correspond to the points of access to the material. Access is a function of the retrieval mechanism and is keyed to a limited number of the descriptive elements. Machine systems promise access at a greater number of access points which may mean a closer parallel between the access points and the descriptive elements.


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U ntil recently, historians and archivists shared a common family tree, and even though specialization and professionalization may have obscured ancestral ties, historians are still very much aware that archivists hold the keys to the documentary kingdom upon which they rely for the study and writing of history. For both to function at maximum efficiency, each must maintain acquaintance with the interests of the other. This paper comments on a significant development within the historical profession which, for lack of a more glamorous title, could be called "the rediscovery of local history."

The writing of American history, of course, began with the chronicling of local events by amateurs. By the outbreak of the Revolution, in fact, localism dominated historical writing. Each colony by that time had recorded its own history as an independent unit of the British empire. But the war for independence inspired a new kind of history in America—national history. This new type was further stimulated in the 1820s by the celebration of the semi-centennial of the Revolution, when Congress enacted a law designating college and public libraries throughout the country as depositories of documents of the general government. This law made available a uniform body of federal records, which provided the point of departure for many historians. In contrast, no comparable concentration of local sources existed. But this is not to imply any sudden demise of local history. Indeed, just the opposite. Local, as well as state, historical studies proliferated

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from the 1790s on, in part because of a desire to ensure that a particular locality got its due recognition in national chronicles. In the 1840s a new generation of local historians emerged who viewed the earlier filio­pietistic works with skepticism and dedicated themselves to exposing the "historical jackdaws" of their elders. The result was an elevation of the level of scholarship in local historical studies and substantial improvement in methods of collecting, evaluating and editing documents.

From the Revolution to the Civil War, no real conflict existed between love of one's locality and love of one's country. The nationalism that inspired Fourth-of-July orations in the pre-Civil War era "made few demands on local loyalty." But with the outbreak of the Civil War, the choice between local loyalty and duty to the nation-state became a critical issue, one that wrought havoc among the nationalist historians. During the war, and for some years afterwards, the mission of the historian, so it seemed, was to justify a cause and claim a share of glory for a particular section, town, county, state, regiment or individual.

In 1876, amid celebrations of the nation's centennial, the North and South began the long journey on the road to spiritual reunion. But the writing of the history of the newly unified country was not to be dominated by local amateurs or independent gentlemen. It was taken over by academic professionals such as Herbert Baxter Adams and J. Franklin Jameson who were nationalists by training. The emphasis on the evolution of the nation-state in German universities, where many Americans had been educated, profoundly influenced their approach to the study of history. Almost by necessity, as David Van Tassel has noted, the new professional historians gave their allegiance to the nation, since they had severed, or seriously weakened, their local roots by taking up a profession that could only be practiced in widely scattered academic communities and that often involved a succession of moves during the course of a career. It was these new professionals of the "scientific school" who organized the American Historical Association (AHA) in 1884, an event which signaled the triumph of national history. Nor was its significance lost upon amateurs and local historians, those called "quasi-historians" by Adams. One of them complained that the subjects discussed at meetings of the AHA were of no interest to him and that the association appeared "to be
run in the interest of college professors only and to give those of us who are not of that clan the cold shoulder"—a commentary on a condition which has persisted throughout much of the twentieth century.¹

Increasingly, the burden of writing local history fell to non-academic historians or amateurs whose works continued to develop along lines that emerged in the pre-Civil War decade. Professionals often dismissed these efforts as little more than antiquarianism writ large. Typical of the academic historians' attitude was the observation of a scholar in 1914 who characterized books on local history as "so much dead weight on library shelves; vexatious to the student because of their disorderliness and wordiness, lacking most of what histories should contain, and containing much that histories should omit."² Other critics, no less devastating, castigated such histories as exercises in local piety and ancestor worship, displaying few, if any, of the attributes of "scientific" scholarship and presented as if their subject matter was wholly unrelated to anything outside its narrow confines. Such criticism, repeated over the years, placed a stigma upon the study of local history within academe, where such activity came to be viewed as "pedestrian and stagnating to professional scholarship." The widely held belief was that a research topic, if it was to have any value and make any contribution to knowledge, had to be national, or at least regional, in scope. Since many American historians accepted this assumption, they ignored research opportunities in local history which lay close at hand.

Of course, not all academic historians scorned local history. Among those who continued research in the field were such luminaries as Herbert E. Bolton. In fact, a recent study of Bolton claims that local history played a basic role in the formulation of his famous synthesis, noting that significantly the Bolton thesis of hemispheric unity developed after, not before, a long period of monographic study of local topics.³

Only during the last two decades has the status of local history risen within academic circles to the level at which Bolton placed it. The process began in the 1950s, and before the decade was over the AHA had added a new pamphlet—Philip D. Jordon, The Nature and Practice of Local History (1958)—to its bibliographical series. The year before its publication, in 1957, Professor Charles Sellers, a specialist in Jacksonian politics, chastized
historians for their "indifference to the local and particular ends that are often the springs of political behavior." Such indifference, he argued, had "shrouded much of our political history in a pervasive unreality." Sellers concluded: "The Jackson movement originated in a curious amalgam of local machinations by obscure politicians and broad national developments. The political system thus imposed on the country has continued to rest on just such an amalgam. We shall never understand the system and its history adequately so long as able scholars confine themselves to Congressional and Cabinet level materials, while regarding investigation at the base of political life as work for inferior talents." Such sentiments, expressed with increasing frequency by the end of the 1950s, indicated the beginnings of a renaissance within academe of local history, a field characterized by H. P. R. Finberg as "the Cinderella of historical studies" who had not yet achieved first-class citizenship among professionals.

Then, in the 1960s, there emerged "the New England School of Local History," made up largely of students of Professor Bernard Bailyn of Harvard and influenced by the demographic studies of local historians in Britain and France. The monographs of the New England School, which focus on seventeenth- and eighteenth-century villages and townships, principally concern changes in family structure, the shifting relationships between land and population, and alterations in government. Through research in wills, deeds, court and church documents, these scholars have discovered essential clues to factional alignments and to changes in the economic and political bases of New England towns. In a recent study of Salem, Massachusetts, for example, Paul Boyer and Philip Nissenbaum, gleaned clues from the seemingly barren listings of names in local records. Their findings point to an escalating factional struggle centered in two families, one representing the declining agricultural interests and the other the rising mercantile interests, which, they argue, provides the key to comprehending the bizarre incidents in the town in 1692. In short, they see the witchcraft episodes as "rooted in the particularly tortured history of one village as it tried to come to grips with the larger forces of historical change overtaking the western world."

While the New England school may constitute an identifiable group in terms of subject matter and research
technique, local history has been acquiring a new respectability throughout the nation. In 1963, for example, the Southern Historical Association bestowed upon Edward Phifer, a surgeon and amateur historian, its prestigious Ramsdell Award for his article concerning slavery in the non-staple producing area of Burke County, North Carolina. Since then, professional historians have studied the same topic in local settings throughout the South. In his survey of graduate education in American history completed in the late 1960s, Walter Rundell concluded that even if professional historians had not then taken full advantage of the rich variety of local sources, at least they had begun to appreciate their significance. By 1974, however, David J. Russo could maintain in his *Families and Communities* that "local history is now fully in the mainstream of American historical writing"—an observation that appears to be justified by the outpouring of papers, articles and books by professionals which deal directly with localized topics and by numerous treatises on the pedagogical uses of local historical sources.

In an attempt to explain this renaissance of local history among academic historians during the late 1950s and 1960s, Thomas H. Smith of Ohio University points to two groups of inter-related developments. The first group were developments within the profession including the introduction of new research methods, such as quantitative analysis which is particularly applicable to the study of local communities and institutions, and the recognition and amplification of fields for historical study that were once considered inconsequential or treated only incidentally, such as blacks, women, and the family. The second were events and developments outside the profession, especially during the 1960s, which raised questions relating to the search for identity by various minority groups—the exploitation of both the individual and the environment, the purpose and meaning of urbanization, the place of violence in a democratic society, the role of special interest groups and individuals in the decision making process, and the idea of governance. In an attempt to provide insight into these issues, historians began to explore the local past, because, as Smith explains, "it is at this level that a synthesis of the individual's place in the historic processes can best be understood." It is also at this level that the subject matter becomes less abstract and less impersonal and that a peculiar intimacy is likely to exist between the historian and his subject. For those inclined...
to dismiss local history as a field suitable only for dealers in minutae, the observation made many years ago by Alfred North Whitehead may be enlightening: "We think in generalities," he remarked, "but we live in detail. To make the past live, we must perceive it in detail, in addition to thinking of it in generalities." More recently, Russell Fridley has noted that research in local history is especially feasible in our own time, because its closeness to the human situation and its manageable area of concentration tend to resist the dehumanization which plagues so much specialization. Moreover, local history often can "be validated with a precision lacking in wider ranging subjects."12

Aside from whatever values it may claim as its own, local history has all the values associated with history generally. It helps in understanding present problems and human predicaments, furnishes perspective on how we got where we are, and teaches us, or ought to teach us, humility by reminding us how transitory a particular civilization or society really is. Unfortunately, some local historians have labored under the misconception that, in the United States, society was static, or as one scholar has noted, they concentrated upon "a midget rather than upon a growing man—a man who by necessity must be part of a social group and who is conditioned by a host of factors quite outside his restricted backyard." Furthermore, the scope and dimensions of a localized topic can be deceptive and are rarely what they seem to be at first sight, for as Arthur Lovejoy once remarked: "The more you press toward the heart of a narrowly bounded historical problem, the more likely you are to encounter in the problem itself a pressure which drives you outward beyond these bounds."14 Local history, rather than being self-contained, is always "part of something larger" and therefore must be explored within broader contexts. No one, for example, could undertake a serious study of the crisis involving Little Rock's Central High School without considerable attention to the regional and national dimensions of the episode. The failure of local historians to appreciate the inter-relatedness of the past goes far toward explaining why so much of their work has been of limited value. Their attempts to write exclusively in terms of the local, "to act as time were rigid and a topic self-contained," seriously flawed their perception of historical reality.
An acquaintance with the broader sweep of human events is no less essential to the understanding of the history of a particular locality than a knowledge of local history is to an understanding of the nation's past. J. Frank Dobie was obviously right when he declared that "to study a provincial setting from a provincial point of view is restricting." Such a point of view is virtually inevitable, Dobie argued, unless the local historian acquires the perspective that "only a good deal of literature and wide history can give." Local history assumes significance and meaning to the degree that the practitioner recognizes the microcosmic nature of his subject, sees it as one of many individual threads in a large and intricate tapestry, and comprehends its intimate relationship with other threads and with the total pattern of the whole tapestry.

Clearly, if history is to have meaning outside the profession, indeed if it is to have pedagogical value at all, the historian "must accomplish the difficult task of relating the effects of the national experience to the individual, while at the same time placing the individual in perspective to that same national experience." War, depression, elections, prosperity, industrialization and the like constitute common national experiences which operate at all levels in American society, but it is at the local level that such experiences actually have meaning for the individual. Not the least of the considerations in determining how the individual identifies with, or reacts to, these commonly shared experiences is his place of residence, which, in turn, affects his value system, position in the social structure, and other ingredients in his reaction process. Because of the critical role played by local environment in such a process, the British writer Reginald Hine suspects that human life is "more vividly seen refracted through" the experience of a single parish.

Historians can never view the whole of the facts, as James C. Malin has noted, but they at least strive to "view the facts as a whole." Of course, the larger the unit of space being studied, the greater the volume of facts and the more complex their relationships. Generalizations, therefore, are necessary, but those predicated solely upon a view of the past "from the top down" tend to oversimplify, if not distort, historical processes. No one is likely to be more sensitive to the inadequacy of such generalization than those who have explored history at the local level. They are in a position to come nearer the ideal of dealing with their area, its materials and its
facts as a whole than historians at any other level. In so doing, they can test the generalizations and frames of reference "made from the top down" and expose them as either valid or invalid representations of historical reality.18

A growing awareness on the part of professional scholars of the value of looking at American history "from the bottom up" has resulted in numerous local historical studies which provide extraordinary insight into the national experience. Such studies have prompted major alterations in, and added new dimensions to, existing interpretations of the national experience. Certainly the "grass roots" investigations undertaken during the past eighteen years have done much to rid political history of the shroud of unreality to which Charles Sellers alluded in the 1950s. Of particular significance has been the contribution of scholars such as Samuel P. Hays, who have turned away from the individual and episodic in political history to a "social analysis of political life," an approach concerned principally with the distribution of power among "various distinct groupings and their changing interrelationships." To determine the "basic patterns of political life and the impulses which spring from them," these historians are exploiting vast quantities of information concerning occupations, incomes, residential locations and the like. They maintain that the traditional analysis of political history has rested primarily on rhetoric, which may well reflect "what people wish to think about themselves and their society, but it does not describe what they do." In a report to the Society of American Archivists in the mid-1960s, Hays himself pointed out that the "social analysis of politics" and its concern for behavioral, rather than ideological, evidence had two implications of especial significance. First, it implied a renewed interest in local history, since "patterns of political structure and political process inevitably develop in a local setting"; second, it implied that professional historians must assume a new attitude toward genealogy. Since the "new" political history emphasizes collective, rather than individual, biography, it requires all the information possible concerning the ancestry, as well as descendants, of those who ran for and held office and who occupied niches in party organizations. Obviously, then, Hays and others of his genre find the records of local historical societies and local governments and collections of genealogical data indispensable to their labors.19
In few areas, however, has the impact of those engaged in local historical research been more significant than in the study of progressivism, the multifaceted, complex reform efforts of the early twentieth century. During the past decade, most of the important publications on progressivism have been works in local and state history. These studies have resulted in substantial revisions in the interpretations of Richard Hofstadter and George Mowry, who depicted progressivism as an urban, middle-class reform movement which ended with the First World War. Recent investigators, especially those focusing on various localities in California, Wisconsin and New York, indicate that diverse groups outside the middle class played far more important roles than credited by Mowry and Hofstadter. Apparently progressivism, rather than terminating in 1918, persisted throughout the 1920s.20

In recent years there has been much agitation for historians to concern themselves with what is called the "underside of history," that is, with people of low historical visibility who often left few, if any, personal records. The argument is made that historians have too long pursued an elitist history, or tended to utilize the more obvious and readily available sources. Since it is the papers of the prominent, the articulate and the posterity-conscious which have been preserved, it is from these sources—and from the viewpoint contained therein—that the past most often has been constructed. The plea to concern ourselves with the "underside of history" has a special relevance to local history, because, as J. H. Plumb has observed, one of the distinctive characteristics of local history is its immediacy—its tendency to bring "us face to face with ordinary men and women."21 Such a tendency is evident in recent works of scholars such as Stephan Thernstrom, whose study of Newburyport, Massachusetts, which rests on prodigious research in census schedules and local government records, focuses on the "lives of hundreds of obscure men" who were participants in what is generally called "the rise of the city."

Thernstrom's study lends support to the idea that Americans are a restless, highly mobile people. But it seriously questions the corollary that movement and success go hand in hand. Geographic mobility, he concludes, was often as much a sign of downward, as of upward, social mobility.22 Thernstrom, of course, is only one of a growing number of historians whose sophisticated investigations of local communities concentrate on such issues as
migration, immigration, class stratification, stability and social mobility. Their studies are expanding our concept of the nature of nineteenth century American society and challenging, or at least substantially amending, popular generalizations about it.

Towns and cities have not monopolized the attention of professional historians. Rural counties, too, have become the subjects of sophisticated research. It is noteworthy that a grass-roots study of a frontier county in Wisconsin, compiled by a team of researchers headed by Merle Curti and published in 1959, served as a model and inspiration for Thernstrom's project on Newburyport.

Some of the most exciting research now in progress concerns Afro-Americans who, like certain other groups, have hitherto possessed a relatively low historical profile, except under such topics as slavery and race relations. Many works classified as black history are not so much studies of blacks as of white involvement with blacks, and they rest almost exclusively upon research in white sources. Many, if not most, of the current explorations of the Afro-American past fall within the category of local history. They focus on black men and women in a specific locality and their relationships to local environments at particular times. Moreover, they involve impressive research in Afro-American sources, notwithstanding categorical statements by some historians a few years ago to the effect that such sources were practically non-existent.

Although there are superb studies of black communities in the North by Allan Spear, Seth Schiener and others, three recent works which treat the subject in southern and southwestern settings, and which demonstrate imaginative uses of local and state records, deserve special note. One, a book by William Warren Rogers and Robert Ward entitled August Reckoning, analyzes the career of Jack Turner, a black leader in rural Choctaw County, Alabama, in the post-Civil War decades. Utilizing Turner as a symbol, the authors succeed admirably in what they call "a microcosmic illumination of racial conditions in the postwar South." A similar illumination is provided by Randall B. Woods' recent article on George T. Ruby, a black carpetbagger and state senator from Galveston in the 1870s. Woods reconstructs the political career of a black man who, by faithfully serving the economic interests of Galveston's white business community, enjoyed wide latitude in pressing the cause of
Finally, Lawrence Goodwyn's study of biracial politics which, like Woods', focuses on the cellular structure of the historical process, is set in Grimes County, Texas, where the local historical society assisted in the acquisition of data. Goodwyn's essay demonstrates the possibilities in using oral traditions to "flesh out the human relationship" through which black and white men came together to form a remarkably durable political organization in a southern rural county—relationships only dimly revealed by the "bare bones of voting totals." Through his study, Goodwyn seriously challenges the adequacy of what he calls the traditional monoracial scholarship which rests on the assumption that reform politics in the South is an exclusive function of whites.

One of the richest sources of Afro-American history at the local level, as demonstrated by recent monographs, is the black press. In the South and Southwest, numerous black newspapers were published following the Civil War. Some flourished for a few months or a few years, others survived for decades. But files of these journals were rarely preserved. Fortunately, however, black weeklies in the North and Midwest, relatively complete files of which have been saved, opened their columns to correspondents in the South. In the 1880s and 1890s, the editors of such weeklies recognized that the prosperity of their enterprises depended upon subscriptions in the South where an overwhelming majority of blacks then lived. Convinced that news about local communities in the South would enhance the sale of their newspapers there, these editors not only arranged for individuals residing in towns and hamlets throughout the region to serve as subscription agents and correspondents, but also kept "traveling agents" in the field. The dispatches filed by local correspondents constitute an invaluable source of information about black reaction to the spread of Jim Crowism and about diverse aspects of life in southern black communities not easily obtained elsewhere, certainly not in the local white press. Despite an emphasis on the "Race Question," southern dailies afforded little data on black communities of the type found in the black journals of the North and Midwest—data which historians concerned with race relations in the South have unfortunately ignored.

Local studies in black history and other topics not only contribute to the broader historical tapestry, but also frequently lead investigators into larger and larger
arenas. Pursuing such a progression reveals the absurdity of any hierarchy in historical work which makes local history inferior to state history, state history to regional history, regional history to national history. The simple fact is that these are interdependent enterprises, each drawing upon and contributing to the other.

The issue is not one of national history versus local history, or a national perspective versus a local perspective. The two are complementary, and each enriches and deepens our understanding of the past. Both are essential if we are to avoid a one-dimensional view of the past and appreciate fully the rich diversity of the United States. Essentially, local history confronts the historian with two challenges: one lies in recognizing the significance of local sources (and probably archivists have been considerably more responsive in this respect than historians); the other lies in recognizing the interrelatedness of a localized topic and the wider historical panorama. Archivists and research historians cannot afford to ignore J. Frank Dobie's wise counsel that nothing is too provincial for the historian, but the historian "cannot be provincial-minded toward it."28
FOOTNOTES


28 Quoted in Whitehill, "Local History in the United States," 1333.
What is the role of the archivist? This apparently simple question is not easy to answer. And it is being asked more often and more insistently than ever before—not only by archivists, but also by public officials, newspaper and television commentators and the general public. Many answers are given, but the answers archivists accept must be firmly grounded on an understanding of the history, nature, and purpose of their work.

The true archivist might have an antiquarian's delight in the discovery of things past, but is not only an antiquarian; might have an historian's knowledge of the causes of past events, but is not only an historian; might have a records manager's appreciation of the importance of current records, but is not only a records manager. The role of the archivist includes, but is different from, these other roles.

An archivist is not delayed by historical side-lights, does not confuse nostalgia with history, is always aware of the incompleteness of documentation, is wary of a past that is interesting but not meaningful. Above all, the archivist realizes that there is no past. The past did exist, it was real, but it does not exist now, except in our perception of it. Documents that have survived from the past are interpreted by us in the present. If, suddenly there were no more discoveries of old records or acquisitions of new, if the attics and cupboards no longer yielded their stored treasures, it would still be necessary to re-write history and to visit archives to review the records, interpreting them by new lights. As the present changes, so does our perception of the past.

The role of the archivist is to make possible the

Mr. Horn is the Archivist at DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana. "JUST THINK. . ." is a regular feature of comment in GEORGIA ARCHIVE.
proper study of the past. Archivists seek out the necessary records, acquire them and make them available for researchers. Naturally, appalled by the condition of many of the records, even more by the non-existence of some documents, archivists encourage, indeed demand, the proper keeping of current records and their orderly transfer to depositories.

It is important to emphasize the role of the archivist because, along with the present interest in archives, there is a tendency to tell archivists how to do their work. Many people want to prompt archivists on what should be in the archives and who should be allowed access to it. In response to this the archivist should be a prophet—not one who "fore-tells," but one who "speaks forth"; not one who predicts the future, but one who describes the present. The archivist must state clearly what records should be kept, how both privacy and accessibility can be guaranteed, and how records should be preserved and used. In these areas we archivists are the experts and must be the leaders.

In this post-Watergate and Post-Vietnam era, some people regard the past, especially the recent past, with cynicism and disappointment. They therefore disdain the importance of records and the role of records keepers. If their attitude toward us is due to ignorance of our role, we can educate them. If, however, they correctly perceive our role but oppose us, then we must accept the challenge of justifying our work. If we thus become more engaged in discussion, more apt to be criticized, more embroiled in controversy, so be it. We are in an important time of transition in our role and in the public's perception of it.

Keepers of records, advisers to records makers, proponents of both privacy and freedom—these are challenging roles for our profession. The day of the quiet archivist is past.

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The rapid growth of oral history during the last decade has caused those with established programs to share the lessons they have learned. Willa K. Baum of the Bancroft Library produced an excellent guide for local history projects in her *Oral History for the Local Historical Society* (Nashville: American Association for State and Local History, 1971), and Richard D. Curtiss edited *A Guide for Oral History Programs* (Fullerton: California State University Oral History Program and Southern California Local History Council, 1973). William Moss has now given us a manual that supplements these earlier efforts "by describing some of the concepts and practices of an oral history program in a Presidential Library. Although the example may be specialized, the concepts, practices and problems are instructive and may help in the planning and conduct of other programs." This important and well-written manual was drawn from the author's experience and service as an interviewer and director of the Kennedy Library oral history program. It definitely will benefit those institutions with an on-going program, as well as those planning to launch one.

After a brief description of the development of the Kennedy project, Moss gives "Some General Observations" about oral history. Defining oral history as "basically an information-collection technique," he discusses the ethics of oral history and its use as evidence, and provides some valuable legal advice on subpoena and access to interviews, libel and slander, and literary property rights.

Any beginning project will find the chapter on "Starting an Oral History Program" most helpful, while experienced oral historians can profit from the discussion of "Techniques for Interviewing." The other chapters focus on the practical aspects and routine procedures that are a part of any oral history project: "Processing Interviews," "Research Use of Oral History Tapes and Transcripts," "Processing Records," and "Staffing and Equipping a Major Project."
The procedures and methodologies described and used by Moss in the Kennedy oral history project will not serve all oral history programs, especially those with diverse subject series. The book fails to deal with many of the problems encountered by small programs, such as limited budget and staffs, volunteer projects, and donated tapes. The value of the book is enhanced, however, by a few sample processing forms (the Society of American Archivists' *Forms Manual* has the best collection of Oral History forms), a guide for transcribers, an outline of processing steps, and a "Preliminary Questionnaire to Determine Terms of Use of Oral History Tapes and Transcripts."

Although the book is overpriced by the publisher, it is a welcomed addition to the literature of the expanding field of oral history, and it belongs on the shelf of every institution or agency with an oral history program or project.

Auburn University Archives

Allen W. Jones

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This pamphlet is a guide to scholars working with manuscript sources. It is a practical work, avoids theoretical questions, and concentrates on the mechanics of everyday problems of the researcher. Conditions in the United States and several European countries are compared throughout.

The essay consists of three main divisions. The first section outlines the necessary activities which precede a successful research trip. The author emphasizes that scholars should be well prepared before confronting manuscript curators face-to-face. He instructs the uninitiated on the types of questions to write ahead about, and the kinds of information, in turn, to volunteer to the repository to be visited. There is also a description of the first encounter with the owner or curator of a coveted treasure—what to expect and how to react.
The second section deals with access to manuscripts. The author describes security measures at major repositories and offers instructions on how to handle documents so as not to incur the wrath of horrified curators. A discussion of photocopy policies and a description of how to obtain permission to publish portions of manuscript materials follow.

The final section deals with literary property rights. Of greatest significance is the discussion of common law protection of unpublished materials. This protection indefinitely precludes the publication of manuscripts without the permission of the holder of literary rights. On the other hand, this protection lapses once the materials are published. Furthermore, "publication" is often legally defined as making material available to the public. Thus, depositing manuscripts in a library is construed in some quarters as publishing the materials and, by inference, as surrendering common law protection of literary rights. To the misfortune of the researcher, however, this position is not universally accepted. Without giving any assurances (indeed, none can be given) to the by-now-confused and worried author, a useful rule-of-thumb for dealing with the problem of literary rights emerges: pre-nineteenth century materials provide no legal problems in the vast majority of cases, twentieth century manuscripts require careful investigation of the status of literary rights in all cases, while nineteenth century materials are in a middle ground where some writings are still protected by common law.

The only real weakness of the pamphlet is that it is actually two works: one on ways of dealing with manuscript repositories and collectors, the other on literary property rights. A rather adroit attempt at transition simply does not pull the work together into a single entity. This one criticism aside, it is a fine handbook. It is not exhaustive; it is not intended to be. It would be to the advantage of even experienced researchers to peruse it while working on a project, and it would make excellent required reading for entering graduate students in all fields where manuscript sources are used.

Kentucky State Archives

Lewis J. Bellardo, Jr.

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** The Third Annual Workshop of the Society of Georgia Archivists is scheduled at Georgia State University on November 20-21. The theme—"Insuring a Future for the Past"—highlights the sessions on documenting historic buildings, starting a local archives, and the partnership between archivists and historic preservationists that are designed to open a dialogue between these two groups. Equally pertinent for archivists are the sessions on security and the law, oral history, appraisal, the production and use of finding aids, the preparation of exhibits, genealogy, and procedural manuals.

Programs and registration information will be mailed in September. For further information, contact Ms. Jean Buckley, Workshop Chairperson, Historic Preservation Section, Department of Natural Resources, Atlanta 30334.

** The Society of Georgia Archivists is joining with the Society of American Archivists to host a luncheon on Tuesday, December 30, during the annual meeting in Atlanta of the American Historical Association. Speaker for the event, to be held at the Mariott Motor Hotel, is Frank E. Burke, newly appointed head of the National Historical Publications and Records Commission.

Tickets, priced at $7.50 each, are available from the SGA, Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta 30303.

The Georgia General Assembly, during its 1975 session, amended the Georgia Records Act to streamline records management provisions and to modify restrictions on access. The three sections governing access will significantly affect research in State archival records.

The first of these sections states:
Access to records of Constitutional Officers shall be at the discretion of the Constitutional Officer who created, received, or maintained the records, but no limitation on access to such records shall extend more than 25 years after creation of the records.

A limitation on access was written into the Act in 1973, based on the principle of executive privilege, and is lifted by enactments of this section. Constitutional officers are those state officials whose office is required by the Constitution of Georgia, but in practice the Act will affect primarily the governor.

The second section of the Act reads as follows:

(a) This section applies only to those records (1) that are confidential, classified or restricted by Acts of the General Assembly, or may be declared to be confidential, classified or restricted by future Acts of the General Assembly, unless said future Acts specifically exempt these records from the provisions of this Section; and (2) that have been, or are in the future, deposited in the Georgia State Archives or in any other State-operated archival institution because of their value for historical research.

(b) All restrictions on access to records covered by this Section are hereby lifted and removed seventy-five years after creation of the record.

(c) Restrictions on access to records covered by this Section may be lifted and removed as early as twenty years after the creation of the record on unanimous approval in writing of the State Records Committee.

(d) Applications requesting that the State Records Committee review and consider lifting such restrictions may be made either by the Director of the Department [of Archives and History] or by the head of the agency that transferred the records to the Archives.
The implications of this section for historians are obvious. Records that need to be confidential because of individual rights of privacy will be opened eventually to researchers. The State Records Committee consists of the Governor, the Secretary of State, the Attorney General and the State Auditor.

The third section reads as follows:

(a) Records that are by law confidential, classified or restricted may be used for research purposes by private researchers providing that (1) the researcher is qualified to perform such research; (2) the research topic is designed to produce a study that would be of potential benefit to the State or its citizens; and (3) the researcher will agree in writing to protect the confidentiality of the information contained in the records. When the purpose of the confidentiality is to protect the rights of privacy of any person or persons who are named in the records the researcher must agree, in either his notes or in his finished study or in any manner, not to refer to said person in such a way that they can be identified. When the purpose of the confidentiality is to protect other information the researcher must agree not to divulge that information.

(b) The head of the agency that created the records (or his designee) shall determine whether or not the researcher and his research topic meet the qualifications set forth in subsection (a) above prior to accepting the signed agreement from the researcher and granting permission to use the confidential records.

(c) The use of such confidential records for research shall be considered a privilege and the agreement signed by the researcher shall be binding on him. Researchers who violate the confidentiality of these records shall be punishable in the same manner as would government employees or officials found guilty of this offense.

This section applies to any confidential State governmental records, whether they are in the State Archives or in the creating agency. People other than historians probably will find this section useful because current records are
specifically available for research under controlled condi-
tions. The authors of this amendment hope that this pro-
vision will generate research that will result in new
insights into, and new methods of resolving, problems
facing the State and its citizens.

Training for the information sciences was the topic
of the recent Bertha Bassam Lecture at the University of
Toronto Library School, reports Archives Bulletin (April,
1975), quarterly publication of the Archives Section of
the Canadian Historical Association. David Larson, Archives-
Library Co-ordinator of the Ohio Historical Society and co-
ordinator of the Ohio Network of American History Research
Centers, delivered the principal address.

Larson told the audience that he views the over-
all discipline as information management, and began by
tracing the process of professionalization into five groups
--library science, archives, records management, audio-
visual specialties, and information science--which comprise
information management. These groups have in common: a bias
toward the technical rather than the intellectual side of
the profession; a constant work cycle which can be entered
at any point and which includes appraisal, collecting, cata-
loguing, reference, research, interpretation, and revision;
six physical types of media with which to deal; and three
dimensions--chronological, geographic, and subject--in
which they treat this material. He suggested that this
concentration on the physical, work-a-day activities has
caused the fields to be looked on as trades, rather than as
professions. With reference to present training, Larson
feels the disciplinary approach divides and dilutes the
potential strength of the information management profession,
develops rigid bureaucratic structures based on the media
dimension rather than on the more important information
consideration, and builds critical barriers to job mobility.
He sees research methodology, computer technology, networks,
and social responsibility as important trends of the future
which training must meet.

Larson advocated that an interdisciplinary approach
be immediately adopted. He outlined a program that would
deal with training for service in information management at
three levels: administrator, specialist, and support person.
Those wishing to administer would do so directly after:
study in a doctoral program called information management,
occuring in an interdisciplinary department which would
 teach program development, systems management, theories of
communication, computer applications, social responsibili-
ties, and include specialization in two or three of the
information management sub-fields, taken as cross-listed
courses in the history, library science, or other depart-
ments; on the job training including rotation to various
institutions and duties, and special on-going training.
Specialists would require masters level training in the
field in which they wish to specialize, on the job training
 including rotation to types of institutions within the sub-
category, and special on-going training. Support staff
have defined responsibilities for which they would receive
 specific training.

Larson concluded by recommending several adjust-
ments that would be needed in the information management
profession for Canada and the United States: the opening of
job recruitment and replacement so that a person could move
from one sub-category to another, joint meetings of the
various professional organizations on a periodic basis,
and the channelling of government funds on an information
management basis rather than on the types of institution
involved.

Professor Philip P. Mason, Director of the Archives
of Labor History and Urban Affairs at Wayne State University,
has spent years studying thefts from archives. His investiga-
tion isolated six motives:

(1) The desire for personal possession: as with
art thefts, a desire to own an item that the thief might
feel is not sufficiently recognized and well-treated in a
library or archives. The items remain missing because they
are rarely if ever put on the market.

(2) Kleptomania and other mental disturbances:
thief may offer a challenge or seem an answer to feelings
of antipathy, anger, or distrust of the establishment. The
danger here is not only of theft but also of defacement or
destruction.
(3) Convenience: the 'sort-term loan' of material when a researcher considers reading room hours to be excessively short, or conditions of work inconvenient. The provision of carrels and unsupervised reading rooms or small offices promote this sort of theft.

(4) Profit: the desire for pure monetary gain is perhaps the greatest motive. The rise of stamp and autograph collecting, the establishment of the art-dealers' profession and the absence of formal archives in the past century have fostered the market for documents and encouraged the document thief. There is no specific pattern to the thefts or the thieves. The number of inside jobs is shocking. Perhaps most shocking is the attitude of dealers, who do not concern themselves with the ownership of what they sell, and put the onus of proving ownership on the archives claiming a stolen item.

(5) The desire to purge records, by theft or destruction, of items which contradict a theory or which might be considered damaging to a reputation. This could occur when an individual's thesis is not upheld by the papers as he might wish, or when documents show an ancestor to have been of the wrong political persuasion, or someone might feel grandfather's certificate belongs in his home and not in an archival collection.

(6) The workings of official government and public agencies. Documents may be alienated by legal officers, for items entered as evidence may never be returned to their proper place.

Mason found most disturbing the habit of archivists to remain silent about a theft, which not only encourages the thief but permits him to move unsuspected to another repository to do his dirty work. Three points Mason commends to archivists:

(1) Consider carefully the staff you hire, their collecting habits, the possible conflict of interests which could arise. Remember that this means the security staff, janitors and maintenance staff, etc.: everyone with the right or ability to gain access to storage or stack areas. Arrange to have cleaning in security areas done during office hours. Trust no one.

(2) Examine the credentials of researchers—watch for forgeries. Enforce rules on use of materials; keep
a list of all items used by a researcher and limit what he may bring into the reading room with him; use registration forms; take all reasonable and possible precautions to discourage theft; consider closed-circuit TV and other electronic surveillance systems.

(3) Identify your holdings: use stamps and invisible markings, if feasible; microfilm extensive holdings (this inhibits purging in particular); provide research copies of material considered to be in particular danger of theft or misuse. Have procedures for apprehending thieves, be prepared for emergencies. Consider the next steps: Should you bring charges? notify his faculty or employer? disbar him from doing further research? Do not take the easy way out, or he may move on to some other archives. Our responsibility is to take direct and forceful action.

(The full text of Mason's study will appear in the October issue of the American Archivist.)

Finally, to the thief, we quote Jared Bean, The Old Librarian's Almanac (1774):

For him that stealeth a Book from this Library, let it change to a Serpent in his hand and rend him. Let him be struck with Palsy, and all his Members blasted. Let him languish in Pain, crying aloud for Mercy and let there be no surcease to his Agony till he sink to Dissolution. Let Book-worms gnaw his Entrails in token of the Worm that dieth not, and when at last he goeth to his final Punishment let the Flames of Hell consume him for ever and aye.

and provocative review of the problem of distinguishing between personal and official papers, and suggests that presidential papers be defined as private property subject to public regulation. A president could maintain ownership of his files until he gave them to the government, and he must give them. The 48th American Assembly, meeting at Arden House, Harriman, New York, published both a background monograph by historian Norman A. Graebner, and a Final Report of its deliberations, both under the title *The Records of Public Officials*. The three-day conference of historians, librarians, archivists, and lawyers concluded that past practices have not served the nation well. The Assembly therefore called for public ownership of the papers of officials in all three branches of government, not merely the executive and legislative, and proposed establishment of a separate, independent agency to handle the materials. Finally, *GEORGIA ARCHIVE* Associate Editor David E. Horn, "Who Owns Our History?" *Library Journal*, C (April 1, 1975), 635-639, places the matter in a broader perspective than the other authors.

Ann Campbell, SAA Executive Director, on May 7 appeared before the Senate Committee on Government Operations to state the Society's position on the proposal of the General Services Administration for dealing with the papers of President Nixon. Copies of her statement are available from Ms. Campbell, SAA, Box 8198, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago 60680.

** The debate between the right to privacy and the right to know, which is both within, and at the same time much larger than, the concern over ownership of the papers of public officials, also waxes as warm as ever. The amended Freedom of Information Act to date has been invoked rarely in requests to the National Archives and thus has had little effect on archival enterprise. But before Congress presently is a "comprehensive right to privacy act"—HR 1984—that seeks to extend federal regulation of record keeping practices to state and local governments and private businesses. The implications of this are likely to be far-reaching, extending well beyond the federal sphere. Opinions on the proposal should be conveyed now to your senators and representative.

The Society of American Archivists (address above) offers at no charge for a one-week loan a file concerning various federal and state laws governing privacy and the right to know. Documents in the file may be copied.
Congress continues to wrestle with the General Copyright Revision Bill and recently heard the opinions of several library groups concerning the library photocopying provisions. The statements of these groups are reproduced in *Special Libraries*, 66 (August, 1975), 389-400, 405.

Bills have been introduced into Congress by Senators Jacob Javits (S 1435), Representative John Brademas (HR 6057) and Edward Koch (HR 6829) to permit the deduction on federal income tax returns of the value of certain gifts of papers.

To keep abreast of developments in Congress on tax and privacy legislation, as well as to keep informed of the continuing discussion of copyright and the ownership of the papers of public officials, we strongly recommend a membership in the Society of American Archivists. This group is the only representative of archivists that can monitor, and speak for us on, national issues. And developments are occurring so rapidly, that only through the SAA's fine bi-monthly newsletter can we learn of events in time to react. Write SAA Executive Director, The Library, Box 8198, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago 60680.

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Manuscripts, XXVII (Summer, 1975), 240-241, picked up the following item from the *Philadelphia Inquirer*: Poet John Milton tried recently, through a medium named Judith Richardson, to make the location of some of his hitherto undiscovered manuscripts known to the twentieth century. "He said he left them behind when he fled the country in 1660 just before the overthrow of Cromwell, whom Milton supported, and the restoration of the British monarchy." Elliott Alexander and his wife (who works for the medium) went to England in 1974 to try to locate the manuscripts using the directions passed on in a number of different seances. Unfortunately, a stone cottage where the manuscripts were supposed to be hidden had been destroyed in 1962.
The New York State Library, at the request of the Preservation Committee of the Resources and Technical Services Section of the New York Library Association, has established a referral and information service—without fee—to institutions and individuals. The Clearinghouse for Paper Preservation and Restoration will answer questions about deteriorating paper and its preservation by supplying literature, by discussing the problem with specialists and passing on their suggestions, or by putting the inquirer in direct contact with the specialists. Address:

William De Alleaume  
Clearinghouse for Paper Preservation and Restoration  
New York State Library  
Education Building  
Albany, New York 12224

Patricia Freedman, Head of Sound Archives, Eastern Michigan University, provides basic directions on the "Preliminary Care of Sound Archives" in Open Entry, (Michigan Archival Association Newsletter) II, No. 1 (Winter, 1975).

"A kind and important donor just left you his very personal collection of sound recordings: a two foot high stack of 78's, his grandfather's old cylinder recordings (some in a pretty brown color and even some white ones) and a batch of acetate tapes.

"The first thing to do is nothing. Leave them in the boxes, cartons, or packages for at least twenty-four to forty-eight hours. However, where you leave them is important. This should be a room in the 60° range and between 40 to 60 percent relative humidity. (This temperature and humidity range is appropriate for all recorded materials, including film.) Avoid closets. The records, cylinders and tapes must have air to recuperate. The tapes must be out of range of small motors or magnetic fields of any kind. (Even a vacuum cleaner can be harmful.) These can erase the magnetic charge which originally put the sound on the tape. If possible, put this collection on a shelf where it will get as little handling as possible until processing begins.
"When getting ready for accessioning, make sure that you have enough work space so as not to crowd your items. This sorting area should ideally be reserved for this purpose only, even if it may not be too large. Remove and discard all packing paper, especially newsprint, kraft, soft tissue, and corrugated cardboard as you prepare for inspection, storage, and recording of the basic information you may want to put on your cards. Keep only the hard cardboard slipcase of the disc recordings. If the discs have plastic wrappers, remove them too as soon as possible. The tape recordings may be kept in their original boxes. Cylinder containers are valuable in themselves and of course should be used. For long-term storage, there are better methods, but these can run into money. The Hollinger Corporation has ready-made slip cases for disc recordings and will custom make others for special uses, such as the cylinder containers which the company made for the Library of Congress.

"Carefully rewind tapes at a slow speed with easy tension as they may be brittle, especially if they seem to be several years old. Keep up this practice every six months (or at least once a year if time is tight) if you have determined that they are more than ten years old. Playing tapes occasionally releases the "bubbles" or adhesions sometimes created in long-term storage. In very old tapes it may be safer to play at slow speed instead of a fast wind, as a fast speed can cause breakage and put too much tension on the center. It can also stretch or permanently distort the material. As soon as possible, preserve your tapes on a duplicate tape of the newer materials which retain their flexibility and wear time. Repair all splices which seem to be causing further deterioration.

"If tape seems dusty, it may be carefully cleaned while rewinding with a very clean, dry, lint-free cloth. A new chamois for this purpose has been very helpful. Avoid storing unboxed tapes. Plastic reel boxes suitable for long term storage are available from Realistic (Radio Shack) Electronics. Cardboard boxes for temporary storage are available at most media supply sources. Be sure to store tapes or discs on edge. In the case of tapes this prevents damage to the edge of the tape. In discs it avoids imprint and other pressure induced symptoms.

"Disc recordings, especially the early ones, should be handled very carefully. This is one good reason for a
special working space, because an area used for other clean-up purposes often contains residues of dust, chemicals, and other materials brought in on paper collections and documents. The standard paper container in which the original material came often disintegrates after a while, leaving its mark on the recording. Fungus is in no way selective. It will avail itself of any medium as long as there are some organic particles to feed on. The white spots on the wax cylinders and the brown rough spots on discs that do not yield to detergent and water are two examples of areas already inhabited. These fungus organisms are equally the enemy of the vigilant archivist who cares about the condition of his manuscripts.

"Another problem with earlier discs and cylinders is that the materials which went into their manufacture will change properties, and they become brittle. If possible, refrain from playing them on anything that does not have a light electronic pickup. Use a turntable with a variable speed (no changer--discs may not be able to withstand too many falls from the spindle). The speeds are not always accurate both on account of early recording errors and of the changes that may have taken place during the aging process. Using original equipment may satisfy a nostalgic yen, but may prove fatal to the reproduction after a few plays. Resist the temptation, and sort, arrange and store the recording until proper equipment is available. Cylinder players can be modified for use in preservation of these old materials. This can be done by electrification and use of a special stylus. This not only serves the purpose of preservation, but also makes the sounds more compatible to our present listening habits.

"All materials should be cleaned before any attempt is made to play the recordings on even the choicest equipment. And most important, wear clean white cotton gloves while handling these materials. Finger prints can produce etching from the grease and acid."

** Portable exhibit boards providing approximately ninety square feet of surface space in three units can be built from scratch for about $60. Directions, supplied by the Society of American Archivists' Executive Director, Ann Morgan Campbell, are printed in History News, 30 (May, 1975), 124.
Years have passed since America's archivists discussed in meetings or publications developments in photocopy machines and ways the equipment could be modified to suit our requirements. William Saffady, "New Developments in Electrostatic Copiers," *American Archivist*, 38 (January, 1975), 67-75, offers relief. The article considers more than a dozen new copiers, their features, advantages and disadvantages. Personnel in repositories considering acquisition of such equipment should, without question, study this article beforehand. And the rest of us could profit from it too. We need to discuss our requirements for copying fragile, and oversized, and faint documents, as well as tightly-sewn bound items, and make recommendations to the manufacturers, who admittedly have been more concerned with corporate users than archival-library-academic patrons.

One of the brightest and most prolific writers on the archival scene, William Saffady of the Archives of Labor History and Urban Affairs at Wayne State University, has contributed not only the article above, but also "Reference Service to Researchers in Archives," *RQ*, 14 (Winter, 1974), 139-144. Discussing a subject rarely addressed in print, Saffady provides a fine review of the literature on the subject organized in a highly informative manner.

When the city of Haverhill, Massachusetts, faced up to its 300-year backlog of unprocessed city records, it found enthusiasm and concern and innovative thinking adequate to the challenge. The New England Archivists *Newsletter*, Vol. 2, No. 3 (August, 1975), reports that "by glamorizing the records and capitalizing on interest in the Bicentennial, the city recruited volunteers through ads in the local papers, on the radio, and so on. Most were college students, spouses of local professionals, or retired people, each group having positive and negative characteristics. College students, for instance, were available in large numbers and had some academic expertise, but their time was limited and their work habits relatively undisciplined. With volunteers the only source of labor available to the archives, time invested in training and supervision and the acceptance of a 5 percent margin of error were a small price to pay for gaining control over a huge backlog of records.
** Prologue: The Journal of the National Archives, 7 (Spring, 1975), carried two articles of interest to the archival profession broadly. Samuel P. Hays, "History and Genealogy: Patterns of Change and Prospects for Cooperation," 39-43, calls for cooperation among genealogists and social historians, pointing out areas in which the groups can benefit from the work of the others. Milton O. Gustafson, "Archival Implications of State Department Recordkeeping," 36-38, gives a brief but interesting comparison between conventional filing and finding systems and those using microfilm as a storage medium and the computer for a finding aid.

** Ms. Archivist, Vol. II, No. 2 (Summer, 1974), is devoted almost entirely to providing information about the nature and location of women's history collections. Among the many distinguished collections listed is the Georgia Women Authors Collection at Georgia State College for Women in Milledgeville.


** Lila J. Goff, head of the Audio-Visual Library, Minnesota Historical Society, provides a fine, brief introduction to the handling and processing of taped interviews in History News, 30 (July, 1975), 161.

** The Georgia Department of Archives and History has completed indexes to pension files in the Civil War Section and to land reserve records in the Surveyor General's Department.

** In the continuing effort to standardize and improve archival services, groups both within and outside of the

** The Committee on Terminology and Statistics of the Society of American Archivists is seeking copies of statistical reports and/or forms used for them, showing items measured and units used. Address material to David E. Horn, DePauw University Archives, Greencastle, Indiana 46135.

** The Georgia Department of Archives and History, in cooperation with the Georgia Bicentennial Commission and other co-sponsoring agencies, is planning a symposium on Georgia studies to be held at the State Archives on February 6-7, 1976. The purpose of this symposium is to create a forum in which scholars engaged in Georgia studies can meet and exchange information concerning their work. For additional information contact:

Edwin Bridges
Surveyor General Department
Archives and Records Building
Atlanta, Georgia 30334
404-656-2367

** The National Association of State Archives and Records Administrators met on July 24-25, 1975, to discuss the establishment of minimum standards for, and responsibilities of, state archival/records management programs. Sessions explored the use of technical assistance and consultant services, the National Historical Publications
and Records Program, public records, court records, local government records, microfilm as a public record, and the private papers of public officials.

** From Wilfred C. Platt, Jr., Secretary-Treasurer of the Georgia Association of Historians, we have received the following in exchange for data on the SGA printed in the GAH newsletter.

"Archivists are invited to membership in the Georgia Association of Historians. The Association was founded in 1973, and membership is open to 'professional historians in Georgia.' This broad definition is intended to include all who conceive of their work as being a part of the historical profession.

"The purposes of the Association include the holding of meetings and the fostering of professional and social communication among historians. The second annual meeting of the Association was held at Georgia State University in April, 1975, and was attended by approximately 150 historians.

"Small seminars are a feature of the program of the annual meeting, and it is entirely possible that topics of interest to archivists could be dealt with in future seminars. The Association circulates a newsletter which contains news of the organization, as well as items of general interest to historians.

"Membership dues are: regular annual dues, $4.00; graduate-student annual dues, $2.00; and life membership, $48.00. Make checks payable to 'Georgia Association of Historians' and send them to Secretary-Treasurer Platt, Box 1, Mercer University, Macon 31207."

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RECENT ACCESSIONS AND OPENINGS OF GEORGIA RESOURCES

GEORGIA REPOSITORIES

Athens

SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DEPARTMENT, ILAH DUNLAP
LITTLE MEMORIAL LIBRARY, UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

DR. GEORGE BABER ATKISSON Collection, 1851-1914: contains family papers, mainly Athens, Ga., relating to social history; 84 items.

NATHAN ATKINSON BROWN Papers, 1850s-1936: includes Civil War correspondence and relates to White Oak Plantation, Camden County, Ga.; 58 items.

GEORGIA RAILROAD AND BANKING CO. Miscellaneous Papers, 1825-1899: letters, shares, documents relating to shares; 238 items.

CLARK HOWELL Papers, 1873-1946: papers of editor and owner of Atlanta Constitution; 1,055 items.


THOMAS JONES Papers, 1819-1964: includes records of Greenwood Plantation, Thomas County, Ga.; 115 items.

FLEMING JORDAN Letters, 1842-1865: primarily Civil War letters; 43 items.

MARY HUBNER WALKER Collection, 1874-1899: contains correspondence between Paul Hamilton Hayne and Charles W. Hubner; 129 items.

Atlanta

ATLANTA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

JACK ADAIR Collection, 1905-1938: contracts, title documents, deeds, indentures, plat diagrams of Adair Realty Co.; 1 cu.ft.
BERT H. FLANDERS Scrapbooks: on the history of Atlanta and Georgia, indexes of events from 1819 to 1970 with stress on material relating to literary figures; 8 vols.

FULTON COUNTY GOVT. Archives: includes County Manager's subject files (1947-1962, 1 cu.ft.); County Manager's outside organization file (1964-1969, 1 cu.ft.), arranged alphabetically with subject list; county voter history (163 microfiche), including voter registration to 1 Jan. 1973; total 10 cu.ft.

WILLIAM D. FUNKHouser Collection, 1942-1945: photographs and documents pertaining to the "Emory Unit," 43rd General Hospital, U.S. Army; 1/2 cu.ft.

HUGH T. KENNAN Collection, 1922: Prohibition-era formulae for making "bathtub gin," includes original bottles of ingredients.


J.M. McCRARY Collection, 1862-1864: contains Civil War correspondence, forms used by C.S.A., tax account, contract with former slaves; 77 items.

WILLIAM G. RAOUl Family Papers: includes family correspondence and diaries (1858-1892), information on Mexican National Railroad (1890s), stock certificate of Atlanta, Decatur and Stone Mountain Turnpike (1871); 1/2 cu.ft.

SAMUEL SPENCER Papers, 1864: copies of typed transcripts of Civil War letters of C.S.A. soldier, banker and first president of Southern Railway System; 57 items.

J.P. STEVENS ENGRAVING CO. Collection, 1880s-1930s: examples of firm's engraving skill in printed notices, cards, menus, and announcements (providing a source of information on deaths, weddings, mergers, banquets, etc.); 4 cu.ft.

SAM WEYMAN Collection; contains copy of letter, 20 Aug. 1826, by James Shorter, describing trip through upper Georgia to Augusta, then Savannah, and by ship to New York on way to Yale College; 4 pp., holograph.

SPECIAL COLLECTIONS DEPARTMENT
ROBERT W. WOODRUFF LIBRARY, EMORY UNIVERSITY

WILLIAM COOPER Diaries, 1860, 1870: microfilm copies of two diaries, colorfully and amusingly illustrated by the author, a planter and lawyer from Tuscumbia, Ala.


HAROLD H. MARTIN Papers, ca. 1900-1975: addition; papers created during writing of biography of Robert W. Woodruff, 1974-1975; appr. 5 boxes. [The Martin Papers now comprise 45 mss boxes. An inventory is available in the repository.]

RALPH EMERSON McGILL Papers, ca. 1968-1975: additions; correspondence, mostly letters to Mrs. McGill after the editor's death, and memorabilia; ca. 200 items. [A guide, including inventory and name and subject indexes, is available in the repository. The papers, some 100 mss boxes and 75 scrapbooks, cover his entire career but are most voluminous for the late 1950s and the 1960s.]

ELIZA K. PNASCHALL Papers, 1958-1970: additions; papers, 1965-1970, relating to the Greater Atlanta Council on Human Relations, the Community Relations Commission, and related organizations and to the Democratic Party in Georgia, 1968; ca. 3 cu.ft. [The Paschall Papers now include appr. 25 boxes; an inventory is available in the repository.]

DOROTHY ROGERS TILLY Papers, 1868-1970: includes correspondence, reports, clippings, mainly concerning her work with President Truman's Commission on Civil Rights (1947) and with the Women's Division of Christian Service of the Methodist Church; 4 mss boxes. [Index and inventory available.]

GEORGIA DEPARTMENT OF ARCHIVES AND HISTORY
Manuscripts Section

JOHN BALDWIN Diaries, 1889-1946: notations on expenses, tasks, and sometimes the weather, by a Floyd County, Ga., farmer; 9 vols.

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MARTHA HARPER (Mrs. John) BALDWIN Travel Account, May-August 1831: xerox copy of typed transcript, describes overland journey from Monticello, Ga., through Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, New York, and Connecticut; includes some genealogical data on Harper, Shorter, and Blount families.


REV. JOHN CALVIN DAVIDSON (1844-1905) Diary, Jan. 1878-Jan. 1879: kept while author studied for Methodist ministry at Vanderbilt Univ.; 1 vol. [Repository also has his "Notes and Sermons (1 vol., n.d.) and album describing friends, 1877-1888.]

GEORGE LITTLETON DEKLE "Notes on Embalming": kept by author, resident of Cordele, Ga., while attending Champion College of Embalming, Springfield, O. (graduated in 1901); 1 vol.

LOUISA WARREN PATCH FLETCHER (1808-1884) Diary, 1857-1883: xerox copy; kept by wife of owner of Fletcher House in Marietta, Ga.; records family activities, reviews of reading, her thoughts; 1 vol.

FLETCHER HOUSE (Marietta, Ga.) Accounts Ledger, July 1859-Feb. 1860: hotel in which the Andrews Raid supposedly originated, destroyed by Sherman's troops, rebuilt as Kennesaw House; lists guests with date and amount paid and hotel's expenses; 1 vol. (118 pp.) [To be microfilmed.]

JAMES GARDNER (1813-1874) Papers, 1817-1890: lawyer, businessman, planter, editor-publisher of Augusta, Ga., Constitutionalist; personal and business correspondence, deeds, estate papers, contracts, a few records of Columbia Mining Co.; 500 items.

LEBANON BAPTIST CHURCH (Roswell, Ga.) Minutes, 1836-1853: from church's founding in 1836; 1 vol. (144 pp.) + typed transcript. [To be microfilmed.]

LOVEJOY (Ga.) PICAYUNE [newspaper]: Vol. 1 (nos. 1-12, monthly, March 1890-March 1891), Vol. 2 (nos. 1-13, weekly, April-July 1891); bound as 1 vol.

MADISON (Ga.) YOUNG MATRONS' CLUB Records, 1893-1896: minutes, dues record, constitution, by-laws of social club; 1 vol.
ALEXANDER MEANS (1801-1883) Letters, 1853-1875: to Oreon Mann (later Mrs. Rufus Smith); president of Southern Female Masonic College, Covington, Ga.; 11 items + typed transcripts.

SARAH VIRGINIA MEANS Diary and Composition Book, 1874-1876: xerox copy; kept while a student at Wesleyan Female College, Macon, Ga.; 1 vol.

NATHANIEL R. MITCHELL Family Papers, 1830-1895: planter, Thomas County, Ga.; consists of family and business correspondence, plantation and farm records, shipping manifest, and cotton receipts; 1 cu.ft.


Microfilm Library

ATLANTA Constitution, 1915-1918: 46 reels [From Microfilming Corporation of America]

INDEX TO COMPILED SERVICE RECORDS of the Volunteer Tennessee Militia for the Cherokee War, Removal, and Disturbances, 1832 reels [From National Archives]

JOURNALS OF CONTINENTAL CONGRESS: Vols. 1-6 (1774-1776), 7-11 (1777-1778), 15-18 (1779-1780); 3 reels [From Library of Congress]

MACON Telegraph, 1862-1865: 2 reels [From Bell & Howell]

SOUTH CAROLINA TREASURY DEPT.: Ledger Books, Vols. A, B, and C (1783-1791), and Journals (1783-1791); 4 reels [From South Carolina Dept. of Archives and History]

U.S. BUREAU OF REFUGEES, FREEDMEN, AND ABANDONED LANDS: The Freedman's Savings and Trust Co. (Atlanta, Savannah, Augusta 1865-1874; 5 reels); Records of the Assistant Commissioner for the State of Georgia, List of freedmen murdered or assaulted (1867) and Records relating to operations and to murder and outrages (1865-1869), 1 reel.

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Public Records Section
(formerly State Records Section)

DEPT. OF ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES: EDP Review Committee
Subject files (1967-1973; 13 cu.ft.); Minutes (1974; .1 cu.ft.)

DEPT. OF AGRICULTURE: Administrative Div. Director's
general subject files (1969-1972; 4 cu.ft.); Commissioner's
Office, Subject files (1962-1969, 1971; 5 cu.ft.); Information
Office, Publication record set (1974; 1 cu.ft.)

DEPT. OF AUDITS: State Auditor, Annual report (FY 1974;
3 vols.)

DEPT. OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: Public Relations Unit,
Public relations subject files (1972; 2 cu.ft.) and Television
industry subject files (1973; 1/2 cu.ft.); Research Div.,
Director's general subject files (1970-1972; 1 cu.ft.); Pro-
motion and Publications, Economic development program profile
files (1968-1973; 1 cu.ft.)

OFFICE OF THE COMPTROLLER GENERAL: Insurance Div.,
Insurance company annual statements (1972 life insurance com-
panies, 1973 fire and casualty insurance companies; 68 cu.ft.);
Industrial Loan Commission, closed loan company files [com-
panies no longer in business] (A-Z; 13 cu.ft.)

DEPT. OF EDUCATION: State Superintendent of Schools,
Subject files (1971; 4 cu.ft.); Staff Services Div., Educational
system statistical files, financial reports, superintendents' reports, transportation reports, school plant reports, drop-out
reports (misc. years; 45 cu.ft.)

FORESTRY COMMISSION: Field Services Div., Fire reports
(1966-1969; 19 cu.ft.)

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT: Governor's proclamations (1968-
1970; 2 cu.ft.); Governor's general administrative records, in-
cluding correspondence and subject files (1970-1974; 84 cu.ft.);
Governor's intern program, Intern study report files (1971-1973;
11 cu.ft.); Published findings of the Governor's Commission on
Criminal Justice Standards and Goals (1974; 1/2 cu.ft.)

GENERAL ASSEMBLY: Index of Local and General Acts and
Resolutions (1973-1974; 1 cu.ft.); House and Senate Journals
(1973-1974; 2 cu.ft.); Bills and Resolutions of the General
Assembly (1973-1974; 10 cu.ft.); House Calendars (1973-1974; 2
cu.ft.); House and Senate Committee Books (1973-1974; 2 cu.ft.); Engrossed bills and resolutions of the General Assembly (1975; 5 cu.ft.)

DEPT. OF HUMAN RESOURCES: Commissioner's Office, Board of Human Resources Minutes (1972-1974; 1 cu.ft.); County Dept. of Family and Children's Services, Annual report files and Minutes of board meetings (1972-1973; 4 cu.ft.); Div. of Community Services, Milledgeville Youth Development Center, Minutes of the Children's Benefit Fund, Minutes of the Scout Troop (1970-1973), Annual report (FY 1974; 3/4 cu.ft.); Director's general administrative records (1972; 7 cu.ft.); Div. of Mental Health, Director's subject file (1972; 11 cu.ft.); Central State Hospital, Manpower Admin. Div., Minutes and staffing files (.1 cu.ft.); Div. of Physical Health, Director's subject files (1973; 9 cu.ft.); Family Health Unit, Director's office subject files (1973; 2 cu.ft.); Epidemiology Unit, "Physicians' Reports" (1974; .1 cu.ft.); Health Program Management Unit, Human Subjects at Risk files and Health program projects files (various dates; 4 cu.ft.)


UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF GEORGIA: Board of Regents, Annual reports of schools in the University System (FY 1973; 3 cu.ft.)

DEPT. OF VETERANS' SERVICE: V.S. Statistical report file (1957-1973; 1 cu.ft.); State Board of Veterans' Service, Minutes (1973; .1 cu.ft.); Public information files, news releases (1950-1974; 1 cu.ft.)

Note: For information concerning records in the Public Records Section, please contact (404) 656-2383.

SOUTHERN LABOR ARCHIVES
GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY


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GEORGIA DEMOCRATIC PARTY FORUM Records, 1959-1972: correspondence, financial documents, minutes, printed material of splinter group which supported former Gov. Ellis Arnall in his unsuccessful write-in bid for governor in 1966; 1,970 lvs. [Unpublished inventory available.]


GEORGE PEARMAN Papers, 1892-1975: include research notes on and a biography of Thomas Wilson Talbot, founder of the Machinists Union, and clippings about Labor Day; 41 lvs. [Unpublished inventory available.]

RETAIL, WHOLESALE, AND DEPARTMENT STORE UNION, SOUTHEASTERN REGION, Records, 1940-1968: correspondence, financial documents, and company files including cases brought before National Labor Relations Board; 7,030 lvs. [Unpublished inventory available.]

Carrollton

ARCHIVES
WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE

SACRED HARP SINGING Collection, 1968-1975: minutes of annual convention, two recordings, songbooks; 10 items.

WEST GEORGIA REGION Collection (from 1840): church records, church histories, photographs, club minutes, local histories, city and county plat maps; 250 items.

GEORGIANA Collection (from 1820): maps, church records, reports from various state offices; 40 items.

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North Carolina

SOUTHERN HISTORICAL COLLECTION
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA
CHAPEL HILL

CHARLES IVERSON GRAVES Papers: addition, 1857-1894; native of Rome, Ga., served in U.S., Confederate, and Egyptian navies and as railroad engineer; includes letters to and about him, clippings, addresses, and other printed material, mariner's log (1859-1861), and diary (1875-1878; 1 vol.) containing accounts, memoranda, personal notations, and correspondence records; 35 items, 3 vols. [Partial description, unpublished, available at the repository.]

EDITH RUSSELL HARRINGTON Papers, 1930-1973: co-founder and director, Atlanta Children's Civic Theater; includes correspondence, plans, outlines, other materials relating to her work as stage and lighting designer for outdoor drama festivals, some in Georgia; 3 ft.

SARAH A. JARRETT Papers, 1846-1852; resident of Walton's Ford, Habersham County, Ga.; personal and family correspondence; 24 items.

THOMAS BUTLER KING (1800-1864) Papers: addition, 1840-1850: Whig politician; letters to his brother concerning current national political affairs and his own public activities; 4 items.

U.B. PHILLIPS Papers: addition; copies of typed transcripts of 4 interviews conducted in 1974 by John Roper, Univ. of North Carolina, with persons who worked with Professor Phillips at Yale Univ., 1929-1934.

EUGENIA RAWLS-DONALD SEAWELL Theater Collection, 1916-1974: Broadway and TV actress and lawyer-producer-publisher husband; correspondence, clippings, playbills, scripts, photographs, and ephemera, some related to her early years in Dublin, Ga., and at Wesleyan College, Macon; 20 ft.

HOWARD WILBUR THOMAS Papers, 1899-1974: artist, served on faculties of Agnes Scott College (1943-1945) and Univ. of Georgia (1945-1965); includes personal and professional correspondence, diaries and other painting records, records of exhibits, museums, and galleries, and materials relating to his classroom work; 3,500 items [Unpublished description available at repository.]
SARAH (EVE) ADAMS Diary, 1813-1814: relates to her life and family in Richmond County, Ga., and the Presbyterian church in Augusta.

TRUeman G. AVERY Diary, 1868; records travels of New York businessman through Georgia via Macon and Savannah.


JOHN EMORY BRYANT Papers: relate to activities with Freedmen's Bureau and Republican Party in Georgia during Reconstruction; 1,818 items + 40 vols.


CHESHIRE, SULLIVAN, AND CANADAY, INC., Papers, 1912-1949: Charleston cotton exporting firm; include records relating to purchases in Ga. in 1930s and 1940s; ca. 38,000 items.

JAMES H. DeVOTIE Family Scrapbook, 1849-1925: personal and business cards, railroad tickets, social invitations and programs from Columbus, Ga., and vicinity, mostly 1850s and 1860s.

ALBERT KENRICK FISHER Journal, 1886: records of investigations of rice cultivation and bird life, some of which were conducted on rice plantations near Savannah.

LOUIS HAMburger Papers, 1857-1900: correspondence of owner of textile mill, Waynmanville, Ga.; 53 items.

EDWARD JENKINS HARDEN Papers, 1840-1885: relate to legal and financial affairs of Savannah family; 99 items.

ELIZABETH BALDWIN (WILEY) HARRIS Papers, 1858-1958: include diary (1862-1893) from plantation in Hancock County, Ga.

JAMES WALLACE McALPIN Papers, 1853-1897: family correspondence, Savannah.
South Carolina

ARCHIVES
DACUS LIBRARY, WINTHROP COLLEGE
ROCK HILL


Tennessee

TENNESSEE STATE LIBRARY AND ARCHIVES
NASHVILLE

CUNNINGHAM DANIEL Letter, 8 April 1830: written from Wilkes County, Ga.; family news.

GEORGE WASHINGTON DILLON (1838-1909) Papers, ca. 1850-1875: Civil War diaries; 26 items + 10 vols.

SARAH HARRIET McCONNELL (1840-1931) Memoir, ca. 1923: typed transcript of detailed memoir recounting family's imprisonment in federal jail in Nashville (1864-1865), describing arrest, prison life and conditions, eventual parole and release, and trip back to Georgia (Catoosa County); 1 item (11 pp.)
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