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AN INTER-INSTITUTIONAL COMPARISON
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GEORGIA ARCHIVE is published semiannually by the Society of Georgia Archivists. Annual membership categories effective with the 1977 membership year are: Regular, $7.50; Contributing, $15.00; Sustaining, $30.00; Patron, more than $30.00. Institutional subscriptions are $7.00 annually. Single issues, where available, are $3.00 for members and $3.50 for non-members.

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Archivists are inveterate manual writers. Perhaps this propensity is due to the technical nature of our profession or to that constant striving for order and systemization that is so much a part of our daily activities. For whatever reason, the manual has played a central role in the development of our professional literature. The first great modern exposition of archival methodology, published in 1898 by three eminent Dutch archivists, Muller, Feith, and Fruin, was entitled A Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives. Likewise, the first English exposition of archival theory and practice, written some thirty years later by Sir Hiliary Jenkinson, was styled A Manual of Archive Administration.

In the sense that they were technical in structure, didactic in intent, and dealt with procedures established for and by their own communities of archivists, these works were true manuals. They have survived as the cornerstones of our literature not for their specific methodological suggestions, however, which are often irrelevant to the modern archivist, but rather because of the depth and insight with which these authors treated the basic archival theories from which

Richard Strassberg is Director of the Labor Management Documentation Center at Cornell University. This paper was read before the Society of American Archivists, September, 1976.
their suggestions for the application of specific techniques grew.

The manuals with which the following paper will deal are quite different from these early works. Rather than attempting to summarize the corpus of archival knowledge and build upon it, they touch upon theory only fleetingly, preferring rather to instruct in the minutia of the work which has to be performed. They assume a common body of knowledge on the part of their users and are frankly myopic in their viewpoint; but this is as it should be, for they are, by and large, in-house manuals—specifically designed to instruct a single institution's staff.

Given the nearsightedness and singlemindedness of such manuals, do they repay close study? For archivists and manuscript curators contemplating manual writing for the first time, insight into previous efforts in this direction could not help but be rewarding; and even those archivists with sophisticated manuals of their own devising can gain at least a context for their own efforts from a comparative analysis of other manuals. Our profession is still young enough for originality to flourish. Of the seventeen institutional manuals I was able to obtain, no two were exactly alike, almost all offered fresh insights, and all suggested exclusive topics or approaches that might well have been taken into account by the others. Thus a composite view describing the stronger attributes of this sampling may prove useful to many archivists seeking to impose order upon often inherited chaos.

In preparing this study, I contacted approximately forty manuscript and archival repositories, requesting copies of any materials they might categorize as technical manuals concerned with the arrangement and description of records or speaking generally to "processing." Beyond the obvious attempt to include the various types of repositories in the sample, I must admit to being biased in my control group in that I purposefully selected institutions of some age and repute with the hope that I would obtain a substantial reply. In addition to the National Archives of the United States, the Public Archives of Canada, and the Library of Congress, I polled two business archives, four historical societies, four state archives, two presidential...
libraries, a church archives, seven private research institutions, an international archives, and sixteen archival or manuscript repositories connected to colleges and universities.

Nearly all colleagues to whom I wrote were kind enough to respond. Thirty-seven percent of those answering sent processing manuals. Another 11 percent, four others, forwarded technical manuals which dealt with a single important phase of their operations rather than with a wide range of repository procedures. The balance, 48 percent, could not provide the kind of manuals I required. Among these were the two presidential libraries, the international archives, three university repositories, two state historical societies, and an equal number of state archives. Three of these institutions replied that they indeed had processing manuals but felt that because of their formats and/or condition, they would not prove useful to me. Three other institutions noted that their small staffs made such instructions unnecessary.

The manuals I reviewed were characterized by a variety of goals and procedures described. At Wayne State University the processors are generally graduates of that institution's own extensive training program. In view of that fact, it is understandable that the archival and manuscript departments at Wayne can feel quite comfortable with a simple four-page outline entitled, "Directions for Processing Collections." At my own institution, Cornell, we hire individuals who are generally without previous archival training for part-time processing jobs. This results in the need for extensive on-the-job training with the use of a detailed processing manual as a primary teaching aid.

Although there were tremendous differences in the sizes and breadths of detail among the manuals reviewed, there were important common elements comprising them. For one thing, they could be divided into three classes based upon overall approach and subject coverage. The most limited group was that providing technical instructions on specific subjects. The respective single page "preparing a chronology" and "guidelines for congregational minutes," as well as the four-page "microfilm instructions," prepared by the staff of the Concordia Historical Institute, provide examples of such
specialized directions. Another such example is found in the "Computer Index Guidelines" of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

On the opposite end of the instructional spectrum were repository procedural manuals which covered such broad repository functions as accessioning and reference, as well as specific activities including minutiae like typing format instructions for clerical personnel. Somewhere in between these extremes fell the archival and manuscript processing manuals upon which, because I was successful in obtaining a significant sample of them, I have chosen to concentrate my remarks.

There seems to be general agreement that the terms "archival" or "manuscript processing" refer to the arrangement and description of repository holdings. The determination of when such "processing" actually begins is a point of considerable difference among the various programs reviewed. Some archivists believe that the process commences with the arrival of the records at the repository; others maintain that "processing" begins after the initial paperwork of accessioning has been concluded and the physical manipulation of the records has actually begun. Whatever beginning and ending points they have selected, most archivists would agree that the physical ordering and description of an accession in preparation for research use is the essence of the processing procedure.

Although most of the manuals examined marched boldly into the mechanics of arrangement without much in the way of preliminaries, some of the authors of the more substantial handbooks felt the need for a few introductory comments. These remarks generally explained the nature of the repository and the part that the processing procedure played in its program. Beyond this basic orientation, several archivists attempted to provide an overall theoretical basis for their processing procedures.

The need to preserve and/or to restore the original of incoming accessions was mentioned in all but one of the manuals included in my sample. The emphasis that this basic rule of provenance was given, interestingly enough, varied widely. One author insisted that "the purpose of arrangement is to restore original
order"; another simply stated that original order was one of a number of alternative arrangement possibilities. Although a majority of the sources studied mentioned original order, surprisingly few of them used the term "provenance," long a basic tenet of archival arrangement. Significantly, only one-third saw fit to deal with the concept at all, inviting some speculation as to why the others did not. It may have been that respect de fonds had been so integrated into the basic work patterns of the remaining institutions that specific mention of it was thought to be superfluous, and that their programs boast processing staffs thoroughly versed in archival theory. More likely, however, the failure to address this touchstone of the profession as a part of their processing instructions resulted from a combination of oversight and a view that one must separate theory from practice in manual writing.

One further theoretical element appeared frequently among the pages of the manuals examined. This is the group-series concept. It had long been my opinion that no two words in the archivist's lexicon suffer from so many divergent definitions as do these. Unfortunately, the present study merely substantiates this suspicion. Manual writers would do well to limit their use of these terms to the conceptual framework developed by Schellenberg and Holmes. Hopefully the widespread use of the standardized definitions in the SAA Glossary will help minimize any uninformed application of these terms. Perhaps, as well, there is a need for further exploration through professional literature of the applicability of the record group and record series concepts and the implications of such applications for the arrangement and description of private as well as public record accessions.

Having discussed to some extent their respective repository's history and approach to processing, some of the manuals touched upon what might be called the "discipline" of manuscript and archival processing. Emphasized here were the needs for accuracy, legibility and completeness in the performing of the various tasks associated with arranging and describing records.

Beyond such overall methodological considerations, most of the handbooks reviewed contained instructions for the preliminary steps the processor must take.
before beginning the arranging and describing sequence. The processor was advised to consult accession records for restrictions, biographical data, and the terms of deposit or gift. He was further directed to study the standard biographical tools and specialized reference works in the subject area of the collection before actually proceeding to its physical manipulation. It was also usually pointed out at this juncture that each accession had to be evaluated to determine the extent of processing it would receive. While an outstanding few might merit processing down to an item by item description, most others would be adequately processed following simple refolding and the preparation of a series level description.

At this point most manuals outlined their arranging sequences. Several gave instructions for a preliminary rough sorting of the accession into its series or physical record types. The purpose of this approach was to give the processor sufficient opportunity to select the optimum means of final arrangement. In those institutions where arrangement style was determined by a supervisor before the processor received the collection, rough sorting instructions were often replaced by a sample of the worksheet which would be used to guide the processor in the actual recording of descriptive data.

To familiarize the processor with the variety of ways records might be organized and thus enable him to identify their original order for reconstruction, the more detailed manuals enumerated the several standard systems of filing currently in use in this country. Chronological and coded files were discussed as were the various alphabetical sequences possible, including arrangement by correspondent name, geographical name, or subject. The various physical forms of records were also often discussed along with their processing peculiarities. Most authors outlined processing procedures for diaries, account books, receipts, bills, and other traditional record forms while a few described those pertinent to a wider variety of record forms, including audiovisual and EDP materials.

Arrangement problems that were likely to be recurrent were described in most of the manuals. Such problems as the proper method of disposing of
unannotated printed matter or memorabilia and what to do about enclosures, envelopes, duplicates, or oversized items were discussed in nearly all the instructions sampled. It should be noted that the several institutions had widely differing methods for handling such materials and that those differences were largely based upon the relationship the repository had with other cultural institutions. If the archives was associated with a library or historical society, it was a simple matter to transfer enclosures that were nondocumentary in nature to the unit responsible for such items. When the repository existed as a separate entity, however, non-documentary enclosures were often placed in special collections based upon their physical format within the institution. In some cases, such materials were declared nonarchival and were returned to the donor whenever possible.

Beyond these common kinds of arrangement problems, some manual writers recognized and worked to resolve any difficulties inherent in the nature of the records themselves. Two repositories instructed their staffs in the vagaries of eighteenth-century English script, while another provided a similar guide to German script. The significance of a particular historical personality to a third institution inspired its manual writer to produce a short essay on that individual's peculiarities of writing style. Various methods for dating documents were described in detail as were the proper techniques for handling of manuscript fragments. In one case, instructions were given for identifying items of particular interest for displays; in another, the processor was requested to inform his supervisor should he come across materials which might be considered libelous or of a highly personal nature.

The physical preservation of archival holdings is, of course, of paramount importance to all professionals in the field. Thus it is that most manuals touch upon the important, but prosaic, routines of re-boxing and refolding. Some also detail methods for the unfolding and flattening of letters, the removal of fasteners, and the effective cleaning of individual pages. Although in one case processors were instructed in the use of water soluble paper mending tape for the repair of minor tears, most of the manuals urged processors to identify badly deteriorated documents for
appraisal by a senior archivist. Repair work was then directed to a professional restoration laboratory. Some depositories simply replaced the very fragile or damaged materials with photocopies on permalife paper or microfilm. Most manual authors devoted the larger proportion of their written instructions to detailing the techniques to be used for record description. The nature and extent of these instructions vary greatly with the training, composition, and assignments of the repository staff. If the processors had considerable archival training, they were expected to produce a wide variety of finding aids ranging from box label listings and file guides to catalog cards and entries for the National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections (NUCMC). Instructions for each of these descriptive processes were included in the manuals. In situations where cataloging and the creation of NUCMC entries was the province of professional catalogers, the manuals include instructions for the production of various types of narrative finding aids only, excluding cataloging entirely.

Among the institutions studied, the basic finding aid, be it called register, listing, inventory, or guide, is generally quite consistent in format. Following the covering page which usually includes the collection or accession number, the linear footage, the name of the compiler, and the title of the collection, there is usually an introduction or preface of some sort. This section may include a short history or biography of the record creator, a statement of provenance, a description of property and copyright restrictions, some description of the collection in printed sources, a list of directly related collections held by the repository, and a statement governing the access to and use of the material. Such introductory remarks may also include or be followed by scope and content notes detailing any gaps that may exist in the records, profiling the overall physical organization of the material, and describing any unusual arrangements affecting individual series within the fond.

The corporal body of most repository aids offered flexible, analytical descriptions of the form and informational content of the accession at the series, box, file folder, or, more rarely, item level depending upon its significance. Most manuals provide general instructions for each specific type of aid to be written
by the processor. If a finding aid were to be particular­ly large, instructions for preparing a table of con­

A major exception to this general pattern of finding aid is evinced in three of the manuals inspected. The institutions which produced them are currently ex­

Institutions whose processors prepared cata­

After the processing instructions comprising the main body of the manuals, many repositories included appendices of one kind or another. Examples of such added information include the SAA Glossary, perpetual calendars, bibliographies of standard writings on archives and manuscripts, lists of standard abbrevia­

potential manual writers must be warned of leaping too quickly into the fray. Al­

While every
institution will not need to include all of the sections or topics outlined, most will want to address the elements identified as basic.

AN OUTLINE OF MAJOR ELEMENTS IN AN ARCHIVAL AND MANUSCRIPT PROCESSING MANUAL

I. The History and Purpose of the Repository

II. Basic Principles
   A. Provenance
   B. Original Order
   C. Group-Series Concept

III. The Discipline of Processing
   A. Accuracy
   B. Completeness
   C. Legibility
   D. Confidentiality

IV. Preliminary Research
   A. Departmental Accessioning Procedure
   B. Biographical and Other Specialized Reference Sources Relative to the Collection

V. Processing
   A. Outline of Typical Processing Steps
   B. The Nature of Document Arranging
      1. Major Types of Filing Systems and Methods of Arrangement
         a. Chronological
         b. Coded
         c. Alphabetical
            1) by Correspondent Name
            2) by Geographical Name
            3) by Subject
      2. Physical Format of Documents
      3. Reoccurring Problems in Document Arrangement
         a. Deciphering Documents
         b. Dating Documents
         c. Document Fragments
         d. Distribution or Destruction of Non-documentary Materials
1) Books, Serial Publications, and Pamphlets  
2) Broadsides  
3) Pictorial Materials  
4) Artifacts and Memorabilia  
e. Disposition of Enclosures and Envelopes  
f. Documents for Display  
g. Confidential Documents  
h. Oversized Items  

4. Preservation and Restoration  
a. Fumigation  
b. Unfolding and Flattening  
c. Cleaning Documents  
d. Removing Fasteners  
e. Replacing and Labeling File Folders and Boxes  
f. Physical Restoration  

C. The Nature of Document Description  
1. Title Page  
2. Introduction  
a. History or Biography  
b. Statement of Provenance  
c. Statement of Property Rights  
d. Descriptions in Print Sources  
e. Access Restrictions  
3. Scope and Content Note  
a. Description of Arrangement  
b. Notice of Gaps  
c. Description of Individual Record Series  
4. Various Levels of Descriptive Finding Aid  
a. Collection Register  
b. Box Listing  
c. Folder Listing  
d. Analytical Guides  
e. Computerized Indices  
f. Calendars  

VI. Completing the Collection  

VII. Appendices  
A. Standard Abbreviations  
B. Glossary of Record Types  
C. Perpetual Calendar  
D. Bibliography of Standard Texts  
E. Form Samples
Sherlock Holmes, Hercule Poirot, and R. G. Collingwood, who probably would agree on nothing else, would agree on the importance of asking the right questions when beginning an investigation. Whether in solving mysteries or in writing history, the sources needed, the use made of them, and the nature and success of the results depend upon the questions asked. Local history is no exception. Basically, local histories fall into two categories. One is an accumulation of facts or chronicle of events and, if accurately and carefully done, should be valued, not despised. Encyclopedias are full of examples of this type of useful work. The aim of a higher form of history, however, leads beyond mere narrative into the realm of analysis. This analytical history not only tells what happened, but how and why it occurred. What factors converged at this particular place and point in time to produce a given result? Correspondingly, the best local historians, amateurs and professionals, approach their materials with probing questions and seek to find not only what happened, but why it happened as it did.

In no other area of historical studies is the range of sophistication among researchers likely to be so great as in the area of local history. This field,
often thought of as the domain of the amateur and cer­
tainly one in which his interest is ancient and continuing, has seen the production of innumerable local studies done by persons without advanced training in historical methods. Some of these have been excellent. For example, The History of Newberry County, South Carolina, 1749-1860, written by Thomas H. Pope, a Newberry County lawyer, and published in 1973 by the University of South Carolina Press, received a very favorable dis­cussion in the American Historical Review. In spite of the tradition of amateurs working in local history, pro­fessional historians have not distained the field. While many trained historians have concentrated on na­tional or regional events and movements, others have al­ways been interested in the past of particular local­ities. Students and followers of Frederick Jackson Turner have produced numerous studies of the beginnings of American communities, exemplified by Merle Curti's classic work, The Making of an American Community.¹

The increase in interest in local history on the part of the historical profession has been phenom­enal since the Second World War. With the development of urban history as a popular field and the growing in­terest in social and demographic history, many profes­sionals and students have turned their attention to the study of the nation's cities, towns, and even families. Recent studies on New England townships and families by John Demos, Philip Greven, and Kenneth Lockridge are in­dicative of the type of work being done throughout the country; and many theses, dissertations, and articles have been written about aspects of Atlanta's history. David J. Russo, in a book published in 1974 by the Amer­ican Association for State and Local History, Families and Communities, goes so far as to advocate abandoning the national-political chronology as a framework within which to study American history. He suggests an orien­tation which emphasizes the local community as the major source of impact upon the lives of Americans, yielding to the national community only in this century.

In short, today both amateurs and professionals are interested in local history and each has a signifi­cant contribution to make. In addition to writing some excellent histories, amateur historians have done great service by publishing and preserving local traditions and documents and by compiling information that might
have otherwise been lost. Frequently, amateurs have been familiar not only with the oral traditions, artifacts, and topography of the area in which they work, but also they have had an intimate knowledge of the local records. The professional historian has brought to the study of local history a knowledge of historical methods, of research techniques, and of comparative history. Each type of practitioner, the professional historian and the amateur, can be of help to the other; each can learn from the other; and the extent to which each does so will enrich his own historical productions.

What kinds of questions will the local historian be asking? These will be determined not only by his historical sophistication but also by the nature and limitations of his topic. To study all aspects of the entire history of any community would be an incredible feat for one person. Donald Dean Parker, in his Local History: How to Gather It, Write It, and Publish It, suggests the broad range of questions with which the various researchers in local history will be dealing. He includes "A Model Outline for a Local History" which encompasses almost any conceivable aspect of community life with which an historian might wish to deal: geography and topography, antiquities and Indians, pioneer settlement, economic developments, political developments, religious development, population history, the family, education, newspapers, publications and libraries, social and fraternal organizations, cultural activities and the Arts, science and technology, law, social problems and reform, recreation, and folklore. Each topic is further divided and subdivided. Under pioneer settlement, for instance, his research examines the following factors influencing the pattern of life:

1. Conditions which made the area desirable as a home
   a. Indians--absent or still present when settlement began
   b. Land--wooded or prairie
   c. Transportation--difficult or relatively easy
   d. Sources of income--immediate or to be developed
   e. Markets--nearby or far away

2. Character and composition of the early settlers
   a. Nationality by birth and parentage--native American or immigrants
   b. Home of settlers immediately preceding their coming . . .
In treating this topic, Parker suggests including biographical sketches of the outstanding pioneers, not only those of the founders but also those of their chief supporters and advisers. He also advocates the use of maps showing the area at intervals after settlement with explanations of details and matters not readily apparent. Each topic in Parker's outline is broken down in this way, and his detail could be of considerable help to the beginning writer of local history.

The local historian who would attempt the entire range of topics outlined by Parker must expect to live a long time. Most historians, even those who do general or survey histories of a town, county, or other locality, limit the topics which they cover. For instance, George Rogers, in his able and interesting History of Georgetown County, South Carolina, begins with the geographical setting, proceeds to the Indians, then tells of the early settlers, from whence they came and how they lived. Using the founders as a bridge, he describes the birth of Georgetown itself and the development of that distinct culture that characterizes the South Carolina low country. The leaders of the county and the role they played in the advent and events of the Revolution are treated next, and Rogers continues his narrative in the same pattern up until the present day. Generally, however, he confines his discussion to the economic and political history of the county and to the social and cultural history of the county's elites.

More common than the general history is the local history which is limited to one institution such as a business, church, or school, or to one topic, possibly an analysis of slavery as it operated in a particular county, or an examination of social or economic mobility in a community. Other local histories will consider only specific periods. A notable professional historian who specializes in local history is William McKee Evans whose study of the Reconstruction period in the lower Cape Fear region of North Carolina, Ballots and Fence Rails, won the American Association for State and Local History's Manuscript Award in 1966. Evans carefully examines the political, economic, and social adjustments of the people of this small area during the very critical twelve years, 1865-1877.

When the topic has been well defined, the background reading has been done, and the basic questions
to be considered are well in mind, then is the time to begin matching these questions with sources. Determining the sources needed requires a good reference method whether one is doing the research oneself or, in the role of archivist or librarian, assisting another to find the materials that he needs. What type of records would likely contain the information needed? What person, or agency, in the normal course of daily activities, would have created such a body of records? In many cases the answer is so obvious that one may scarcely be aware of having asked the question.

Perhaps one wants to study the diffusion of agricultural technology in a county. He would begin by asking what farm implements were in use on ordinary farms during a given period. The Probate Records include inventories of estates with lists and values of all farm implements belonging to a sizable sampling of those persons who died during the period. Newspapers with their advertisements of farm machinery, census returns which report the value of machinery on a given farm at ten-year intervals, account books of stores which sold farm machinery, or the records of individual farmers are all excellent sources of information.

Church minutes and other church records come immediately to mind as key resources for histories of a community's early religious life. The minutes sometimes tell more about the social mores of the congregation than about their theology, but they may yield fascinating tidbits of insight to the careful reader. Robert C. Lawrence, in The State of Robeson, describes the minute books of Asbury Church in the Raynham section of Robeson County, North Carolina, in the mid-nineteenth century:

Here a line is drawn through the name of an erstwhile member, and opposite it is written: "Turned out. No good nohow." Another: "Gone to the Baptists. Never was no force." Another: "She fell from grace." Another: "Deep water." This stumped me for a time, [Lawrence writes,] but as the Baptists immerse and the Methodists sprinkle, I concluded that the clerk knew the Baptists had got his member, but was too proud to admit it! Another: "Expelled. Good riddance." Another: "Gone to the Baptists OR WORSE." This held me for a
time, but I reached the conclusion that the words "or worse" was simply a sly dig of the clerk at the Presbyterians!

And the pages bearing the names of the slave members of the congregation are marked across, and on the margin is written the annotation: "All gone to old Abe Lincoln." 5

Other sources helpful on the early religious life might be the memoirs of early ministers, or the papers of prominent church members. One could go far toward writing a history of the Episcopal Church in Americus, Georgia, just on information found in the papers of the Harrold Family which are in the Emory University Library. In some cases, the local newspaper may reflect a strong religious orientation.

Researchers interested in the pattern of land ownership or in who settled where and when should consult the state land plats and grants and local county deed books. The deeds not only tell who bought and sold a given tract of land, they often identify it as "Including the plantation on which so-and-so lives" with so-and-so being the grantee, the grantor, or a third person. The plantation may be barely large enough for a cabin and a corn field, but at least one determines where so-and-so had his cabin and corn field. Migration patterns are sometimes quite evident in the recorded deeds. For instance, little is known about the Quakers who lived in Marlboro County, South Carolina, in the early national period; but their departure from the county in the beginning of the 1830's is vividly depicted in their land sales, culminating in the sale of their meeting house to the Methodists in 1833. The waves of migration from this area to the Old Southwest are just as evident.

Robert W. Ramsey, in Carolina Cradle; Settlement of the Northwest Carolina Frontier, 1747-1762, studied with great care the settlement process in Rowan County, North Carolina, between the Yadkin and Catawba Rivers. He considered such questions as the identity, origin and location of the original settlers, the economic and religious motivations influencing the settlement process, the character of the settlers, and the organization of the frontier community. To answer these questions, he used letters, diaries, tax lists,
genealogies, license records, probate records, court
dockets and cases, land warrants and surveys, account
books, church records, deed books, orphans docket,
judgments, census records, marriage records, newspapers
and various published colonial and state records both in
North Carolina and in the counties and states from which
the settlers came.6

How does one find the records one needs? The
most efficient place to begin is with a good guide to
the literature, and Thomas E. Felt's new and well-
written handbook, Researching, Writing, and Publishing
Local History, provides a valuable introduction for the
beginning historian. Because his book is small, only
165 pages devoted in almost equal parts to the task his
title describes, he mentions but few specific finding
aids. Rather, he focuses on the general characteristics
and usefulness of the sources he discusses: newspapers,
interviews, personal manuscripts, pictures, maps, orga-
nizational records, and artifacts. He associates each
body of material with the locations where it is likely
to be found, such as libraries, archives, private collec-
tions, and public offices. In the case of archaeologi-
cal evidence and artifacts, these may abound literally
underfoot and require only an increased and informed
awareness of one's surroundings to bring them to light.
Early in the planning stages of a project, Felt counsels
the researcher to visit a good reference collection in a
library equipped with the standard bibliographies and
indexes. At the same time, Felt warns the researcher of
inconsistencies and problems which may be encountered as
he begins to use libraries other than the one with which
he is most familiar. Felt emphasizes the importance of
proper evaluation of evidence, of understanding the
strengths and weaknesses of source materials, and of
careful note-taking. In short, he stresses high quality
research. Potentially as useful during the later stages
of a local history project are his discussions of writ-
ing techniques and descriptions of the practical aspects
of publishing.7

The number of history-related bibliographies
has greatly increased in recent years, but certain ones
remain basic tools for identifying the published ma-
terial on any topic in American history. One of the
foremost of these is the Harvard Guide to American His-
tory. Covering all periods and a great variety of
topics, this guide lists reference sources and standard works including state historical publications as well as state and local histories. This guide lists reference sources and standard works including state historical publications as well as state and local histories. This guide lists reference sources and standard works including state historical publications as well as state and local histories.

Writings in American History, the major annual bibliography in the field, provided comprehensive coverage of books and articles until it ceased publication with the volume for 1960. For more recent material one should consult James J. Dougherty's four volume compilation, Writings on American History, 1962-73; A Subject Bibliography of Articles, and the annual volumes with the same name issued, since 1974, by the American Historical Association. Unlike the old Writings, these new volumes list only journal articles. The most comprehensive, current, subject bibliography of books, pamphlets, maps, and atlases is the Library of Congress's "Subject Catalog." Complementing these publications is the quarterly, America: History and Life, which provides increasingly wide coverage of the journal literature and which, since 1974, has included books and dissertations as well. Major journals often publish annual, serial bibliographies in their respective areas. A good example is "Southern History in Periodicals; A Selected Bibliography," which appears regularly in the Journal of Southern History and lists under broad subject headings many scholarly articles published during each year of publication. Also of great usefulness are the many lesser bibliographies, limited in their coverage to specific topics, time periods, geographic areas, or types of material. These may be identified through any of the above publications, particularly the Harvard Guide.

The ease of locating publications, manuscripts, and other records may vary with the type of material. Union catalogs, data bases, and the published catalogs of major libraries, all available in most large reference collections, greatly simplify the search for needed books, journals, newspapers, and other printed matter. The task of tracking down manuscripts is considerably more difficult. Philip M. Hamer's Guide to Archives and Manuscripts in the United States, currently under revision, summarizes the major groups of papers in about 1,300 manuscript and archival depositories in the United States, Puerto Rico, and the Canal Zone. The National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections briefly describes the several thousand collections reported to it annually, and many manuscript depositories have published excellent, though sometimes hard to obtain,
guides to their own collections. Despite these efforts, large numbers of manuscript collections go unreported. For government records, the adequacy of finding aids varies from state to state. The North Carolina State Archives has published summary guides to its state agency records, county records, and private manuscript collections. The South Carolina Archives, in 1976, issued a new edition of its summary guide to state, colonial, and many local governmental records. The Georgia Archives, though lacking a comprehensive listing of its holdings, nonetheless has issued a number of very helpful guides and inventories to individual series and collections. In 1974, the National Archives, which houses many collections vital for local history topics, published a new edition of its comprehensive guide and a catalog of its microfilm publications.

A vast number of private papers and public records have not found their way into depositories and frequently require a full measure of detective work. The key to locating public records, whether municipal, county, state, or federal, lies in determining what office or agency would have created the type of record needed. This is frequently obvious. A researcher interested in the county schools might check the offices of the county Board of Education or the Superintendent. A good history of education in the state, if such exists, will probably explain the legal provisions for schools through the years and thus suggest other, earlier bodies of records. Published annual reports and other documents of the State Department of Education and its predecessors should tell something of what was done by whom during a particular period. On occasion, the Statutes and old law codes can be of much help. Some counties were fortunate enough to have had their records inventoried by the Historical Records Survey during the 1930's. These research inventories are invaluable for they include not only a description of the records in each office, but an administrative history and a description of its functions as well. Local officials in charge of public records will in many cases prove to be most cooperative and helpful to researchers, but they are usually busy people, frequently short of space and, in many cases, they know nothing of the records created prior to their own tenure in office. Public records and especially private papers and organizational records can sometimes be traced by contacting descendants of
the persons involved. They may even turn up in junk shops or in unused parts of old buildings formerly owned or occupied by the individual or organization under study. Occasionally, a researcher may trace a potentially valuable group of papers from hand to hand only to find that they had been destroyed, usually a short time before his inquiry was received.

Whatever the problems of matching questions and sources, the difficulties and disappointments of locating materials, the research and writing of local history can be a challenging and satisfying activity, leading one into many interesting and unexpected avenues. Studying the past of a locality increases the researcher's perceptions of the area, the people, and of how and why things came to be the way they are. New topics for investigation are almost inexhaustible; and the possible questions and the sources that can be used in their exploration are limited only by the energy, imagination, and skill of the researcher.

NOTES


2Donald Dean Parker, Local History: How to Gather It, Write It, and Publish It (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1944), pp. 105-23.

3George Rogers, History of Georgetown County, South Carolina (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1970).


12 *America: History and Life*, vol. 1- (July 1964-).


Of all the areas of human knowledge that reside in written form, few have suffered so much neglect as architecture. Only recently has there been widespread interest in the preservation of drawings, specifications, job files, and other documents related to the profession's activities. Much of the fault can be laid at the feet of architects themselves. Seemingly insensitive to history, they have been singularly adept in erasing their past. They have periodically "cleaned house," throwing away tons of valuable, irreplaceable documents. When an architect dies or retires, the entire contents of his office may often be consigned to the trash. If retained, the records are likely to be placed in damp basements or hot, dry attics where they are left to crumble and rot.

Architects work for the moment and for the future, usually with little thought for the historical value of their creations. They are businessmen first, artists second, and historians not at all. As with most businessmen, concern for the preservation of their papers beyond their administrative life-span has a very low rank on the scale of priorities. Many individuals and firms have lacked the foresight to keep their records; others have allowed them to be lost either through their own insouciance or failure to provide for safekeeping after their careers end. In consequence, the

Mr. Lathrop is Curator of the Northwest Architectural Archives at the University of Minnesota.
amount of documentation available today on the architectural work of past decades is shamefully thin.

The United States does not stand alone in its failure to promote the preservation of architectural records on a wide scale. Although most Western European nations have provided for the safekeeping of records associated with public buildings or government sponsored projects, the papers of private architects have been allowed to disappear. M. LeMoel, former Curator of the Maps and Plans Department, French National Archives, reported to the VII International Congress on Archives in 1972 that most countries had no systematic programs for preserving the papers of private architects practicing within their borders. Only in isolated instances have special efforts been made to preserve such records, and then only in cases of extraordinarily outstanding individuals. An exception is the United Kingdom, where a national depository was established in 1834 by the professional architectural organization, the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA). Today ranked as one of the best such collections in the world, RIBA's holdings include well over 200,000 drawings, dating from 1520, housed in an eighteenth-century row house in London with a modern gallery for continuing public exhibitions. With its accompanying British Architectural Library, the collection forms a vital, comprehensive research source for the scholar of modern architectural history.

The United States, by contrast, has no comparable repository which can provide a comprehensive source for the study of American architecture. Perhaps the Avery Library at Columbia University comes closest, but its archival collection is far smaller and is not truly national in scope. The majority of the nation's holdings are scattered and fragmented among literally hundreds of repositories, small and large, stretching from coast to coast. A great deal of this material is unknown to scholars either because it is unreported or, more frequently, unprocessed. Much of it was acquired obliquely and certainly not as the result of a systematic collecting program for architectural records. Furthermore, many of the repositories which hold such records have only a vague conception of how to treat them and thus have shrank from collecting more for fear of compounding the problem. In years past, some
institutions have refused offers of rich and valuable collections of architectural records with the result that potential donors destroyed their records, thinking them worthless.

Happily, this attitude seems to be vanishing. Most archives, libraries, and museums will at least seriously consider the acceptance of architectural records, even though few are systematically soliciting them. The problem of physical control still perplexes archivists and librarians, together with the question of deciding which types of records should be permanently retained. It is to these two important questions that the remainder of this article shall be addressed.

The problem of deciding what records should be collected and preserved is tied up with the definition of "architectural archives." John Harvey once wrote that "architectural archives" are all the records which architects produce in the course of their work, as well as those which generally document the production of buildings. While this may appear repetitious, a closer look will reveal a clear distinction between the two types.

Architects may produce up to a dozen kinds of documents, most of which are vital to the construction of a building and are of equal importance to researchers. The most common include preliminary sketches (the initial design concept, rough and sketchy as the name implies); presentation drawings or renderings (made for presentation to the client as a bid to secure the commission); site surveys (prepared by a civil engineer to show the contours of the building site and its relation to surrounding ground); working drawings (also called tracings or plans, which detail how a building is to be constructed, obviously made for the contractor); specifications (a prose document directing or specifying to the contractor how the construction work shall be carried out, his obligations, kinds of material to be used, etc.); correspondence with the contractor and subcontractors and with the client; contracts between the architect, the client, and the contractor; photographs of the site before construction begins, while construction is going on (progress photos), and of the completed building; field reports (made daily by the architect on the site during construction, noting progress.
and problems); shop drawings (prepared by materials suppliers and subcontractors in their shops illustrating how certain equipment or furnishings is to be installed); and sometimes (not always, because they may often form part of the shop drawings file) mechanical, electrical, and structural drawings and calculations. The last group may be prepared by the firm's engineer, if there is one, and will consist of tables of numbers which detail load tolerances for the building's steel frame.

All of these are easily recognizable to the untrained eye. Working drawings may be available on a variety of media, depending upon their age or their initial purpose, and pose corresponding difficulties in preservation. In the nineteenth century, architects drew up plans on either heavy-grade paper stock or linen. The latter is virtually indestructible and can survive a great deal of abuse, whereas the former tends to dry out and become brittle. Linen was widely used for working drawings up to relatively recent times when a conversion to a high-quality paper called vellum and, more recently, to mylar, began. Because these drawings must be copied to provide the contractor with a set (the original stays with the architect), mylar was discovered to offer the advantages of being easily reproducible as well as durable and long-lasting, yet less expensive than linen. It is now almost as widely used as linen was several decades ago.

Working drawings will often appear in several prominent types of copies: blueprint (white line on blue background), blueline (the same as blueprint, except for color), sepia (brown line on gray or blue background), and xerox. Depending upon the process and the quality of the paper used, these will usually remain legible for many years if kept, like most archival material, out of direct sunlight or fluorescents, although the paper may become brittle with age. Little if any information is available on the anticipated life of such copies, but they have been known to survive under less-than-ideal conditions for up to fifty years without showing appreciable loss of legibility or durability. These records, directly produced by architects and their associates, ought to be acquired in any orderly collecting program. John Harvey's definition of "architectural archives" also identifies other kinds of records, not necessarily produced by architects, which document
building production. Such municipal or county records as building permits, demolition permits, tax records, maps, and city planning documents of all kinds form a very large and vitally important group, as do the records of real estate firms (especially the one-page descriptions which are produced by Multiple Listing Services for realtors and prospective buyers), contractors and engineers, landscape architects, and developers. All of these may have crucial significance in piecing together the architectural history of a locality or region. Such records often provide new approaches or insights which can be gained in no other way, and the archivist referencing architectural records should know of them regardless of whether they are a part of his collections.

Managing architectural records—physically storing them and setting up finding aids for them—can present archivists with considerable challenge that, as noted earlier, may be a chief factor in the reluctance of many repositories to accept such collections. The records vary widely in size and bulk, making it nearly impossible to store all the documents which comprise a collection together in one place. The drawings (which are usually the largest items) must be frequently filed in plan drawers or tubes in the oversized storage area of an archives; while the smaller-format material—correspondence, photographs, specifications, and contracts—may be boxed and shelved in another area. Thus, the difficulty of retrieval of related materials may require the searcher to pull records from two or more locations.

While storage can present problems, the task of arranging architectural records is often refreshingly simple. Architectural firms everywhere operate using almost identical methods and generate the same kinds of records. This standardization of practice works to great advantage for the archivist who, having seen one architectural collection, can truthfully say he has seen them all and can thereafter confidently handle all of them the same way. Most architectural firms assign each project a number, utilizing either a system of consecutive numbering through the history of the practice or of prefixing project numbers with the last two digits of the year in which the commissions were secured, then numbering sequentially through that year. A project number of this type may appear, for example, as "67-45,"
indicating that it is the forty-fifth commission of the year 1967. Rarely are other systems of record-keeping employed in architects' offices. In essence, this means that the archivist is given a ready-made filing arrangement. Although collections may be received in a disorderly state, they can be rapidly sorted by checking the title block in the lower right-hand corner of the working drawings to see what system is being used. The title block, incidentally, will also reveal such useful information as the building name, its location, the sheet number within the set, the scale, draftsman's initials, and date of drafting. Often, correspondence, photographs, contracts, and even shop drawings will arrive packed in folders (called "job files") under the heading of the building name and can remain in this condition in the archives without further arrangement.

It would be helpful to prepare, for each job in the collection, a card which would contain the name of the building, its geographic location, date of construction (or design), the architect's name, some reference to the media (whether drawing, specification, photograph, etc.) in which information about the building is contained, and the collection it is in. A card file with cross-references prepared for each key bit of information would form a handy index to the entire architectural holdings of the archives, for it is quite possible that not only are such data about a particular building scattered through several kinds of documents within a single collection, but other data about the same building may be found in several other collections. As the archival holdings grow, so, too, would this index, keeping pace with growth and ensuring some degree of control and retrieval at all times. The index does not replace a detailed inventory of the contents of each collection, but it could suffice until such an inventory is made. The index would direct users to the proper collection for the information they seek, at which time they might turn to the inventory for more detailed data.

In the case of drawings, the inventory should be an item list, describing each sheet in terms of physical dimensions, scale, media (whether ink, pencil, marking pen, watercolor, etc.), and content. The documents in the "job files" need not be so finely described if there are great numbers of such files. A general contents note prefixing the inventory of this portion of
the collection should suffice to alert users to the records and information they may expect to find there.

In venturing to collect and preserve architectural records, archivists should understand that they are entering a new archival field, fraught with problems and perplexities but offering excitement and the opportunity to explore and develop new methods of handling archival material. By virtue of the congruity of the subject matter, this field offers an excellent chance for setting up standardized procedures for processing and for indexing. This standardization could lead to the construction of a system for the rapid exchange of information about collections throughout the country and perhaps facilitate the publication of a guide to architectural records nationwide. Most of the lore of handling architectural records must be learned from experience; there is little useful, practical knowledge which the archival profession can impart. Archivists working in this field must take an active role in developing selection criteria, in establishing bibliographic collections which have great diversity of forms and format, in developing innovative storage methods, and in formulating new ways of extracting information from these records. Archivists in architectural archives may thus contribute to the development of procedures which can be applied in other areas of the profession.

Beyond this, archivists working with architectural records have an obligation to learn the specialized terminology of architecture, construction, and engineering, to recognize design styles, and to become conversant with the history of the profession and the contributions of its leading practitioners. They must learn what records researchers in this field require for their study and make an effort to identify long-range research trends. Archivists can help develop the use of aural and video technology by providing new sources of information and insight about man-created environments. Above all, they should assume the task of educating architects and persons in related professions and trades to the historic and artistic value of the documents and drawings which they create.

It is time that archivists recognize the vast new research potential inherent in architectural records. Only then will they be able to respond to the growing
demand for these materials among historians, preservationists, and planners now and in the years ahead.

NOTES

1 A relatively new organization headquartered in New York City, the Committee for the Preservation of Architectural Records has recently received $79,633 from the National Endowment for the Humanities to locate, identify, and make accessible historically significant architectural records. The Committee is not a depository but rather a group to promote archival preservation of architectural materials. The Committee's address is 15 Gramercy Park South, New York City 10003.

2 M. LeMoel, "Archives of Architecture" (Report to the VII International Congress on Archives, Moscow, August 21-25, 1972), pp. 21-22. (Manuscript.)


ARCHIVES IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY: THE PAPUA NEW GUINEA SITUATION

Nancy Lutton

As a student at the 1976 Institute held at the Georgia Department of Archives and History in Atlanta, I came to realize that, while discussions on ethics, security, privacy, access, conservation, and other theoretical matters were applicable to my situation and those of other students, the implementation of these ideals is often difficult because of limited resources in smaller or new repositories and in developing countries. Most of the people attending the Institute, including myself, were somewhat familiar with large repositories and their functioning; but few, if any, of the other participants had any knowledge of the conditions or collections existing in smaller developing areas. Consequently, the Institute examiners felt that this report, written as a course requirement, should be submitted for publication.

In the hope that our experiences in Papua New Guinea might be of interest and value to archivists in the United States, I should like to describe the

Nancy Lutton, Librarian, New Guinea Collection, University of Papua, New Guinea, attended the 1976 Institute at the Georgia Department of Archives and History. This article, a revision of her institute paper, points up the differences in managing an archival collection in a developing country and one in an older, more affluent area, and at the same time indicates similarities between archival problems encountered in developing countries and those of new or small repositories everywhere.

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conditions leading to the establishment of archival collections, both governmental and private, in our nation.

Papua New Guinea became an independent nation on September 16, 1975, after nearly one hundred years of rule by three different colonial powers. The western half of the island of New Guinea had been claimed by the Dutch as part of the Netherlands East Indies in 1828. At this time Australia, New Guinea's nearest neighbor, was still a collection of isolated colonies; but as the century wore on Australian national sentiment grew, and by the 1880's, Australia was looking askance at the intrusion of foreign powers, mainly France and Germany, into her area. Attempts were made to persuade Britain to proclaim a protectorate over the eastern half of New Guinea, but Britain wanted no more colonies. However, when Germany annexed the northeastern quarter, together with the islands of the Bismarck Archipelago, Britain moved to take over the southeast and the Louisiade Archipelago. In this way the largest island in the world (if you discount Australia as a continent and Greenland as mostly ice) was carved up to become Dutch, German, and British New Guinea. The British still were not interested in maintaining a colony that was very expensive and of doubtful strategic value. They agreed only to act for Australia until it became a federation in 1901. It took another five years for Australia to iron out its teething problems, take full charge of British New Guinea, and change its name to Papua.

In 1914, at the outbreak of World War I, Australia, at the request of Britain, took over German New Guinea. The League of Nations became trustee for the defeated German colonies after the war, and Australia won the mandate for German New Guinea, which became Australian New Guinea. A tidy political mind at this stage would have amalgamated the two administrations, but economic considerations were victorious. Germany had ruled its colonies in order to get the maximum financial return, and the place of the New Guinean was limited to that of unskilled labor. In Papua, while the administration was more benevolent to the natives, white settlement was neither discouraged nor given priority. Furthermore, New Guinea had more and better land and more people; and more internal revenue could be expected from its natural resources. On the excuse that one area was Australia's colony and the other was a trust territory, two separate administrations were continued, and
the people themselves accepted the myth that they were inhabitants of different countries.

The Japanese landed in New Guinea only six weeks after Pearl Harbor, and the local administration immediately became defunct. Parts of northern Papua were also quickly overrun, but the Japanese were defeated in Milne Bay and the Coral Sea. Unable to get at Port Moresby by sea, they could only attack by air and endeavor to reach it by land across the rugged Owen Stanley Ranges, where the famous battles of the Kokoda Trail were fought.¹

With the breakdown of civil administration in Papua, as well as in New Guinea, a military government was set up to govern the two. At the end of the war, the Australian government simply converted this machinery to a single civil government. New Guinea remained a trust territory and Papua a colony; but, since colonialism was suddenly a dirty word, the aim became self-rule with the two territories achieving independence as a single nation. But what to call it? For a long time the potential state was referred to as "Papua and New Guinea." The national newspaper ran a competition for a name. Everyone had an opinion, but no two were the same. Papuans did not like to be called New Guineans, and vice versa. Finally the "and" was dropped, and it became Papua New Guinea.

Papua New Guinea (PNG) has an estimated population of two and one-half million indigenous people and forty-two thousand expatriates. Nearly all of the former live in rural areas, divided into small groups, isolated by mountain ranges, rivers, and swamps. Before the intrusion of Europeans, these groups lived in a state of constant warfare with each other, and while there is an underlying Melanesian similarity, shared also by the Indonesian province, Irian Jaya (formerly Dutch New Guinea), the Solomon Islands, New Hebrides, and New Caledonia, the groups vary considerably in cultural detail. There are seven hundred to eight hundred distinct dialects spoken in PNG. While the country may be a paradise for the linguist or anthropologist, it is a headache to govern; every group or region wants its own laws and does not recognize the legality or authority of a central system of government. On the positive side, since no group is strong enough to dominate the
others, as has been the case in some African countries, there is less chance of civil war.

I have outlined this administrative history of the country, in order to place the archival situation in proper context. Before European government, the country was a multitude of preliterate societies based on subsistence agriculture. Any records prior to the 1880's were kept by navigators who sighted or briefly visited the country, usually meeting a hostile reception. What material has survived may be found in the archives of the European countries for which these seamen sailed. The records of British New Guinea, later Papua, are reasonably continuous except for what may have been lost by misadventure or from the ravages of the climate, especially in remote areas. Because the Japanese were prevented from reaching Port Moresby, there was time to transfer the archives to Australia.2 The establishment of a true PNG National Archives program began with the end of the war; and as a result most of the original records alienated by the fighting have been returned from Australia after microfilm security copies had been made.3

On the New Guinea side, the archives were less lucky. The Japanese landing at Rabaul was so sudden that whatever records had survived the volcanic eruption which ruined Rabaul in 1937, were destroyed by the ravages of total war. Further disasters occurred after the war; in 1949 a fire broke out in the Government Secretary's Office which housed the archives. More records were lost in 1958 when fire ravaged the Crown Law Office and the Supreme Court.4

Having survived war and fire, the National Archives found itself embroiled in a new struggle against political dismemberment. The opening of a new building in April, 1972, coincided with the discovery that some archives officers had been sent from the Australian government to go through the records in the various PNG administrative departments with the aim of removing "sensitive" files to Canberra. Coming as it did just before self-government, this action was interpreted as a political move by Australia to protect itself from future accusations of maladministration in PNG. Australian librarians and archivists, as well as historians and the press, rallied to the cause and
raised a furor during which the ethical issues were fully discussed. Fortunately a reshuffle in Australia brought in a new Minister for External Territories who enabled everyone to save face by labeling the whole affair as a "misunderstanding" with assurances that no files would be removed.  

The PNG National Archives continues to function under extreme handicaps, the greatest of which, in my opinion, is the lack of trained staff or any training program. In 1972 the last expatriate archivist left, after having trained his national successor, a graduate of the University of Papua New Guinea. Unfortunately, the country is so short of university graduates that the archivist was soon made acting head of a major government department without providing the archives with a professional replacement. This situation continued for several years, and although the remaining staff carried on as best they could, morale was very low because of the lack of leadership and the indifference of other government departments. At present all government service is in the throes of a major reorganization and the archives seems to be last on everyone's list, as funds have not been set aside for it. Recently the national archivist has been returned to his post, but it is likely the previous pattern of pulling him away when needed elsewhere will be repeated. Although the problem might be solved by training a back-up archivist, the original difficulty of obtaining one again comes into play. A university graduate will just have to be found, then sent overseas for archival training, all of which takes time and money.

The only other institution in PNG which systematically collects archives and manuscripts is the University of Papua New Guinea, whose library houses the New Guinea Collection, 6 of which I am the Librarian. The term "New Guinea" as used here refers to a geographical and cultural entity, not a political state. It incorporates the whole island of New Guinea plus many offshore islands which transcend the political unit of PNG. Inevitably political considerations may force a change in the present name of the collection, but for the present it stands as is.

Apart from a large collection of New Guineana, we care for a large collection of documents. The
majority of these are the archives of two major churches in the country, the Anglican and the United, which have deposited their records with us. We confine ourselves strictly to nongovernmental archives and manuscripts relating to New Guinea; nothing else is accepted. Private manuscripts, such as the diaries or letters of old prospectors, explorers, or missionaries, or the reminiscences of a trader, are actively sought in the original or in the form of copies. The search for material takes me to many parts of the world and is one of my most rewarding duties.

Because written records in PNG have such a shallow documentary time depth, our archives necessarily includes oral history. The program is organized as an important undergraduate subject at the University. Students intending to take the course notify the lecturer a semester in advance and receive basic instructions. During vacation they are lent a cassette recorder and issued tapes. At home in their villages they tape the reminiscences of their elders, usually in the vernacular. Upon returning to the University, they transcribe the tapes in translation and are instructed in the use of relevant documentary and secondary sources to support the oral information they have collected. They combine the oral and written source material into a paper as a final project. Good tapes become part of our New Guinea Collection, together with the translation of the transcription, and good essays are frequently published. In this way the history of PNG is being recorded and written at the grass roots level. The Collection contains many other sorts of tapes; for example, traditional stories, songs, public lectures, and seminars. We also have a large collection of photographs.

The University is now ten years old, and well established; but its most difficult times are probably ahead of us, not behind, though we have come through some problems. The first problem was the argument in 1964 about whether there should be a University at all, but a Commission was set up to inquire into the matter and its report recommending an institution of higher learning was accepted. Before the war, secondary education was practically nonexistent, and what primary education there was, was provided by the missions. Even today it is estimated that only 35 percent of school-age children receive any education at all, and of these the
majority are pushed out at the end of standard six because there are so few places in the secondary schools.8

Those who did go to high school had only a four-year course, not up to matriculation standard. A very few won scholarships to schools in Australia, and by the time the University was established, the country could boast of having four indigenous people who had graduated from universities overseas. With the brisk advances toward independence, political expediency and the satisfaction of demands of the United Nations required that something be done; the University was subsequently established in mid-1965 and enrolled its first students in 1966. These students were required to do a preliminary year course which brought their four-year course up to matriculation standard, and this course still exists, though now three six-year high schools have been established.

During the first few years, the entire superstructure of this expensive institution was being built at the same time classes were being held. There are now over five hundred graduates, who have rapidly been absorbed into all sectors of the community, but mostly into public service, where a good person may find himself head of a department within a year or so of graduation.

But University students, here as elsewhere, are vocal about political events, and such unrest causes resentment amongst the more conservative uneducated population. Port Moresby is rapidly being expanded with prestige government buildings and new paved roads, while the entire country of 178,260 square miles boasts only 10,228 miles of roads of any description.9 Thousands of villages take several days of walking to reach, are without electric light or any mechanical equipment. Even if crops are grown, produce cannot always reach the market; as a result internal revenue is very low and the budget is largely reliant on overseas aid. The Education Department wants more money to introduce universal education—it should have it—and the Public Health Department needs more money. In a rapidly changing country, there are law and order problems; the police need more men. Agriculture, business development, transport, all need extra funds to set up the superstructure of the economy. With most of the population illiterate and
living on what they themselves grow for their own needs, income tax is not a great source of revenue. Everyone wants a piece of a pie that is becoming smaller each year as Australia cuts down her aid.

We are fortunate that the National Archives is an established institution, even if it has no funds to develop as it should. We are fortunate that the University's New Guinea Collection has bought most of its basic stock--of second-hand books--and that most manuscripts are donated, not bought. We are fortunate that both institutions are housed in air-conditioned buildings in a country whose year-round climate is hot and humid. Unfortunately, we do not have enough money to develop much further. Such items as acid-free folders or containers are not produced in Papua New Guinea, and the prices quoted to inquiries overseas are often equal to half our total budget; furthermore, freight costs are prohibitive. Conservation is another tremendous problem. Manuscripts arrive full of bugs after years of rotting away at outstations; we have no means of restoration, though our Chemistry Department can do limited fumigation. Staffing continues to be our major handicap; for archives, even more than libraries, need university graduates to handle the reference duties. The demand for such graduates is so high and the rewards so much greater in other fields that archives and libraries will have a long wait for a full complement of professional staff. After ten years, we have only two national graduate librarians for the whole country; both work at the University.

It must not be thought that it is a continually depressing experience to work in such a situation. Indeed, the satisfactions of improvisation and of seeing one's own brainchild produce results are very great. PNG is a natural, beautiful country with friendly people and a relaxed way of life. We do have our excitements with intertribal fighting using bows and arrows, spears, sticks, and stones, during which someone occasionally gets killed; but we do not have organized crime, bombing, or terrorism, nor the nastiness of industrial pollution and strip development as many more developed countries do. Still it is true that the ideal archives institution can only exist in an affluent and educated society. We, in developing areas or in small towns and countries, can only do what we can and hope that historians will appreciate our efforts.
NOTES

1 American and Australian troops fought side by side in campaigns in New Guinea, and American ex-servicemen seem to remember their time in New Guinea with nostalgia. Several total strangers have from time to time written to me from America asking for information about conditions today. During my stay in Atlanta, one group of veterans not only sought me out, but presented me with photographs and other mementos for the New Guinea Collection.

2 Kevin Green, "A Group of Archives Received from War-Damaged Port Moresby," Archives and Manuscripts 3, no. 8 (May 1969): 23-30.


4 Ibid.

5 Library Association of Australia. P.N.G. Branch. Records 1967-1974, New Guinea Collection, UPNG Library. This file contains a complete history of the affair, including clippings from the Sydney Morning Herald, the Australian, the Papua New Guinea Post-Courier, and other media which published letters to the editor or made editorial comment during February and March, 1972.

6 A more detailed description of this may be found in Nancy Lutton, "The New Collection: University of Papua New Guinea Library," Archives and Manuscripts 6, no. 4 (August 1975).


9 Ibid., pp. 7 and 167.
WHENCE AND WHITHER: A SURVEY OF ARCHIVAL EDUCATION

Ames Sheldon Bower

Introduction

My aim was to survey, with as much detail as possible, course offerings in the field of archives. To that end, I wrote the forty-five directors of all the offerings listed in the Society of American Archivists' Education Directory (published December, 1973) and in the 1975 Supplement. In addition to asking for course descriptions, reading lists, exercises, agenda of speakers, and other source material, I asked a series of questions about the intent, composition, and success of course offerings; about the kinds of students, their reaction to and benefit from the course offerings; and about the need for the establishment of minimum academic or practicum training standards for archivists.

As a result, I was flooded with material, letters, and suggestions. I had intended to evaluate the courses in terms of the curricular guidelines established by the SAA Committee on Education and Training (published in the SAA Newsletter, June, 1973). The fifteen guidelines, however, are merely those topics that should be treated in archival courses; I was

Ms. Bower is editor of the Women's History Sources Survey at the Social Welfare History Archives. This paper was originally written for a seminar in archives administration taught by Andrea Hinding at the University of Minnesota.
unable to get a more detailed description of what they meant. For example, is historical editing a subset of "Item 14. 'Publications Programs: Finding Aids and Documentary'? Even if all fifteen topics were mentioned in the various course descriptions (and they were not), it appeared impossible to assess how well the topics were treated, especially without an understanding of the Committee's intentions.

The only solution seemed to be analysis of everything I had received but with a focus on responses to my written questions. I have attempted, therefore, to note where and how information tended to cluster. Someone else interpreting the same information might produce different conclusions by looking at the data differently. That is the extent of my apologia. The discriminating will note that in some cases the numbers either do not necessarily add up or do not seem as striking as they might. That is because a few respondents did not answer all my questions while others gave more than one answer.

The Response

The responses had some striking features. For example, slightly more than 50 percent of the institutions did reply (see Appendix C for a listing of institutions):

- Number of institutions written: 45
- Number of responses: 23
- Number of respondents answering at least some of the written questions: 19

These institutions were universities for the most part, with one historical society, one college graduate school of library science, one undergraduate college, one research foundation, and one special archives that offers only a specialized summer institute completing the list.

The respondents in almost every case were those who taught the archives courses at their institutions. Judging from their stationery and the titles...
following their signatures, 73 percent are archivists.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Replies</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curator of manuscripts</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archivist</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University archivist</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City archivist</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State archivist</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal archivist</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total archivists of 22 ascertainable titles</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of graduate school of library service</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor of library science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor of archival studies institute</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor of library science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total professors</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic reference librarian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourteen of the 23 responses were long, detailed, and helpful letters; one was a telephone interview (with F. Gerald Ham). Only four respondents did not attempt to tackle the questions, though they did enclose course information, circulars, and other material.

Some trends were discernable from the ways in which these instructors (and their institutions) view their archival course offerings. The course offerings are listed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the school of library science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the school of information studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the history department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-listed in history and library science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cross-listed in history and English 1
Transferred from library school to history 1
About to be transferred from school of urban life to history 1
Not applicable 4
Total responses 23

In spite of representation among several disciplines, most of these institutions offer only single courses. Two institutions provide summer institutes; fourteen offer an introductory course, although one of these is about to expand the single course into two. Only seven of the respondent institutions offer multiple courses.

A more specific notion of the substance of these course offerings comes from answers to the question about the percentage of time spent on lecture, discussion, and practicum or laboratory work. Respondents at the institutions with multicourse offerings frequently noted that one of their courses was almost entirely devoted to reading the archival literature. Seven courses consisted of at least 50 percent lecture time, while discussion featured prominently in descriptions of courses at nineteen of the twenty-three institutions. Practically every course (the exceptions were three aimed solely at people already working in the field and an Advanced Readings course at a multicourse institution) involved some form of practicum, laboratory work, demonstration, field trip or tour, or research term project to be carried out in an archives.

Practical work, then, looms large in the minds of the instructors. All those who used the word "practicum" were describing at least one of a multicourse offering. At one institution, for example, practicum means 100 hours of supervised work at a university archives followed in the subsequent course by 200 hours at a federal records center. Other courses require laboratory work. Some respondents did not specify what that implied, but others said students were required to arrange and describe a record group or manuscript collection. Some courses require research papers using...
primary sources, and one required each student to conduct an oral history interview. Field trips, tours, and demonstrations were also mentioned.

Although it is difficult to categorize the responses (e.g., what is the distinction between a practicum and laboratory work?), they break down roughly as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
<th>With Courses Consisting of or Including</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Practicum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Laboratory work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Research term project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>No practical work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Field trip or tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the above suggests, the eight courses that include field trips, tours, or demonstrations are also augmented in every case by some work handling records or papers. It is not clear, however, how much the students who only write research papers learn about the practice of archival principles. Do these students learn, for example, about preservation techniques?

What emphasis, generally, were instructors giving topics? What do they think that student archivists need in order to be well-trained? Responses to the question about how much of the study was theoretical, how much practical are summarized:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At least 50 percent practical</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both practical and theoretical</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Oriented toward 'generalist'&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historiography</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could or did not say</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48
Responses to the question about the focus or direction of course offerings—whether archives administration, the history of archives, or records management—suggest something about the biases of the instructors. Some are more disposed to think in terms of manuscripts, some of records. None sees the history of the field as being of primary importance. Because these seem like separate, though interrelated approaches, it was surprising that the responses were not more discrete.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archives administration</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All three areas</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archives administration and records management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archives administration and history of archives</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not directly applicable</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total responses</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

None of the instructors claimed to focus on records management alone; some do not seem to deal with the topic of records management at all, for the term was never used by instructors of courses at three institutions.

Over the past two years, 432 students have taken courses at sixteen of the respondent institutions! Demand seems to be even greater than these numbers would indicate, for at one institution last year the instructor had fifty applications for the program to which he could admit fifteen.

Institutions offering more than one course do not seem to produce a larger number of archivists. Apparently most students prefer the single courses. At one institution, half as many students took advanced offerings as took the introductory course, while at another institution only 8 percent went beyond the primary
course. On the other hand, 50 percent of the students taking the regular archival offerings also enroll in one institution's summer institute.

Most (12) of the institutions' offerings are open only to graduate students, though at six other institutions offerings are aimed particularly at those either working in the field or about to enter. Only three respondents indicated that their institutions' offerings are open to undergraduates, and these restrict the course to seniors.

Library school graduate students dominate the student population of these course offerings, with history graduate students following close behind. In addition, one student was pursuing a doctor of philosophy degree in educational media, one in German, and at one summer institute, 25 percent of the students came from the disciplines of business, law, and political science, while another 25 percent came from theology and education.

A sense of what is being asked of students can be acquired from answers to the questions about student participation and the basis for grades. Each instructor who responded to the first said students were encouraged and in some cases "required" to contribute to class discussion. Grades seem to be based primarily on an evaluation of students' project, reports or papers, and on practicum work such as arranging and describing a small collection or record series. Exams and class participation were also mentioned frequently by the instructors.

Instructors gave their own version of student reception of the course offerings, and all but one response was positive. They ranged from a modest "satisfaction" to "rated highest of the School of Librarianship offerings last year" and "the most intellectual work students found in Library Science." The only negative response was that the course did not attract as many history students as had been expected. Typically, the student evaluations expressed appreciation of learning practical techniques as well as gaining a well-rounded notion of general archival concepts. One instructor at a multicourse institution added, "Several students have expressed the need for more time to read
and work with different projects in the Archives." For the most part, then, according to the instructors, students are getting what they seem to want from archival courses; one instructor pointed out that the students least experienced in archival work enjoyed his course the most. Another instructor noted that most of those taking his course were library students; but, as a result of the course, a number of them decided to go on to work as archivists.

Most instructors claimed their courses were very successful in terms of subsequent or ongoing employment of students, with many students actively employed in the field at this time. One of these respondents, an instructor at a multicourse institution where all the students are planning on careers in archives work, noted that a student who found work at the state archives said he has not been given any task he could not handle. Another instructor claimed, "We work very hard at placement. By and large ALL our students who want archival jobs get them." On the other hand, a few instructors replied that they did not know how useful the courses were, either because the course was so new or they had no way of assessing it. One instructor answered that because his single course "does not aim at making an archivist, it has surprised me that at least three who have completed the course have found full-time employment in archival and historical manuscript work."

The extent of the courses' success as far as the instructors are concerned is a different matter, which is understandable considering how much more the instructors know about the needs of a working archivist than fledgling students could guess. Replies about the success of the program were:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Number of Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Successful</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could not say</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not respond directly</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program never fully operational</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

51
It is striking that every instructor who called the courses successful qualified this statement with comments such as "given its mandate and limited objective" or "vis à vis immediate student response." It is also noteworthy that so few of the instructors directly answered this question.

Instructors named the following strong points about their offerings: the limited number and receptiveness of students; the personal contact with students; reinforcement of students' identities as archivists; the practical experience; "the cadence between application of principles and then reading and talking more"; the quality of their libraries and other educational and research facilities; cooperation of outside repositories for students' projects; "the program is a well-established part of the graduate school curriculum, situated in a strong department (History) with a cognate program in the Graduate School of Librarianship;" and the knowledge and experience of the instructor.

Of the nine instructors who noted weak points, several mentioned the constraints of time: there are too many subjects and areas to be covered in the period allotted. The courses therefore lacked depth. One felt limited by the facilities for substantive laboratory work; another lacked suitable study materials and had to generate them at the institution. One believed the course was focused too much on the needs and procedures of larger archival agencies; another pointed to the difficulty of having only one person and some volunteer help to plan the multicourse offerings. Another claimed, "The weakness is in the limited and uncertain demand for professional level archivists and manuscripts curators."

All but three instructors resoundingly asserted the need for minimum academic or practicum training standards for archivists. Of the three dissenters, one felt the SAA Committee guidelines were adequate. Another warned, "There is such a great variety in the type of things archivists do it would be a difficult matter to control." Another claimed, "Our profession is too diversified for anything mandatory and structured. We have a long way to go before we can impose standards in this type of business." The thirteen instructors who responded yes said that standards are needed for
academic training, for practicum or on-the-job experience, and to accomplish professionalization.

Concerning academic training, one instructor advised the standard be some graduate training in history or government or other social sciences. Another suggested "studies in one substantive institute of some length and intensity or a regular academic program, integrated with appropriate studies, i.e., History, Library School, Public Administration, and other areas of specialized interest." One listed "a course in a library school, a training school, and experience under an archivist."

There seems to be some difference of opinion about the merits of academic training as opposed to practical experience. One instructor advised, "For purposes of status and professional recognition I favor strongly a post-graduate degree in archival training--at least one year beyond the B.A. degree. On the other hand my personal experience has shown me that the best training is on the job--I have seen individuals with less than a university degree develop under supervision into 'professionals' and do the work as well as the individual with a degree who has been through a course." Another said, "An actual apprenticeship in an archival repository ought to be made mandatory. An apprenticeship of this sort would, in my opinion, be far preferable to any academic program." Another instructor suggested, "Students must have practicum experience or internship of at least one quarter or semester. Any archival program without on-the-job training is virtually useless."

Discussion

The instructors surveyed for this paper are among those closest to the state of archival training in the United States and Canada. Although they probably have never before been asked, collectively, for their opinions on this subject, many instructors responded and at such length (the longest was a single-spaced four page letter!) that it is clear they are convinced that archival training desperately needs definition and control. As archivists, these instructors have a good notion of what a fledgling archivist ought to have in the...
way of training, yet enthusiasm for their own programs was always qualified or lacking entirely. The main criticism instructors made of their own courses was that the courses were too brief or limited in scope. These instructors do not believe that their students will be as thoroughly trained as they ought to be; their desire to provide more and better training comes through strongly. The instructors' letters attest to frustration with the current situation.

Archives education is a field in flux. In fact, it is difficult to discuss archival training as though it were a coherent entity. A review of the variety of responses shows that there is no common terminology, focus, method, or goal for archives courses. The courses described do not concentrate just on archives administration, records management, or the history of archives, but on two or more of these areas; because, as Hugh Taylor¹ put it, "The short courses do in fact give a bit of everything."

It is logical to introduce librarians to the field with such courses, for they need only a summary understanding. But how can the short courses cover everything an archivist needs to know? Many of the course offerings seem to be both introductory and practical simultaneously: most of them are single courses involving a lot of discussion, but are more practical than theoretical. Practical work was emphasized by every instructor. Yet an introductory course by definition must be general if a student is to be introduced to as many phases of archives work as possible. And, if much of the time is devoted to the essential practical problems, is it not likely that many topics would have to be explained away in a few sentences or omitted altogether? This seems to be consistent with Herman Kahn's statement that for the most part, archival training consists of how-to-do-it courses.² Perhaps if training for archivists were separated from archival training for others, the different needs of students would be met.

Archives education is also a burgeoning field. There is a proliferation of training courses. One instructor said, "At present there is evidence of a decline in attendance at the Summer Institute attributable to the fact that so many week, two-week, etc., so-called Institutes have sprung up. I really believe they are..."
more properly workshops or seminars—and since they issue Certificates, perhaps individuals shy away from in-depth study taking longer. All kinds of offerings have proliferated over the country. I question the depth and breadth of content for many of them."

If there is more demand for archival training courses, there are also more teachers. One instructor claimed, "There is not a week goes by that I do not have at least one request to 'please send complete sets of your lecture notes, bibliographies, project outlines, and course syllabi, etc.' from someone who admittedly knows very little about archives or manuscripts but who is about to embark on teaching a course in same." The instructor went on to say that apparently these are "primarily courses on how to find and use reference materials. Some of them are taught by those whose only exposure has been as a user of archives." Philip P. Mason suggests an absence of leadership from the SAA is partly responsible for this wide range of course offerings, their diversity in content, and the methods and experience and training of those teaching.3

Students desiring archival training are also proliferating. In the past two years, sixteen of these institutions have produced 432 "trained" archivists, and considering the dearth of jobs for history students and increasingly for library students as well, these numbers will probably increase. It is natural that a student today would prefer the single course as a way of broadening his or her job options, as opposed to a single-minded commitment to one particular branch of knowledge. One difficulty, however, is that some students, after taking a single or introductory course, assume they know all about archives. The damage that has been and can be done to records by persons who do not sufficiently understand their limitations is awful to contemplate. Yet these students are finding jobs in the field. Although this is gratifying to some extent, the question is whether such students as these should be given custody of the nation's records. Some whose only exposure to archives has been a course intended to introduce librarians to principles of arrangement and description have gone directly into archives work.

If the students taking these courses (and getting archival jobs) are more often librarians than
historians, will archival practice over the coming years
tend further away from preliminary research analysis of
pointed to Solon J. Buck's feeling that a thorough his­
torical background is important for persons entering the
archival profession, and then added, "Archivists today seem
to concentrate more on being the link between primary
sources and the historian rather than on being scholars
endeavoring to build comprehensive documentary collec­
tions that reflect particular themes in American his­
tory."5

Modern heirs of traditional practice should
provide the leadership instructors are calling for. The
first step is to gain a rational understanding of the
situation. Other studies might be useful. Following up
on the 432 students who graduated from archival programs
during the past two years could be instructive. No
doubt these students, many of whom are now actively en­
gaged in archives work, will be able to describe the
successes and deficiencies of the programs they attended.

Change will be difficult to accomplish. Many
archivists suffer, in Herman Kahn's terms, "a divided
heart," for they usually call themselves something
other than archivists. With divided hearts, it is not
easy for archivists to feel an identity with each other
or as a group; their ability to act collectively for
their common good is restricted by the extent to which
they do not see themselves as a group. Collective ac­
tion, nevertheless, is needed.

Herman Kahn warned, "If we want others to re­
gard us as professionals, we should start acting as
though we ourselves believe ourselves to be profession­
als."7

For the field of social work, professionaliza­
tion was accomplished by standardizing the education re­
quired of social workers. According to Roy Lubove in
his study of the emergence of social work as a career,
"Nothing would give social work the recognition and
status of a profession so long as people find it possi­
ble to enter the field without professional training."8
In other words, besides needing standards that specify
what professional training is, a profession also needs
standards to exclude from professional roles those who
have not followed the prescribed course of study. Being able to define who does not have the necessary training and background might be even more important in terms of ensuring competence in the field than defining who is qualified. Lubove says the necessity for standardization of curricula also became apparent because school training had become as individualized as the teachers. In his review of archival education, Frank G. Burke, director of the National Historical Publications and Records Commission, echoes this when he claims that in this country courses are often a "recitation by practitioners of 'this is the way I do it in my shop.'"

The instructors are asking for educational standards. As Gerald Ham pointed out, "For the first time now people are making a conscious decision to be archivists and as a result, we are getting a higher caliber of student. What we should provide is a systematic channelization for those who make that choice."

Those who want to become archivists need to know how. Another instructor, David B. Gracy II, pointed out that while guidelines for minimum training are necessary, "We do not yet have the basic training opportunities that would permit us to make these guidelines into standards." A model degree program would serve both to bridge that gap and to articulate the standards. Politically sensitive questions arise: Who will articulate the standards? Who will set up, house, and fund the program?

Both Hugh Taylor and Gerald Ham described a model program. They believe that the time has come for a graduate degree program in archives. Complete offerings at a few institutions could integrate serious academic and practical training, with first-rate teachers. Archival training could become broader-based than it has been in this country. Hugh Taylor would prefer to see a university course that was more theoretical and philosophical. He would have students investigate aspects of archival work that they may never encounter on their first jobs but which could be applicable to future positions. Kahn seems to support this view when he says that learning the craft alone does not make a professional archivist.
Another reason to reformulate archival education is to update it. As one instructor explained, "An archivist today deals with a radically different universe" than archivists twenty years ago. "He has more responsibility, far more material to deal with, and is aware of many more aspects of and problems in his work. Today the archivist deals with donors such as government ministers or parish priests, with senior and junior academics, with systems people and conservators, and more."

The best students would come to know that the graduate degree programs in archives were the ones to choose. Ham suggested that a reason some archivists are managing their records so badly now is that they have never been through the selection process required to get into and complete an academic program in archives. Another instructor said, "We're reaching a point where we can require formal archival training of new archivists; and, although it undoubtedly has some drawbacks, I think it can serve to weed out those unlikely to find satisfaction in the profession and those who are and will remain too narrowly trained. This will serve considerably to uplift the entire profession." Students of these courses would become the "aristocracy" of the profession. Other courses would come to define themselves by reference to how well they measure up to the standards set by the graduate programs. "And as we raise the standards," Hugh Taylor claimed, "they will become the norm. If we can get a decent graduate program on the road, it would freeze out these half-cocked courses." Another probable result of a few graduate degree programs would be a much-needed standardization in the language used by those who would be archivists. (Frank Evans's Glossary\textsuperscript{12} might well serve as a reference.)

Later, when the time comes for more formal administration of archival training, accreditation of programs might be necessary, but this would entail separating programs by the archival functions they claim to teach for the various kinds of repository. It might also be useful to clarify which programs are for students seeking archival careers and which are for those broadening their backgrounds.

With standards established, the consumers (both students and employers) will come to know what
they are getting. One instructor warned, "Until others, including hiring authorities, recognize such standards, we are not going to get very far with trying to impose them." Yet, who can imagine that when prospective employers have their choice of trained archivists or amateur archivists, they will not in the long run choose the trained archivists? Kenneth Duckett seems to agree. Ideally, he says, the curator would "wish to hire personnel trained in manuscript management, or to take advantage of the courses offered to train persons already on his staff. In a great many cases, neither ideal can be attained." Herman Kahn pointed to the disciplines of medicine, law, and engineering where obtaining a degree means one has become a trained professional. With a degree, a doctor can assure both himself and any potential employer that he is a professional (although by that point he has stopped worrying about professionalism). As it is now, "there is no valid way of proving that one is an archivist unless one is already in a job that requires him to do archival work." Frank Burke believes that with professional qualifications different from those of graduate historians, archivists need not be haunted by the suspicion that they are failed historians who could not succeed as teachers.

Having actively chosen their careers, the new archivists would come to have a sense of identity. They would be socialized to think of themselves as professionals. In the field of social work, professional education became the socialization process whereby "personal idiosyncrasies, prejudices, or habits detrimental to professional efficiency" were eliminated. Socialization means that students are not only educated to practice similar methods; it means they also learn to regard their field with respect for its intricacies and its changing, as well as to be encouraged to view themselves and their colleagues seriously. If an archivist is defined as both historian and librarian, for example, that integration, once clarified, could be accommodated. With identities secure, archivists would not have to worry about who they are, and could spend their energies solving those problems generated by massive twentieth-century collections that threaten to overwhelm us all.
NOTES

1 Oral interview, May 27, 1976. I am grateful to Mr. Hugh Taylor and his Canadian colleagues for their generous assistance in my survey.


5 Ibid., p. 353.

6 Kahn, p. 4.

7 Ibid., p. 8.


9 Ibid., pp. 149-50.


11 Kahn, p. 8.


14 Kahn, p. 6.
Oral interview with Mr. Gerald Ham, June 2, 1976, in which he said, "The more professional one is, the less one worries about it."

Kahn, p. 4.

Burke, p. 65.

Lubove, p. 152.

The authors of this handbook on oral history methodology and technique, all professors at the University of South Dakota, have made a useful contribution to their goal of providing professional training for oral historians. The handbook is based on the work of the South Dakota Oral History Project which has undertaken major field programs in both American Indian oral history and state and regional oral history.

This book contains a brief outline of the development of oral history as a field within the historical profession, as well as a discussion of the present limitations and future uses of this method of research. Most important the authors include detailed discussions of their field work experiences, the "how-tos" of selecting interviewers and equipment, specific guidelines for locating respondents in a community, and several cogent and useful excerpts from actual interviews. Finally, the authors outline their method of processing and editing the interviews. The book's appendices provide a valuable addition to this topic and make available examples of the abstracts, legal release forms, and internal processing sheets used by the South Dakota Oral History Project.

Throughout, the authors emphasize the limitations of oral history and stress the fact that, like more traditional forms of historical research, it is simply another means to the end of historical analysis and interpretation. They argue that while it will never supplant traditional methods of historical investigation, oral history can add new dimensions to the study of the recent past. The most important of these
new dimensions, and to the authors the most effective role of oral history, is the study of the experience and consciousness of groups within American society hitherto deemed "inarticulate" in "a non-elitist pursuit of historical information among citizens at all levels of society."

Students and experienced practitioners of oral history alike would do well to heed the advice of the authors when they discuss the importance of preparatory work for interviewers. Emphasizing the need to be thoroughly familiar with the written source materials on a given topic before beginning the process of interviewing, the authors also stress the advantage of a multi-dimensional approach to historical research. They recommend the use of manuscripts and oral histories in conjunction with photographs, maps, folklore materials and carefully prepared field notes, and underscore the usefulness of concepts and methods drawn from other disciplines, especially anthropology and sociology.

Although in general the examples of interviewing procedures and processing which the authors use from their own research projects are easily applicable to other oral history programs, there are several exceptions. First, in discussing the always complicated procedure of choosing informants, the authors tend to over-generalize. They suggest, for example, that a "group to avoid is the clergy (unless your subject is ecclesiastical)" and warn readers that women too often make disappointing respondents because they "viewed life through a kitchen window." But the experience of other oral history projects, especially those which have sought to analyze the function of the church within a particular society and historical changes in the basic unit of the family, would point to the value and the necessity of interviewing members of both these groups.

Second, the authors endorse a method of processing tapes which is both expensive and inordinately time-consuming, for it includes transcribing every tape, indexing, editing, and retyping each transcript. While members of the South Dakota Oral History Project seem to agree that interviews often vary considerably in quality and usefulness, they do not propose that those interviews of poorer quality be indexed but not transcribed and that only those interviews with extensive editing
changes be retyped. Both of these suggestions would serve to lower the cost of oral history projects without sacrificing accessibility for researchers.

In spite of these weaknesses, the authors, with the assistance of the Microfilming Corporation of America, have provided researchers in oral history with useful guidelines and models both for the conceptualization of oral history projects and for the more practical aspects of interview processing, storage, and data retrieval. By preparing this handbook and sharing with others the experiences of the South Dakota Oral History Project, the authors have helped insure that oral history will be used "both as a research device for the present and a preservation of information for the future."

Southern Oral History Program
University of North Carolina
at Chapel Hill

Mary E. Frederickson


Some archivists have traditionally viewed records managers as cultural Visigoths who systematically destroy historical records in the name of economy and efficiency. This is an unfortunate misconception which this book, by its explanation of the rationale and methodology of a function which is essential to archival development, will help to extinguish.

Information and Records Management is a balanced, organized, and practical guide written in uncommonly good style for a business publication. The book is arranged in six sections: the origin and role of records management; active records; controlling records at their creation; maintaining inactive records; and micrographics. Each chapter ends with questions and projects for the student reader. In format, readability, and breadth of coverage, the book supersedes the work of William Benedon, the dean of American records managers, and the Association of Records Managers and...
Administrators' testing affiliate recommends the book as one source for professional certification. The archivist may particularly profit from the discussion of forms design, filing control, security measures, and the justification of microfilm proposals.

After commending it to the readers of Georgia Archive, one hesitates to pepper the book with criticism. However, the authors fail to discuss the special problems of personnel engaged in the frequent drudgery of paper work or the general task of supervising a staff. "Costing-out" alternative record-keeping systems is an important skill, but the book does not offer an example. Assessing the administrative, fiscal, legal, or historical value of a records series may sometimes be a subjective process, but the topic merits a much more extended discussion. Few archivists will profit from the brief chapter on archives, which was written for records managers. The discussion of microfilm technology and application is intelligent and comprehensive, but a workbook of case studies would improve the capable summary. A technical omission, which particularly perturbed this reviewer, was the lack of any bibliographic citations except occasional footnotes and text references.

Most archivists will profit from this book; many will find it a suitable desk companion for their Schellenberg. This is the best medium available for training entry level and junior archivists in the fundamentals of records management. As a textbook, as a reference, or as a guide to what the records manager is doing, this book has value. Archivists must learn the language of the records manager to counsel him, to gain new tools, and to prevent the myth of the cultural Visigoth from becoming a reality.

Governmental Records Office
Georgia Department of Archives and Records

Mike Lewellyn
The 1977 Writer's Market is the forty-eighth annual edition of a standard reference volume for freelance authors seeking the most appropriate book and periodical publishers for their work. Anyone, archivist or no, considering publishing for prestige or remuneration will be fascinated by the extensive how-to (and even where-to) sections of the book which precede the 4,095 listings for "8,577 Paying Markets." In fact, the book is so appealing it is an open invitation to anyone to become a writer.

Aside from offering the delights of authorship and some logical approaches for accomplishing the same, the volume's listings contribute limited information to the archivist. The markets are arranged alphabetically by title beneath topics, and the topics are arranged alphabetically under seven headings: Book Publishers; Trade, Technical, and Professional Journals; Company Publications; Farm Publications; Consumer Publications; Miscellaneous Freelance Markets and Services; and Foreign Markets. The listings are by no means inclusive, since these are only markets which actively solicit some freelance writing, usually for monetary compensation. This immediately excludes most scholarly and technical journals.

Even using the index for cross-references, there are no entries for archives or archival studies as such. There are nine entries under "library science," only one of which would be of interest to archivists (Microform Review) and twenty entries under "history," three of which might be helpful (American Historical Review, Journal of American History, Virginia Magazine of History and Biography). The others are aimed at popular readership or are so narrow in scope as to be of very limited usefulness. (It is, of course, true that it is handy to know about Sea Classics in order to answer that one reference question about "ships and events at sea.")
The most comprehensive source of historical and archival materials (which can easily be missed when consulting the table of contents and index) is the twenty-eight page list of "Picture Sources" useful for illustrating manuscripts. Although most sources are companies or individuals, some museums, galleries, libraries, foundations, and governmental agencies are included. Most germane, however, are descriptions of the historical illustrations held by four major libraries, seven city or regional historical societies, eleven state historical societies, and four state archives in addition to the National Archives and Records Service and the Public Archives of Canada. There are, incidentally, no entries related to genealogy, even under hobbies, associations, or miscellaneous.

There is a glossary of publishing terms and an alphabetical index to the names/titles of all the markets. It is indeed unfortunate that there is no in-depth subject indexing. The editors themselves say "if your main area of interest is food and drink publications, you're limited to less than a dozen listings in that category. But by skimming the whole book, you'll find dozens of related listings." How much better to let an index do the job.

The 1977 Artist's and Photographer's Market is a companion to the above volume and does for the freelance photographer or artists what the Writer's Market does for the independent writer. It is again a fascinating tome, with 3,667 listings for 9,168 "Paying Markets"; but this reviewer was unable to discover any application of the book for the archivist.

R. J. Taylor, Jr., Foundation Brigid S. Townsend


For those "un-Georgians" among us, James Edward Oglethorpe was the founder of the Colony of Georgia. Phinizy Spalding, associate professor of history at the University of Georgia and editor of the Georgia Historical Quarterly, is one of Oglethorpe's most thorough
biographers. In this treatise Spalding attempts to update A. A. Ettinger's biography of Oglethorpe, emphasizing primary source material which has come to light in the last forty years. The result is a critical study of Oglethorpe's American career. The work is marred by Spalding's topical approach and might better be termed a collection of essays.

Spalding's picture of Oglethorpe is not flattering, and it is no wonder that the book was published outside the state. This English gentleman appears as a determined egotist who wanted to play father to a colony. As a result of his rigid adherence to preconceived ideas of America, the colony nearly failed.

Oglethorpe seems to have been a poor administrator who was afraid to delegate power and responsibility to his colonists. He also stubbornly adhered to the rules of the Trustees even when it became obvious that the rules could not work. His inflexibility in the matters of land placement, the use of slave or indentured labor, economic diversification, and rum nearly proved the colony's downfall. Even his beloved Indians deserted him for better trading with the South Carolinians.

The author's stated aim is to take the Georgia hero off his pedestal and evaluate critically his effect on the development of the Georgia colony. Dr. Spalding does this in great detail, but concludes by making excuses for his subject and once more elevating him to godlike status. Nonetheless, this biography is a needed correction to more laudatory views of a complex individual and will be of special interest to Georgia scholars. The primary sources chosen by Spalding certainly give the researcher a new and needed slant on Oglethorpe.

West Georgia College

Jane B. Hersch


This collection of essays by six authors is a useful addition to the literature on the relationships between archivists and librarians. Older members of
the profession will read it as recent history, and their younger colleagues will find it a readable introduction to the contemporary situation. Though the shared concerns of archivists and librarians about professional research, program evaluation, reference service, and physical facilities are omitted, the reader gains a comprehensive, if somewhat disjointed, picture of relations between archivists and librarians over the past forty years.

Most of the contributors have had both archival and library experience and are qualified to discuss settings, similarities, differences, common issues, shared concerns, and professional communication. The treatment of archival institutions is extensive, and library concerns are generally those related to archival practice. From an archival viewpoint, the most valuable contributions are Frank Burke's essay on library and archival education; Miriam Crawford's contributions on legislation, copyright, access, and social responsibility; and Frazier Poole's article on conservation. Much of the content of these sections is either new or stated in brief, understandable prose that is rarely found in professional journals.

Frank Burke's survey of recent education for librarianship is lively and accurate, and his discussion of archival education is one of the best in print. Its realism and avoidance of simplistic solutions is commendable. He identifies the conflicts between graduate education in a subject field, thorough training in research methodology, and the smorgasbord of course sequences, institutes, and in-service training programs that pass along archival skills to career entrants, whose entry into the profession is still dependent on passing a civil service examination, possessing the proper academic credentials, or having sufficient work experience.

Burke's essay on materials and methodology offers an interesting discussion of acquisitions, processing, description, and use, accompanied by speculative comparisons and contrasts of the practices of archivists and librarians. Some of the confusion in this essay could have been avoided by the inclusion of definitions. His essays on public relations and fund-raising and on collection building and acquisition policies are well
written and should be considered with similar contribu­
tions in the July, 1975, issue of the Drexel Library
Quarterly.

Miriam Crawford's account of legislation is a
valuable discussion of recent history, but would have
benefited by a more critical evaluation of H. G. Jones's
conclusions regarding the Federal Records Act of 1950
and by the inclusion of a paragraph on the institutional
development of the Library of Congress in the twentieth
century. Included are sections on library legislation
and the ALA Washington office, a stimulating discussion
of the development of federal grant support in the
1960's, and six pages on copyright and literary property
rights which set a worthy precedent in brevity and clar­
ity for those who will be explaining the new copyright
law. Her essays on access and confidentiality and so­
cial responsibility cover many interesting parallels be­
tween archival and library experience. Archivists need
this kind of summarization of their recent history,
which is too often scattered in newsletters and reports
and obscured by the rhetoric of the protagonists.

Contributions by Robert Clark include an essay
on the archival setting, which is marred by a number of
statements that are not based on careful historical re­
search, and a discussion of the library setting which
emphasizes the use of technology to reduce "the forces
of distance and time" and supports the position that
state libraries should administer archival programs and
the collection of historical manuscripts. His discus­
sion of the archivist and the librarian avoids the usual
pious platitudes only to fall into a potpourri of gener­
alizations, stereotypes, speculations, and rhetorical
surveys.

The Clark essay on standardization and technol­
ogy contains a useful introduction to standards affect­
ing archival and library practice and devotes several
pages to the development of the MARC format for manu­
scripts. While the MARC format has given "insight into
the unique problems . . . in the control of original ma­
terial," an orientation toward library control, exces­
sive detail, and an involved structure render it virtu­
ally useless for the control of archival and manuscripts
collections. Clark concludes that standardization is
more useful to institutions than to users and that the
demand "is strongest when the material is distributable, or when uniqueness is absent."

Frazier Poole's contribution is an excellent brief discussion of the importance of the conservation of archival and library materials, the current state of the art, and the need for new techniques and trained personnel. Robert Brubaker's articles on professional associations, relations between the Society of American Archivists and organizations of historians and librarians, and the regional archival associations are a helpful summary of recent events. The volume ends with an annotated selected bibliography of thirty-eight items from which Frank Evans's Modern Archives and Manuscripts: A Select Bibliography was unfortunately omitted.

Archivists and librarians should have an opportunity to relate to each other as well as to the archives and libraries where they are employed. These essays will guide them.

University of Illinois
at Urbana-Champaign

Maynard Brichford
In a Spring issue of The Chronicle of Higher Education (April 11, 1977), Beverly Watkins reported that periodic relicensing is becoming more common in many of the professions. Professionals are kept abreast of new knowledge in their field by taking a certain amount of course work. So far, continuing education is required by various states for eleven professions. Though these professions are mostly medical, such other professions as CPA's, lawyers, real estate personnel, and social workers also require periodic relicensing. One expert believes that concern for maintaining high quality in professional continuing education programs has led to more accreditation activities.

Archivists are not presently required to be certified, but librarians are. Continuing education is also emphasized for librarians; and if the above article applies, recertification may become necessary for them. The Society of American Archivists has recently issued a draft proposal for the creation of a program for archival certification from its Education and Professional Development Committee. The draft proposal is reprinted from the SAA Newsletter. Comments concerning the proposal should be addressed to the SAA, Library, Box 8198, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago, Ill. 60680; or to the SGA, Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Ga. 30303.

A DRAFT PROPOSAL

I. Board for Archival Certification

A. The Board for Archival Certification (BAC) is responsible for the certification of archival education programs, the development and administration of the archival certification examination, and the administration of the short-term program for certification of practicing archivists.
B. The BAC will consist of 5 members, one selected by the Committee on Professional Standards, one by the Committee on Education and Professional Development, and three by the Council of the Society of American Archivists.

C. The term of service on the BAC will be three years, with the exception of the initial BAC, on which one member will serve for one year, two members for two years, and two members for three years. The determination of which initial members will have the one, two, and three year terms will be by lot.

D. The BAC will choose its chairperson from among the members

E. Three members of the BAC will constitute a quorum.

F. Decisions of the BAC will be by majority vote, and minutes shall be kept of all BAC meetings.

II. Initial Certification

A. An individual may be certified if he/she successfully completes a certified archival training program.

B. An individual may be certified if he/she successfully completes the archival certification examination administered by the Society of American Archivists.

C. An individual may be certified if he/she has been a practicing full-time archivist/manuscript curator for a period of not less than two years on the date the certification program goes into effect.

III. Certification Based on Education

A. Archival education programs will be certified in accordance with the standards adopted by the Society of American Archivists.
B. Upon the successful completion of the curriculum by one or more students, the instructor will submit their names to the BAC for certification. The BAC will vote on the certification no later than 60 days after receipt of the request.

IV. Certification Based on Examination

A. The BAC, or its designees, will develop an examination covering the five archival functions, i.e., the nature and definition, acquisition, processing and conservation, use and administration of archives, as outlined in Program Standards for Archival Education.

B. The examination will be given not less than twice each year. The BAC will choose the locations at which the examination will be given and will set the test dates.

C. The dates and places of the examination will be announced not less than three months in advance of the test date. Applicants must register for the examination no later than 30 days in advance of the test date.

D. The BAC may establish a reasonable registration fee for the examination.

E. The BAC will establish procedures for administration of the examination.

F. Completed examinations will be forwarded to the BAC within 48 hours following the examination. The BAC will appoint examiners to grade the papers, with each examiner assigned a specific question or questions to grade on all papers to provide uniform markings. The examiners will prepare a written report of their findings and submit it to the BAC within 30 days following the examination.

G. The BAC will vote on certification within 30 days following the report of the examiners. The BAC may certify all, none, or some of the applicants.
V. Certification Based on Experience

A. An applicant for certification based on experience will submit evidence of continuous full-time employment or its equivalent as an archivist/manuscript curator for not less than one year prior to the date on which the certification program goes into effect.

B. If the BAC finds the evidence submitted sufficient to establish one year of continuous full-time employment or its equivalent as an archivist/manuscript curator, certification will be approved.

C. The BAC may, in exceptional circumstances, vote to grant certification to persons whose job titles have not be "archivist" or "manuscript curator" but whose work has been substantively archival.

D. The BAC will vote on applicants within 60 days of receipt of the application.

E. Certification based on experience will be available for only two years following the date on which the certification program goes into effect. Thereafter, all certification will be through education or examination.

VI. Notification

A. Within ten days following the action of the BAC, each applicant for certification will be sent the result of his/her application.

B. Each certified archivist will be given a certificate, attesting to the certification and the date of that certification, and signed by the chairperson of the BAC and the president of the Society of American Archivists.

C. A list of newly-certified archivists will be published annually in the American Archivist.

D. The Society of American Archivists will maintain a roster of certified archivists.
E. An applicant failing certification may repeat the examination until successful.

VII. Appeal

A. No later than thirty days from the date of receipt of notification of an adverse decision, an applicant may notify the President of the Society of American Archivists of his/her intention to petition for review of the decision, and not later than sixty days from the date of receipt of notification of an adverse decision, shall submit documentation supporting such petition.

B. The President of the Society of American Archivists, with the approval of the Council of the Society, shall then appoint a hearing panel of five persons, none of whom shall be members of the BAC.

C. A hearing on the petition shall be held at a time and place mutually convenient to the panel and the petitioner, and shall be conducted in accordance with due process.

D. The panel will state its decision in writing, and that decision will be final.

VIII. Duration

RESERVED

IX. Revocation

A. Revocation of certification may be undertaken by the BAC at any time it determines there is just cause.

B. A person whose certification is under revocation review by the BAC will be notified of the pending action and will be given a written statement of the basis for the action. No public disclosure of the review will be made at this time.

C. The person will be given thirty days to file a response to the BAC statement.
D. After thirty days have elapsed, if no response from the person is forthcoming, revocation will become final. If a response is received, the BAC will reconsider the question and make a final determination.

E. The person will be notified promptly of the BAC's decision.

F. Appeal of revocation may be undertaken in accordance with procedures outlined in VII above.

Under the Arts, Humanities and Cultural Affairs Act of 1976, the National Endowment for the Humanities has begun a Challenge Grant Program to encourage a broader base of private support for cultural institutions. Grants from NEH are to be matched 3:1 by private citizens, foundations, corporations, states, municipalities or civic groups, and are to be used for basic operating expenses: defraying deficits, renovation, equipment and materials, maintenance and conservation of collections, etc. For further information contact: CGP, NEH, Mail Stop 351, Washington, D.C. 20506.

HISTORY NEWS, the monthly publication of the American Association for State and Local History, is interested in knowing how various archives go about identifying the subject matter of old photographs. Are they placed on bulletin board with requests for information, advertised in the local newspaper or just identified by local patrons? Send them your ideas: AASLH, 1400 Eighth Ave., S., Nashville, Tn. 37203. Your ideas will be published in History News.

In a 7-2 decision handed down on June 28, the Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of the Presidential Recordings and Materials Preservation Act, the
law which placed former President Nixon's papers and tapes in government custody. Past issues of the Society of American Archivists' Newsletters carry full coverage of the events leading up to the decision. Copies of the complete package of the majority and dissenting opinions of the Supreme Court are available to interested members from the office of the SAA.

The National Endowment for the Humanities has awarded a two-year grant to the Committee for the Preservation of Architectural Records. The grant will enable the committee to locate, identify, and make accessible architectural records currently housed in libraries, archives, architects' offices, clients' houses, closets, and cellars. The Committee also offers advice and guidelines to local and state groups interested in the preservation of architectural records. For information, advice, or a copy of their newsletter write: Catha Grace Rambusch, Executive Director, Committee for the Preservation of Architectural Records, 15 Gramercy Park South, New York, N.Y. 10003

The Billy Graham Center at Wheaton College announces the acquisition policy of its Archives. The collection will include the records of Dr. Graham, his co-workers, his evangelistic association and its subsidiaries. In addition, the Archives will seek to acquire records of twentieth-century American Protestant evangelists, missionaries, mission boards and associations, evangelistic organizations, and special congresses and conferences. Individuals desiring more information about the Center's collecting policy or wishing to donate records may contact Robert Shuster, Billy Graham Center, Box 607, Wheaton College, Wheaton, Ill. 60187.

Of the 148 oral history interviews conducted by the Richard B. Russell Memorial Library, 47 have been released for use. These interviews include prominent senators associated with Senator Russell, his aides, his family and others. Contact Max Gilstrap, Russell Library, Athens, Ga. 30602.

Records of the Ecological Society of America (ESA) have been placed in the University of Georgia
Archives. Included in the collection is correspondence of Institute of Ecology Director Dr. Eugene P. Odum when he was president from 1964 to 1965. Records of the current president, Dr. Frank B. Golley, records from past presidents, and records of current officers will be retired to the Archives.

** A new resource for scholars: "The YWCA Archives" is now available as the result of a grant to the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association of the USA from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The project, through which the YWCA is organizing its extensive archival holdings, will make available to researchers, writers, and graduate students, on written application, collections which document the development of an American woman's voluntary organization as it grew from a Protestant grass roots movement in 1858 to a widely diversified two million member/participant institution today. Information may be obtained by writing the National Board YWCA Archives Project, National Board, YWCA, 600 Lexington Ave., New York, N.Y. 10022.

** It took the touch of a woman historian to place the proper Spanish accent on Georgia's history. And the work of other women--archivists--will ensure that the accent will not be lost. The late Mary Letitia Ross, a historian reared in coastal Glynn County and educated at the University of California, Berkeley, pioneered the study of Georgia's first European colonists, the Spanish. Her legacy--a collection measuring about 120 cubic feet and including correspondence, research notes, photographs, reports on Spanish activities in America, other archival documents and books--both in English and Spanish--is now housed in the Georgia Department of Archives and History. Through the efforts of Carroll Hart, Archives director and personal friend of Miss Ross, this valuable collection was brought from Miss Ross's Brunswick home to the Archives for preservation and processing. Through a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, the Archives received funds for processing the collection and producing a finding aid. Johanna S. R. Mendelson, a Latin American historian from Washington, D.C., is arranging and describing the collection and beginning preparation for a published finding aid.
The July 1977 Newsletter of the SAA reported that a recent survey by Michael Kohl, Rhode Island College, a member of SAA Finding Aids Committee, indicates that less than half of the volume of collections acquired by the 160 responding repositories is reported anywhere. The institutions reported accessions most often in publications connected with the repository. Local media, journals of national scope, and journals of regional or topical interest were used for about one-fourth of the repositories' accessions reports. An important difference was indicated between reporting practices of historical societies and colleges and universities. The former relied primarily on local media and publications connected with the repository, while the latter, although using repository connected publications, also often sent reports to national and regional journals. The Finding Aids Committee is attempting to encourage the reporting of accessions by developing a standard format acceptable to the major journals.

** The Society of American Archivists announces an archival security consultant service as part of its comprehensive archival security program. The program is supported by a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities. The consultant service has been designed to assist repositories in the planning and implementation of their own security program. Consultants have been selected for their knowledge of archival administration as well as security procedures and will provide concrete assistance in designing reading rooms, establishing staff security procedures, and in convincing the public of the seriousness of the problem. The consultant service is run on a cost-sharing basis. The SAA Security Program will pay for the professional fees charged by consultants. Repositories will be expected to pay for consultants' travel, and room and board expenses during their two-day visits. Write the SAA Archival Security Program, Library, Box 819, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago, Ill. 60680.
The North Carolina Supreme Court, in a ruling handed down on June 13, 1977, found in favor of the state in a two-year-old replevin case. In 1767 and 1768, William Hooper, who later signed the Declaration of Independence on behalf of North Carolina, was the attorney for the King. As the King's attorney he signed and filed in the King's court for the District of Salisbury, N.C., two indictments. In February 1975, the State of North Carolina instituted a civil action against a private collector of manuscripts, B. C. West, Jr., to recover possession of the indictments. The State alleged that it was the lawful custodian of and had the right to possession of all public records of the State of North Carolina. West admitted possession of the documents but denied the state's right to them. The June ruling overturned a lower court ruling in favor of West.--Condensed from SAA Newsletter, July 1977.

The AB Bookman's Weekly, in cooperation with the Antiquarian Booksellers Association of America, announced plans to donate a special section of the journal to reports of missing or stolen books. Any dealer, library, archival repository, or collector can submit brief descriptions of the missing items along with the name, address, and telephone number of the contact person for a charge of $1.00 per line listed. Send notifications marked "Missing Books" to AB Bookman's Weekly, Box AB, Clifton, N.J. 07015.

The Newsletter of the Georgia Folklore Society (Vol. I, No. 3, July 1977) reports that there will be a team of professional folklorists from the American Folklife Center, Washington, D.C., in the Tifton area this summer. The group will be collecting information about every facet of folklife and work in South Georgia. A media specialist will join the group at the end of their six-week research project to photograph and record the materials collected, which will be housed at the Arts Experiment Station, Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College, Tifton. For information contact Mrs. Syd Blackmarr, Box 45, ABAC Station, Tifton, Ga. 31794.

In an effort to document the history of southern women, the Women's Records Project of Georgia is developing a program to assist regional voluntary women's
organizations in writing their histories, identifying and organizing their historically valuable records, and working with local depositories to make their records available for research use.

The Project will include media presentations on women's roles in society, the publication of articles on women's history, and the development of guidebooks on identifying records, working with archives and depositories, writing histories and conducting oral history programs.

Ann Pederson, the Project's Director for Archives, says the Project is currently seeking funding for state-wide workshops that will emphasize the importance of collecting the records of voluntary organizations, and discuss archival practices that organizations should adopt to prepare their records for presentation to depositories. In addition, the Project is developing a list of depositories that have expressed interest in housing the records.

According to Pederson, depositories have not previously solicited the records of voluntary organizations because the records tended to be disarranged and incomplete. However, depositories are expressing interest in receiving the records of organizations which are assisted by the Women's Records Project. For further information, contact Women's Records Project of Georgia, Suite 16DE, 200 W. Peachtree St., N.W., Atlanta, Ga. 30308.

** The Society for Industrial Archeology's slide-film presentation on the rehabilitation and re-use of obsolescent industrial structures has been so well received and so much in demand that the Society has had the program converted to 16mm color film. It may be purchased for $200 from Courtney Fisher, SIA Treasurer, the Blair House, Warren, Vermont 05674; or rented for $15 from Anderson Notter Association, SIA Film, 77 Washington Str. North, Boston, Mass. 02114.

** The first seven slide/tape training programs in the new American Association for State and Local History series, "Conservation Techniques for Historic Houses,"
are now available on a rental or sale basis. The pro-
grams are self-contained units, each consisting of a
carousel of slides, cassette, script, printed supple-
mentary materials, and pertinent product samples. They
rent for $10 each, including one-way postage, and sell
for $65 each. The seven programs now available are:
"Reading a Building: Colonial," "Reading a Building: Adobe," "Overall Planning for Historic House Restora-
tion," "Victorian House Paint Colors: Exterior," "Wall-
paper and the Historic House," "Curatorial Care: The
Environment," and "Curatorial Care: Wooden Objects."
Inquiries should be addressed to the Media Division,
AASLH, 1400 Eighth Ave. South, Nashville, Tn. 37203.

**

The Newberry Library and the Chicago Historical
Society announced a series of workshops in community
history that will run through the next academic year.
Each session will consist of six days of study and a
range of topics including writing community history,
problems in analysis and interpretation of historical
documents and artifacts, and oral history and its uses
in community history. Tuition for the workshops is $75.
National Endowment for the Humanities Funds will be
available for travel and lodging for those from outside
the Chicago area. Information and application forms are
available from: Workshops in Community History, The
Newberry Library, 60 West Walton St., Chicago, Ill.
60610.

**

The National Endowment for the Arts announces
the Work Experience Internship Programs for 1978. The
thirteen-week programs are designed to acquaint partici-
pants with the policies, procedures, and operations of
NEA and to give them an overview of arts activities in
this country. Activities are planned to provide a de-
tailed knowledge of the programs of NEA, including
policy development, grant-making procedures, and admin-
istration. Internships will be awarded on a competitive
basis. Grants will include a stipend of $2,320 plus
travel. Requests for application forms should be ad-
dressed in writing to: Intern Program Administrator,
Mail Stop 557, National Endowment for the Arts, Washing-
ton, D.C. 20506.
A scholarship to encourage studies related to historic preservation will be given for the first time this year by the Georgia Trust for Historic Preservation. The scholarship is for the purpose of study in a college or university in the State of Georgia and is open to both graduate and undergraduate students majoring in historic preservation or such related fields as archaeology, architecture, art history, cultural history, landscape architecture and planning. Information about the scholarship and donations to make the fund permanent may be obtained or sent to Scholarship Committee, Georgia Trust for Historic Preservation, 9 Baltimore Place, N.W., Atlanta, Ga. 30308.

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), a 1973 law aimed at creating public service jobs for the unemployed can provide important support to local institutions—including archives and libraries. The funds are administered through cities, counties, and/or regional government bodies. Check with local governments for information.

Beginning with the winter issue, the quarterly Newsletter of the Society of Georgia Archivists will carry announcements of job vacancies and advertisements asking for volunteers. Send your notices to Newsletter Editor, Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Ga. 30303.
The Copyright Office is pleased to announce issuance of Circular 38c containing the complete text of four international copyright conventions to which the United States is a party: Buenos Aires Convention of 1910; Convention for the Protection of Producers of Phonograms Against Unauthorized Duplication of Their Phonographs, Geneva, 1971; Universal Copyright Convention, Geneva, 1952; University Copyright Convention, Paris, 1971. Copies of the new 35 page booklet may be obtained free of charge by writing the Copyright Office, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20559.

Microfilm copies of the Copyright Office Catalog of Copyright Entries, first series, originally published under the title of Catalogue of Title Entries, from July 1, 1891, through June 28, 1906, numbers 1-782, are now available. The sale price of the complete set of 21 reels of 35mm positive microfilm is $230. Orders for and inquiries concerning the microfilm copies should be addressed and remittances made payable to the Chief, Photoduplication Services, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20540, Attention: Dept. C.

A series of leaflets devoted to the conservation of books, manuscripts, prints and drawings, and other library and archival materials has been prepared by the Office of the Assistant Director for Preservation, Administrative Department, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C. 20540, in response to the many requests received each year for information on these topics. Leaflets available: (1) Selected References in the Literature of Conservation; (2) Environmental Protection of Books and Related Materials; (3) Preserving Leather Bookbindings; and (4) Marking Manuscripts. Order from the Assistant Director for Preservation.

Transcribing and Editing Oral History by Willa Baum is the newest publication of the American
Association for State and Local History. The oral history book provides instructions for keeping records, transcribing, auditing, editing, indexing, completing final copies, and offers practical examples in twelve chapters. Includes a bibliography and a 33 1/3 RPM record of one of the sample transcripts. $6.76 (128 pages) from AASLH, 1400 Eighth Ave. S., Nashville, Tn. 37203.

The Michigan Archival Association has published three papers from its spring 1975 meeting. Records Appraisal contains "The Appraisal of Public Records" by David J. Johnson; "Uses of History and Theory in the Appraisal of Business Records" by Francis X. Blouin, Jr.; and "Appraisal of Manuscripts" by Joseph F. Oldenburg. Available from the Michigan Archival Association for $2.00. Write Tom Elliott, P. O. Box 568, Notre Dame, Ind. 46556.

The Index to volumes 36-53 of the Florida Historical Quarterly has been published and is available from the Florida Historical Society, University of South Florida, Library, Tampa 33620. $12.50.

The May, 1977, issue of Historical Foundation News (Vol. 33, No. 2) is an excellent reference aid. It concerns the writing of wills for people who wish to make donations of their papers to archives and historical societies. It gives sample paragraphs for inclusion in such wills. Write for form No. 3579 from the Historical Foundation of the Presbyterian Reformed Churches, Montreat, N.C. 28757.

Records Retention and Disposition Schedules, a survey report which includes forms now in use in various state archival and records management programs, has been published by the Society of American Archivists. The report, a project of the Society's State and Local Records Committee, provides selected samples of current forms which a subcommittee determined to be exemplary. J. D. Porter, State Archivist of Oregon, chairs the committee. Julian Mims, Assistant Director for Local Records of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, chaired the subcommittee which compiled the report. ($2.00 members, $4.00 nonmembers) Available from SAA, Box 8198, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Chicago, Ill. 60680.
The Historical Office of the Department of State has recently published a summary of the policies and practices of over one hundred countries concerning access to unpublished diplomatic records. An analysis of the compilation indicates that current United States regulations which mandate the declassification and opening of almost all policy records of the Department of State when they are thirty years old are among the most liberal in the world. Copies of the summary compiled by Arthur G. Kogan can be ordered from David F. Trask, Historian, Department of State, Washington, D.C. 20520.

A recent article in *Association Management* encourages associations to preserve their historical materials and to seek the assistance of qualified archivists. The journal is the publication of the American Society of Association Executives. Written by Faye Gamel of the Southern Labor Archives, Georgia State University, Atlanta, reprints are available from SAA headquarters, Box 8198, University of Illinois, Chicago 60680.

In early 1978, formerly out-of-print issues of *GEORGIA ARCHIVE* will be available. The Society of Georgia Archivists will make available microfilm copies of Volumes 1-5 (1972-1977). Price lists will be sent on request. Order from Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Ga. 30303.

*Historical Markers: A Bibliography* by Raymond F. Pisney is a first! It includes over 2,500 citations of works concerning historical markers and is indexed. Cost: $12.00. Order from McClure Press, Box 936, Verona, Va. 24482.

Available in November will be *A History of Georgia* from the University of Georgia Press. Six historians from the University's Department of History have collaborated to write this new history of Georgia covering the earliest discoveries by the Spanish to the election of President Carter. Foreword by President Carter. ($12.50)

Also available from the University of Georgia Press, Athens 30602, is their Fall, 1977, catalog with listings of the newest publications about Georgia and the South. (Free)
North West Georgia Historical and Genealogical Society Quarterly for July, 1977 (Vol. 9, no. 3) is a complete issue concerning the Cherokee Indians in northwest Georgia. Historical as well as genealogical information. Excellent. $2.00 from the Society, P. O. Box 2484, Rome, Ga. 30161.

The Russell Amendment is the new, official newsletter of the Richard B. Russell Memorial Library in Athens, and Vol. 1, No. 1, arrived in July. Its purpose is to keep researchers and friends abreast of developments in the Library. Write: Richard B. Russell Memorial Library, the University of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30602.
RECENT ACCESSIONS AND OPENINGS OF GEORGIA RESOURCES

GEORGIA REPOSITORIES

Atlanta

Atlanta Historical Society

ATLANTA TRANSIT COMPANY Records: Addition; Street railway charters and franchises, 1891-1919; memoranda of agreements with labor unions, 1927-1950; fare adjustment and rate cases, 1937-1938, 1947; engineering department annual report, 1935; 1 cu. ft.


GEORGIA POWER COMPANY Collection: Includes Railway Department annual reports, 1925-1937, and franchise ordinances, 1950; ½ cu. ft.

JOHN ISHAM Papers: Include journals describing daily activities and weather, with synopses of sermons preached at Central Presbyterian Church, Atlanta, 1878-1893, and a school enrollment book, 1855-1864; 1 cu. ft.
JOSEPH JACOBS Papers: Formulary notebooks used by Jacobs Drug Co., early 1900s; original bottle labels; price lists; articles by Jacobs; 3 copies of Jacobs' Monthly Magazine, 1915-1918; .5 cu. ft.

MILLS B. LANE, Jr., Collection: Includes files concerning reconstruction of Tullie Smith House, Atlanta, and Barrington Hall, Roswell, and information on Roswell history; .2 cu. ft.

MARGARET L. MacDOUGALL Papers, 1926-1968: Include scrapbooks and files relating to her career as chairman of the Fulton County Planning Commission, administrator of the Georgia Works Progress Administration, and assistant administrator of the national Works Progress Administration; also, material pertaining to the Georgia League of Women Voters and to her work with the Atlanta City Executive Committee; 1 cu. ft.


ROBERT SHAW Collection: Letters, 1864-1865, of Union soldier George Lawson to Mary Ann Lawson; include descriptions of the Atlanta Campaign; 29 items (.5 cu. ft.).

SAINT PHILIP'S CATHEDRAL Records: Parish minutes, 1847-1959 (include vestry and chapter minutes); parish registers, 1854-1902; services record books, 1933-1957; financial records, 1886-1956; architectural drawings; 36 cu. ft.

LENOX T. THORNTON Collection: Photograph albums, "Street Car Barns Remaining in Atlanta, Ga., 1976" and "Georgia Counties: A Fact Book," compiled by the donor; .5 cu. ft.

W. O. TUGGLES Papers: Georgia state senator, 1868, and lawyer for Creek Indians; manuscripts entitled "Let Us Have Peace," about Reconstruction, 35 pp.; "Local Laws Affecting Troup County," 1869, 13 pp.; "Indian War of 1836," Troup County in the Seminole War, 5 pp.; 2-page copy of "Deed to the Lot on Which LaGrange Stands"; 55 leaves.

JOSEPH F. BURKE Papers, 1845-1929: Mainly business and legal papers relating to property of Mrs. Rufus E. Bullock and papers relating to D. G. Cotting, including seven letters of Alexander Stephens; 1 ms. box.

MORGAN CALLAWAY Papers, 1851-1865: Correspondence between the Reverend Morgan Callaway (1831-1899) and his wife, Leila, of Cuthbert, Ga., many of them Civil War letters; 75 items.

WILLIAM RAGSDALE CANNON, BP., Collection, ca. 1960-1975: Mainly clippings, speeches, and writings; 1 ms. box.

JOHN OWEN SMITH, BP., Papers, ca. 1960-1975: Mainly correspondence and subject files relating to the Methodist Church and particularly to the North Georgia Conference, which Smith served as bishop; 4 cartons.

Georgia Department of Archives and History
Vanishing Georgia Heritage Photography Project

ELBERT, JASPER, AND MORGAN COUNTIES: Photographs having historical or social significance; ca. 600 items [continuing project; will include other Georgia counties].

Manuscript Section

BAPTIST CHURCH OF CHRIST UNION (Morgan Co., Ga.) Minutes, 1838-1858: Include list of members and baptisms; 1 vol. [to be microfilmed].
BETHELHEM PRIMITIVE BAPTIST CHURCH (Cobb Co., Ga.) Minutes, 1877-1905: Include minutes, constitution, committee reports, lists of new members; 1 vol. [to be microfilmed].

CHEROKEE COUNTY (Ga.) Board of Education, Minutes, 1974-1976; 1 vol. [to be microfilmed].

FALLING CREEK BAPTIST CHURCH (Elbert Co., Ga.) Minutes, 1833-1947: Include minutes, reports on church offerings, records of church conferences, rules of decorum, church roll; 4 vols. [to be microfilmed].

FIRST PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH (Fulton Co., Ga.) Minutes, 1858-1977: Include minutes, annual reports, financial reports, and records of new members, baptisms, congregational meetings, and church officers; 35 vols. [to be microfilmed].

GREENE COUNTY (Ga.) Board of Education, Minutes, 1950-1962: Include minutes, financial statements, lists of teachers, records of salaries, attendance reports; 1 vol. [to be microfilmed].

PAVO PRIMITIVE BAPTIST CHURCH (Thomas Co., Ga.) Minutes, 1898-1960: Include minutes, constitution, annual reports, financial reports, obituaries, and lists of new members, officers, and baptisms; 1 vol. [to be microfilmed].

Governmental Records Office

Note: The Department is open 8:00-4:30 M-F and 9:30-3:30 Sat. For reference service on these records, please call 656-2351.

COMPTROLLER GENERAL: Insurance Dept., Insurance companies' annual statements, all companies licensed in Georgia, 1973-1974 life and fraternals; 1974 fire and casualty; 93 cu. ft.

COURT OF APPEALS: Case files #48284-50747, 1973, 271 cu. ft.


DEPT. OF HUMAN RESOURCES: Comprehensive Health Planning Section, Director's subject files, various dates, 16 cu. ft.; Commissioner's Office, Commissioner's general subject files, 1972-1975, 12 cu. ft.; Div. of Administration, Director's subject files, 1971-1972, 2 cu. ft.; Div. of Physical Health, Child Health Unit,

DEPT. OF LAW: Attorney General, Opinions correspondence files, 1968, 1969, 1972, 8 cu. ft. [some restrictions].


DEPT. OF PUBLIC SAFETY: Commissioner's Office, Commissioner's and deputy commissioner's subject files, 1973, 10 cu. ft. [some restrictions].


GEORGIA GENERAL ASSEMBLY: Senate Judiciary Committee, Hearing material, 1976 session, .25 cu. ft. [some restrictions].

GEORGIA HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES: Speaker's Office, Speaker George L. Smith II's subject files, 1959-1969, 8 cu. ft. [some restrictions].


REVENUE DEPT.: Property Tax Unit, County property tax digest, 1974, 126 cu. ft.


Southern Labor Archives
Georgia State University

COMMUNICATIONS WORKERS OF AMERICA, LOCAL 3290 (Atlanta), Records, 1951-1966: Primarily correspondence, also minutes, financial reports, legal documents, and arbitration case material on attempt, 1969, to disaffiliate from CWA and contest, 1962, with Brotherhood of Teamsters over bargaining rights of Western Electric Co. employees; 3+ lin. ft.

MEATCUTTERS LOCAL 525 (Asheville, N.C.) Records, 1957-1975: Jurisdiction includes Ga., Va., N.C., S.C.; generated by Local 525 officers and Asheville Area Industrial Council president; correspondence, financial reports, minutes, newscuttings, National Labor Relations Board case materials, contracts; provide especially complete documentation on organizing campaigns at Holly Farms and Rose Hill Poultry Corps.; 7 lin. ft.

UNITED STEELWORKERS OF AMERICA, DISTRICT 35, Records, 1940-1973: Addition; include correspondence (especially between Dist. 35 and office of Steelworkers president David McDonald), financial statements, legal documents (including extensive collection of contracts from Tenn., Va., Atlanta), printed items; reveal relationships with companies whose employees were organized by the Steelworkers, particularly Atlantic Steel, Grinnell Corp., Jones & Laughlin, Link-Belt Corp., National Lead, Southern Cross); 5 lin. ft. [original collection described in Georgia Archive, Winter 1977].

Carrollton
Archives
West Georgia College

NEWT GINGRICH Campaign Material, 1973-1976: Candidate (unsuccessful) for U.S. Senate; press releases, speeches, other material; 1,076 items, 2 vols.

W. BENJAMIN KENNEDY Papers, 1969-1974: West Georgia College professor; manuscript, notes, research material, map, microfilm relating to published book, Muskets, Cannon Balls, and Bombs; 1,405 items.

WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE: Library Committee, Minutes and special reports on library activities, 1957-1973; 92 items.

OUT-OF-STATE REPOSITORIES

North Carolina

Southern Historical Collection
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill

JACKSON MATTHEWS Papers, 1945-1975: University of North Carolina professor, ed. Collected Works of Paul Valery and other books, native of Griffin, Ga.; correspondence, writings, research materials; ca. 15,000 items + 18 audio tapes and discs.

HUBERT S. ROBINSON Papers, 1929-1969: Civic and political leader, first Black city alderman of Chapel Hill, N.C.; pocket diaries, scrapbooks, correspondence; include material on West Point, Ga., 1912-1932; 39 vols.
Response to Gregory A. Stiverson's Article:  
"The Archivist as Activist: A Conservative View"

Although I am a newcomer to the field of archives, I am not unfamiliar with the historian's craft. Thus, my comments about Mr. Stiverson's article are written with Clio's bias. Let me begin by saying that the issue of the archivist as arbiter of culture, past and present, is not a simple one, as he so well explains. No one person can embrace the breadth of knowledge or resources to make a total value judgment on the future use of documents or artifacts available for accessioning. However, I do feel that the issue is not one of being conservative or activist so much as it is a matter of good judgment derived from one's training--be it in history, art, or science. Likewise, the ability to know one's limitations in a given area of specialization appears to be a crucial factor in the decision-making process.

Mr. Stiverson's attack on historians does not rest well with one who has viewed archives from both sides of the search room. His conjecture that archivists are usually those historians who do not care to publish is a blind disavowal of the current job market. If anything has emerged from the job crisis imposed on humanists, and especially historians, it is the fact that in seeking alternatives to academe, historians have come to archives as a natural extension of their intellectual curiosity and training. That so many historians are working as professional archivists is testimony to the concern the historical profession demonstrates for the preservation of past records. Likewise, the input of trained scholars to the archives provides another dimension to the goals of an institution and to the potential uses for materials processed and stored.
Finally, the historian, rather than being the archivist's nemesis, can serve as a liaison with both the academic community and the public, as well as with such other professional institutions concerned with history as museums, historical societies, and educational enrichment programs. The historian-archivist can be viewed as the best public relations officer an archive can have.

If archivists are to define their profession, must they do so in terms of the patrons who use the archives most? Berating the narrow perspective of historical research, degrading the small professional community the historian serves is to undermine the purpose of many archival collections which have become famous through their connection with ongoing historical research. After all, genealogists do not an archive make.

Sincerely,

Johanna S. R. Mendelson
Coming in November
Georgia Archive, Vol. 5 [1977], No. 2, Art. 13

A History of Georgia
Kenneth Coleman, General Editor
Numan V. Bartley, F. N. Boney, William F. Holmes,
Phinizy Spalding, and Charles E. Wynes
Foreword by President Jimmy Carter

A generation has passed since the writing of the last general history of Georgia. Many changes have occurred in the state since then, and scholars have gained many new insights into the state's past. Six historians from the University of Georgia's Department of History have collaborated to write a history that not only takes into account modern Georgia but also offers a fresh perspective on Georgia's past. From the earliest discoveries by the Spanish to the election of President Carter, they provide a broad coverage of all aspects of Georgia's history—political, economic, social, cultural, and military—for all Georgians—red, white, and black.

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, CHICAGO CIRCLE
LIBRARY, ROOM 311
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS 60680

Sustaining membership includes two copies of all Society publications during year of membership.
INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Editorial Policy

1. Members of the Society of Georgia Archivists, and others with professional interest in the aims of the Society, are invited to submit manuscripts for consideration and to suggest areas of concern or subjects which they feel should be included in forthcoming issues of GEORGIA ARCHIVE.

2. Manuscripts received from contributors are submitted to an editorial board. Editors are asked to appraise manuscripts in terms of appropriateness, pertinence, innovativeness, scholarly worth, and clarity of writing.

3. Only manuscripts not previously published will be accepted, and authors must agree not to publish elsewhere, without explicitly written permission, a paper submitted to and accepted by GEORGIA ARCHIVE.

4. Three copies of GEORGIA ARCHIVE will be provided to the author without charge.

5. Letters to the Editor which include pertinent and constructive comments or criticism of articles or reviews recently published in GEORGIA ARCHIVE are welcome. Ordinarily, such letters should not exceed 300 words.

6. Brief contributions for the special sections of GEORGIA ARCHIVE--News Notes and Accessions--may be addressed to the editors of those sections or to Box 261, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Ga. 30303.

Manuscript Requirements

1. Manuscripts should be submitted in double-spaced typescript throughout--including footnotes at the end of the text--on white bond paper 8 1/2 x 11 inches in size. Margins should be about 1 1/2 inches all around. All pages should be numbered, including the title page. The author's name and address should appear only on the title page, which should be separate from the main text of the manuscript.

2. Each manuscript should be submitted in two copies, the original typescript and one carbon copy or durable photocopy.

3. The title of the paper should be concise, accurate, and distinctive rather than merely descriptive.

4. References and footnotes should conform to accepted scholarly standards. Ordinarily, GEORGIA ARCHIVE uses footnote format illustrated in the University of Chicago Manual of Style, 12th edition.


6. Usage of terms which have special meanings for archivists, manuscripts curators, and records managers should conform to the definitions in "A Basic Glossary for Archivists, Manuscript Curators, and Records Managers," American Archivist 37, no. 3 (July 1974). Copies of this glossary are available for $2.00 each from the Executive Director, SAA, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle, Box 8198, Chicago, Ill. 60680.