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DAVID GRACY AWARD

The executive board of the Society of Georgia Archivists has established the David Gracy Award—a $50 prize to be presented annually to the author of the best article in Provenance. Named after David B. Gracy, founder and first editor of Georgia Archive (the precursor of Provenance), the award will begin in 1990 with volume VIII. Judges will be the members of Provenance’s editorial board. An anonymous donor has agreed to match funds put up by the society to a maximum of $250 in order to endow the award.
Rookie university archivists are ill-prepared for the responsibilities entailed in the management of an academic archives. First, there is the unique institutional setting. The unusual and varied systems of university governance make strict adherence to the paradigms for archival arrangement and description impractical at times. Second, and more vexing, is the fact that few college and university archivists are intellectually prepared. Unless the archivist is a devoted alumnus, he or she must first study the institution’s history, mythology, and cultural traditions. But what of the larger academic world? Unfortunately, most archivists know little about the development of American higher education even when they have spent years in college studying for a career in history.

A review of a reading list for any graduate level class on the literature of American history will indicate why this is so. If the archivist is lucky he will find one, maybe even two, titles related to education. Rarer still is the citation on higher education. Obviously, history professors consider academia a minor cultural force. But if there is a shortage of historians with an interest in things academic, there is no shortage of academic archives. It is somewhat ironic, given the dearth of written history related to
American higher education, that the largest institutional section of the Society of American Archivists should be the College & University (C & U) section.

Small as it may be, there is a recognizable body of work devoted to the history of higher education and C & U archivists need to be acquainted with its content. The fact that most of this history has been written in the past twenty years makes the need even greater. It might be overstating the case to suggest that academia has become a "hot" research topic, but the recent outburst of scholarly monographs and articles on a wide variety of academically related topics indicates something more than a passing intellectual fad.

This essay is a review of the themes and issues in the historical literature on higher education published since 1975. It is the culmination of several years of "catchup" study by the author, and it is offered to other C & U archivists who came to the profession with inadequate preparation in education history. Only monographs based (to some degree at least) on research in C & U archives or on the papers of leading academic figures are cited.

This study is also offered as an antidote to all the appraisal theories and documentation strategies which, taken collectively, have managed to complicate and mystify one of the simplest, although most stressful, tasks in the archival profession. It is not difficult to understand why archivists hesitate and fret over records appraisal; negative appraisal decisions are final and positive decisions that may burden a repository with records of marginal value. Archivists want to believe there is a formula that will validate the decisions they render. Yet, there is none.

In the final analysis, it is the user and not the archivist, who determines the value of a record. In so far as records of scholarly value are concerned it is the professional historian who will have the last say. However, the degree to which records appraisal (as
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it is described in the professional literature) has become disjoined from any discussion of current historical research is dismaying. Moreover, records appraisal cannot be performed without regard to the history that surrounds the records. Information in a document can have meaning to the appraiser only when the appraiser has a knowledge of issues, people, and events that shaped that document's creation. Therefore, archivists can inform and substantiate their appraisal decisions with an adequate knowledge of the historical context in which the records were created and the historiographic context in which similar records were used, and that is the best they can do.

Of course, historians represent only a small fraction of a university archives's patronage. But those with an institutional claim to the archives have different records needs than the scholarly community. The records needed to support the institution's legal and fiscal responsibilities or to assist the university's public relations and endowment campaigns may or may not be of interest to an historian. This does not mean that archivists should spend inordinate amounts of time analyzing the needs of professional historians. Rather, archivists should, as Roy Turnbaugh suggests, "listen to the still, small, voice of
common sense" when appraising records, better still if the voice that speaks is an informed one.

In the literature on higher education, three themes have dominated. One theme concerns the impact of science and the scientific method on the humanistic professions. In Advocacy and Objectivity, published in 1975, Mary Furner traces the schism that emerged in the nineteenth century between amateur and professional social scientists and the demise of social advocacy within the academic community. Advocacy and Objectivity set the tone for much of the subsequent literature on this theme; the dichotomy between professional "objective" scholars and the biased, amateur, intellectuals tainted by metaphysics or political ideology is a characterization that appears frequently in later works. Furner's work on the social sciences has been supplemented by a number of monographs

1 Roy C. Turnbaugh, "Appraising Public Records in an Ahistorical Culture," American Archivist 53 (Fall 1990): 564. Recent articles in the American Archivist indicate dissatisfaction with appraisal theory. See, for example, Terry Abraham's "Collection Policy or Documentation Strategy: Theory and Practice," American Archivist 54 (Winter 1991): 44-52. It is still too early to discern a consensus on this issue. John Roberts argues, as I do, that we should be better historians. ("Archival Theory: Myth or Banality" American Archivist 53 [Winter 1990]: 112.) Turnbaugh, on the other hand, stresses the archivist's relationship to the parent institution rather than the needs of specific user groups. A point of agreement among the antitheorists is that the literature on appraisal confuses more than it instructs.

focused on specific disciplines including law, philosophy, political science, sociology, and literary study.³

The second theme pertains to the emergence of the research university in the era of corporate capitalism. Historians who write on the period of the Gilded Age often contend that the rapid growth of professional schools is explained by capitalism’s need for an expanded middle class of college educated technicians and managers. *The Culture of Professionalism*, by Burton Bledstein, was the first to explore this theme in depth and was one of the first of many works on the culture of the new middle class.⁴

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The first theme emphasizes research and scholarship; the second theme looks at the rationale for the modern university’s evolvement including changes in the curriculum. The third theme centers on the modern university’s service mission and the relationship of faculty to the world outside the college gates. The service mission originated in the wave of educational reform that propelled the university movement of the late 1800s. Many of the new professional scholars were motivated by the belief that learned men and women could effect social change, and a few were involved in social movements of the time. However, this populist spirit was curbed by the need to placate conservative patrons of higher education as well as by demands within the professions for objectivity. Eventually, contracted research with state and corporate agencies and extension education became the means by which the university fulfilled its service mission.5

The thematic breadth of the recent literature is more than matched by its topical diversity. Whereas the earlier literature consisted of institutional histories and general treatises on higher education’s evolution, contemporary historians have deconstructed the academy into an array of issues and topics.

5 The best and most complete expression of this theme can be found in Carol S. Gruber, Mars and Minerva: World War I and the Uses of Higher Learning in America (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University, 1975). Furner also deals extensively with this theme. Their works and the volume by Bledstein were published within a year of each other. These three titles would be included in any core reading list on the history of higher education as would Laurence R. Veysey’s The Emergence of the American University (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965) and Frederick Rudolph’s The American College and University: A History (New York: Knopf, 1962) from the earlier literature.
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Today, there are works on gender issues, on academic freedom (or the lack thereof), on the ideological motivations of faculty, on admissions policies and discrimination, on student political movements, and, finally, on student life in general.

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7 Ellen W. Schrecker, *No Ivory Tower: McCarthyism & the Universities* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989). See also Gruber for a good discussion of how the concept of academic freedom was shaped at the turn of the century.

8 David M. Oshinsky, Richard P. McCormick, and Daniel Horn, *The Case of the Nazi Professor* (New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1988); Robin W. Winks, *Cloak & Gown: Scholars in the Secret War, 1939-1961* (New York: Morrow, 1987); Peter Novick, *That Noble Dream: The "Objectivity Question" and the American Historical Profession* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1988); Peter J. Kuznick, *Beyond the Laboratory: Scientists as Political Activists in 1930s America* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1987). The notion that university professors are, or ever were, free of political or social bias has been finally laid to rest.


One topic is conspicuous by its absence from the literature. While works on extracurricular activities abound, works related to curriculum are sparse in number. One exception is general education which, as one historian notes, becomes a matter of great concern among educationalists about "every twenty years or so." In a broad sense, the education of young adults and their final intellectual preparation for adulthood has aroused some interest, but there has been little discussion on the actual content of college curriculum.

Perhaps the most significant historiographic development of the last fifteen years has been the transformation and growth of cultural history. So far, the impact of cultural history on the study of higher education has been limited, but in other subject areas cultural interpretations have significantly influenced the historical consensus.

Of course, cultural history is not new. For years, though, it was confined to the study of Western Civilization's artistic, intellectual, and literary product. In the late 1960s, cultural

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12 Page Smith, *Killing the Spirit* (New York: Viking, 1990): 141. Wechlser does an excellent job of connecting the general education movement of the 1920s to the admission of non-WASP students. See also Graff for his observations on an earlier "canon war." It should be noted that, once again, general education has become a major controversy. The current interest in the literary canon and the content of general education may provide an incentive to reexamine previous attempts to improve undergraduate education.
historians extended their research into the forms of leisure, art, and domestic life identified with the middle and lower classes. This trend coincided with the growing influence of the Annales School and the rise of the new social history and, in time, the distinction between social and cultural history eroded. Gradually cultural historians began to advance hypotheses in fields such as labor and business history, ethnic and immigration history, and even diplomatic history.

As cultural historians expanded their enquiries into all forms of non-intuitive behavior, including the everyday rituals of the workplace and home, they also began to explore a wider range of documentary sources. Increasingly, cultural historians are identified as much by the sources they use as by the subjects of their research. A variety of often unconventional sources are utilized. Visual and textual depictions of social ritual and pageantry are important sources for the cultural historian. Thomas Schlereth, a pioneer in the field of material history, refers to himself as "a cultural historian increasingly intrigued with the historicity of things."¹³ Any of the myriad products of a culture, such as buildings, furniture, costume, art, or machinery might be studied by today's cultural historian.

A popular topic in North American cultural history is the embourgeoisement of the masses in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century. Cultural historians are intrigued with the expressions of middle class values and sentiments. Did the new middle class of managers and technicians embrace the culture of the old urban bourgeoisie, did they modify the cultural norms of their rural and artisan ancestors, or did they give rise to something new? As a training ground for many of the new

professionals, the modern college was a factor in shaping middle class ideology. Since then, college life has become a rite of passage for middle class youth. Thus, it is not surprising that historians have been drawn to the collegiate experience as a representation of American mainstream culture.\textsuperscript{14}

The term \textit{cultural text} is used as a generic label for the documentary sources employed by cultural historians. As the use and acceptance of cultural text grows, archivists should explore the possible effects that the new scholarship will have on records appraisal. The impact of cultural history on collecting strategies will vary from archives to archives; those that collect print materials and image records will give greater attention to this matter than those who do not. The effect on C & U archives should be substantial since they have traditionally been more liberal in their collecting, often playing the additional roles of institutional library and museum.

The impact of cultural history on all aspects of archives management needs to be assessed. At the University of Florida Archives greater attention has been given recently to its image collection in terms of what is collected and how finding aids are structured. More consideration has also been given to campus ephemera and realia, but the print collection has been neglected over the years. The University of Florida Archives is a repository for all university publications but is only minimally involved in

\textsuperscript{14} Helen Horowitz and Lynn Gordon have been the principal cultural interpreters of the American college. It is no coincidence that both have written on the experiences of women students. Studies of the "women's sphere" in a male-dominated world have relied heavily on cultural texts. Typical sources for both authors include student literary magazines, photographic and textual depictions of student activities, drama scripts written by students, yearbooks, and campus building plans.
their acquisition, appraisal, or cataloging. However, there is a growing awareness of the print collection’s research potential.

In many ways, the new cultural history is an extension of the now not-so-new social history, and the lines of demarcation between the two have diminished. As a means of documenting the history of people who do not leave an abundance of written record, social historians sought other forms of historical evidence. Quantitative analysis, such as the creation of biographical profiles for different social groups and occupations (prosopography), is another alternative to traditional methodology. However, research in the history of higher education has never relied on a mass of hard facts and statistics. Instead, the written history of higher learning is the history of ideas, movements, and youth.

The link between social and cultural history is evident in the recent interest in sports history. As institutions, professional and collegiate sports reveal much about racial and class relationships in America. As ritual, sports can explain much about mass psychology and the morality of different social classes. Sports history has had a popular following for many years, but scholarly interest in sports is relatively recent. The appearance of The Journal of Sports History in 1974 and its subsequent success demonstrated the subject’s credibility within academic circles. However, the monograph literature has been limited largely to professional sports and general works on sports; few titles related specifically to collegiate sports have appeared.\textsuperscript{15} To date, the

study of collegiate sports has centered on three topics: scandals, professionalism vs. amateurism, and racial integration. But, the college sports culture has been barely touched, and more titles and topics are surely forthcoming.

Southern universities figure prominently in collegiate sports history. In general, though, historians of higher education have not included southern institutions in their work. This is not unusual; historians who write on topics of national scope will often avoid discussion of the South because of the complications imposed by the issues slavery and racial segregation. As a consequence, separate subfields related to southern labor, southern politics, southern women, etc., have arisen. Oddly, however, the history of higher education has not produced an equivalent subfield.

There is a distinct chronological bias in the literature as well. Interest in colonial and early republican colleges has always been limited, but a number of journal articles and the occasional monograph for these time periods continue to be produced. Most of the literature has centered on the Gilded Age and the Progressive Era. Significant interest in the post-Progressive Era college has not been evident however—a surprising phenomenon considering the rapid growth of higher education that occurred after both world wars.

A plausible explanation for this bias is that we still await the denouement of trends that began during World War I. Enroll-

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ments skyrocket, administrative bureaucracies expand, and academic programs multiply, but the fundamental missions of the modern university, as well as the university's general governance, remain largely unchanged. Fortunately, the academic and administrative malaise of the past seventy years has been accompanied by periods of student activism, changes in the class, gender, and ethnic composition of the student bodies, the growth of faculty unions, and the end of in loco parentis. The response of universities to social transformations in the student and faculty bodies may prove to be the most valuable collecting areas of more recent years.

Also missing from the literature is an explanation for the proliferation of state-supported schools in the twentieth century. The emergence of the research university may have been a response to the needs of industrial and financial capital, but it does not explain why the United States is the only industrialized nation that requires such a high proportion of its population to attend college.

Today, higher education is confronted with an existential crisis. Critics on the political right, left, center, and from within and without academia, have launched a general assault on the institutions of higher learning, particularly directed at large, research universities. Charges that the curriculum has been debased through the introduction of works written from a multicultural perspective, that multiculturalism also threatens America's cultural and historical identity, and that liberal universities have shut out conservative viewpoints in order to maintain "political correctness." The most prominent spokesmen have been Allan
watered down coincide with complaints that universities expend far too much on research. Revelations of academic fraud and allegations that major universities misuse federal grants further erode the ivory tower image. Yet, the crisis in higher learning parallels crises in other institutions. The erosion of confidence in government, the media, the church, and the school is perhaps a prelude to a new era of social and pedagogical reform. If so, it will certainly motivate historians to investigate more closely the recent history of higher education.

Neither the prospects of future research nor the prodigious output of monographs on higher education in recent years indicate a need to increase records acquisition. On the contrary, one of the striking characteristics of the literature is the virtual absence of administrative documentation below the level of the president’s office. What can be gleaned from a thorough reading

David Bloom, The Closing of the American Mind (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1987); Roger Kimball, Tenured Radicals: How Politics Has Corrupted Our Higher Education (New York: Harper & Row, 1990); and Dinesh D’Souza, Illiberal Education: The Politics of Race and Sex on Campus (New York: Free Press, 1991). But, there are critics of other political persuasions as well. The left argues that academic research is often dictated by the needs (and money) of business and government, is directed to a narrow professional audience, and is unintelligible to the larger public. Russell Jacoby (The Last Intellectuals: American Culture in the Age of Academe [New York: Basic Books, 1987]) suggests that the pursuit of academic careers has robbed America of an entire generation of socially engaged left intellectuals. Leftists may dominate a number of college departments, as Kimball and D’Souza maintain, but their impact on American culture will be minimal according to Jacoby. Page Smith’s Killing the Spirit attacks the publish or perish syndrome and the banality of today’s academic publications. Smith makes an impassioned plea for a return to quality education and an end to academic pedantry.
of the literature are the topics that are and are not being researched and, occasionally, new approaches to research in archives.

The continued interest in the histories of the disciplines is perhaps the clearest example. Each year several new titles are added to an already extensive list. The resurgence of intellectual history has been a factor in this development, but much of this literature has been the work of individuals in the disciplines rather than professional historians. This area of study will grow as the disciplines continue to evaluate their pasts.

The interest in student culture is also indicative of current research. However, the documentation of student life in C & U archives has often been unimaginatively traditional. Consequently, archivists often lament that students leave no substantive record of their time at college. But, as the writings of cultural historians Lynn Gordon and Helen Horowitz demonstrate, students leave abundant evidence of their campus life in the form of bad literary prose, dramatic improvisation, student election propaganda, football programs, and other ephemera.

The ideology of education will always be an important part of the literature. However, documenting the educational philosophy of the modern academic officer may not be as easy as it once was. The university presidents of the late nineteenth century publicly and privately expressed their concerns, visions, and prejudices. The records of today’s presidents tell much about their daily pursuit of endowments and their relationship to the university’s governing bodies. However, how do they feel about the current state of academia beyond its budgetary problems? How do they respond to the recent critiques leveled at higher education? It is not altogether clear that the files of presidents, provosts, and deans contain a serious dialogue on the ideology of higher learning.
Records appraisal is a very subjective process. The mind is guided through the process by what archivists know of the institutions they serve and by a knowledge of how records are utilized by different user groups. Historians are one such group. This essay should be viewed as a map of the intellectual terrain that constitutes the written history of higher learning in America. Its purpose is to guide C & U archivists who wish to explore the culture of academia in greater detail.

Carl Van Ness is assistant university archivist at the University of Florida, Gainesville. This article is adapted from a bibliography prepared for a College and University Archives Section discussion group at the 1990 annual meeting of the Society of American Archivists, Seattle, and a paper given at the 1991 SAA annual meeting in Philadelphia.
Exploring the New South Agenda in the Records of Southern Colleges and Universities

Sara J. Harwell

On 21 December 1886, Southern editor Henry W. Grady gave a speech at New York's Delmonico's Restaurant in which he called for the South to lift itself out of its slump of poverty, backwardness, and defeatism, and make itself over into a New South. In this speech, soon to be known as the New South speech, Grady stated: "The Old South rested everything on slavery and agriculture, unconscious that these could neither give nor maintain healthy growth. The new South presents a perfect democracy, the oligarchs leading in the popular movement—a social system compact and closely knitted, less splendid on the surface, but stronger at the core—a hundred farms for every plantation, fifty homes for every palace—and a diversified industry that meets the complex needs of this complex age."1 The two main goals of the New South agenda, industrialization and

1 For sources used in this essay, please see the bibliographic note at the end.

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agricultural diversification, were thus set forth in this ringing manner.

The New South, which prevailed roughly from the end of Reconstruction until the eve of the First World War, represented an attempt to make the region over in the image of its bustling neighbors to the North, with full-scale industrialization and diversified agriculture to replace centuries-old reliance on King Cotton. The rationale was that the Confederacy had lost the war because of too much dependence on cotton, so the solution was to follow the North's example and industrialize. Corollaries to this central belief were that a more efficient agricultural system would be a foundation for economic growth; that more widespread education, especially vocational training, would promote material success; and that sectional peace and racial harmony would provide a stable environment for economic growth.

How were Southern colleges and universities to respond to this challenge? What issues of class or race were involved in deciding who would receive vocational training? How would Southern colleges and universities train the new business class? What would be the role of the black race in the new order? These questions, and others like them, can be answered by turning to the records of Southern academic institutions. In taking the New South as an example, or case study, of the broader ideas which can be found in the records of academic institutions, several important themes emerge which help to shed light on the total picture of what the New South meant and how it transformed Southern society in the late nineteenth century. Involved are issues of academic freedom, social mobility, race, gender, and the democratization of the educational process, among others.

The education scene in the South at the close of the Civil War was indeed a bleak one. For most of the last half of the nineteenth century at least one-fourth of all Southerners were
illiterate. Public schools were open only three to four months a year, and teachers were ill prepared and underpaid. There were several private preparatory academies in the region, but too few public schools to fill the gap between the inadequate primary schools and the colleges and universities. And many of the colleges and universities held their distinction in name only.

The Southern intelligentsia of the period between Reconstruction and the First World War were the most actively critical native sons in the South's history. The Southern education movement was the part of the New South with which intellectuals most concerned themselves, although economic advancement directed much of the underlying goal in improving Southern education. Considering the major New South themes in the context of higher education, most colleges and universities were not directly concerned with the first New South goal of industrialization, although the educational leaders of the time felt that improving education would raise economic levels and better prepare men for the new industrial order. As University of South Carolina president Samuel Chiles Mitchell pointed out, raising the general income through better education was the key to progress. More of the Southern colleges and universities were concerned with the second major New South goal, agricultural diversification, primarily because it seemed the more immediate need. The major black educational institutions, notably Tuskegee and Hampton Institutes, were more directly responsive to the industrial age, with their emphasis on training skilled workers through vocational education.

Educators proclaimed that intellectual freedom was a necessity, not a luxury, and that building schools would create a climate to foster such freedom. To this generation of Southern intellectuals, education promised the moral regeneration of the South. James H. Kirkland, chancellor of Vanderbilt University, identified the school "in its parental capacity" with the state itself,
the citadel of virtue and democracy. John C. Kilgo, president of Trinity College, soon to be renamed Duke University, was one of the region's foremost defenders of intellectual freedom and objective research. He had no illusions about what he was up against in convincing the South to make drastic changes in its educational system. To his theologically conservative friends, who in his view wished to limit the search for the truth in the church colleges (of which Trinity was one), Kilgo replied: "In every moment of the world's notable advances the most stubborn resistance has been a creed. Science has had to halt at altars and thrones, philosophy has stood fettered at ecclesiastical tribunals, civic progress has been impeded by traditional teaching, and truth has made its way on the earth by hard contentions and tedious advances. It is a horrible treason against the throne of God and the mission of the Holy Ghost to set any limits upon the rights of the sons of God in their efforts to find the truth."

Kilgo and Kirkland both wanted their schools to be institutions of national stature, with a strong emphasis on objective research and discourse, rather than the old methods of lecture and rote memorization. Kilgo in particular held that better colleges would result in a greater reliance on reason and less on emotion. The Southern atmosphere was "too emotional, too sentimental, too romantic," and consequently the South had failed thus far to produce a great thinker or "sound body of ideas to influence people." Kilgo believed there was a better South beneath the ignorance, emotionalism, and prejudice, and that teachers, educated clergy, and enlightened businessmen would lead their neighbors to it. With the help of Southern philanthropy on the part of the Duke family of Durham, North Carolina, Kilgo made a series of improvements in Trinity's academic and financial status. Kirkland was able to accomplish much the same good results with Northern money, principally in the form of grants from the General Education Board. Both
Kilgo and Kirkland had to withstand intense opposition from their ruling boards since both Trinity and Vanderbilt were then Methodist schools with boards dominated by conservative church officials.

An educated people would be freed from the corrupting ideas of caste, reaction, and provincialism inherited from the Old South. The average man would think critically about politics, bringing about the death of the Solid South as he avoided being manipulated by politicians who pandered to him. Most importantly to the New Southerner, he would make more money, whether as farmer or businessman, and prepare the way for progress. As Mitchell pointed out, slavery had choked liberalism, secession had smothered nationalism, and cotton had starved industrialism. Education would change all that.

Records in Southern academic institutions reveal that many college administrators and faculty also had a very active interest in improving and expanding Southern primary and secondary schools. There was some self-interest as well as altruism in this goal, since better educated young people would mean greater college enrollments. Many college administrators, including Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt, took time to promote the cause of public education. Kirkland was the guiding force behind the establishment of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the South, an organization which worked to establish academic standards for religious colleges and for schools which prepared young men to attend those colleges.

Agricultural education was at the center of the movement to reform rural southern culture. Seaman A. Knapp, an agriculturalist from New York, moved to Louisiana during this period and developed a new rice belt using machinery imported from midwestern wheat fields. He invented the demonstration method of agricultural education by showing farmers the most productive practices on selected plots of land, with the aim of
teaching by example. Knapp’s work later led to a national system of county farm and home demonstration agents. Many schools in the South established demonstration farms based on Knapp’s system, George Peabody College’s Knapp Farm, for example.

Much of the overall New South program involved emulating the North, especially in the South’s goal to industrialize and to have a diversified economy. There were specific ways that the attempt to be like the North was evident in higher education. New South educators wanted their institutions to be like the large northern education institutions. James H. Kirkland stated his intention that Vanderbilt be the Harvard of the South. His neighbor across the street, Bruce R. Payne, president of George Peabody College for Teachers, based his institution’s curriculum on that of the Teachers’ College of Columbia University. (Although, interestingly, the Peabody campus was modelled on an Old South institution, the University of Virginia).

George Peabody College was the main beneficiary of one of the most generous of the Northern philanthropic agencies, the Peabody Education Fund, established in 1867 by George Peabody, a London banker born in Massachusetts. The Peabody Fund granted some 3.6 million dollars to public schools by 1914. When it was dissolved, most of its capital was transferred to the newly named George Peabody College for Teachers, established in 1875 as the Peabody Normal School of the ailing University of Nashville. Aid from the Peabody Fund was supplemented by one million dollars in the John F. Slater Fund, established in 1882 and earmarked for schools for African Americans, notably Tuskegee.

The largest benefactor, John D. Rockefeller, contributed 53 million dollars to various educational initiatives in the South, including the endowment of a school of education for the University of Virginia and the neo-classical Social-Religious Building at George Peabody College for Teachers.
The Southern desire to emulate Northern institutions of higher learning appealed to Northern benefactors, and Southern educators could not help but be aware of that fact. In fact, a major theme which can be found in the record of Northern support of Southern education is reconciliation between the two sections in the decades after Reconstruction, although the hands-on involvement of Northern philanthropy sometimes led to friction over educational goals.

A fitting question to ask on this issue is "What do the records documenting Northern support of Southern education reveal about the history of the two sections' relationship that would result in this philanthropic activity?" The roots should be found in the old missionary crusades of the abolitionist movement. It has also been suggested that perhaps Northern robber barons acted out of some sense of guilt for their exploitation of Southern natural and human resources.

Records of academic institutions reveal that Southern intellectuals, more than politicians, helped to channel the humanitarian impulse of Northern business barons into concrete financial support for Southern schools. This factor led directly to the formation of the Southern Education Board, founded by Robert C. Ogden in 1898, and to including members like Edwin Alderman, president at that time of the University of North Carolina, and Vanderbilt's James H. Kirkland. These young educated Southerners, many trained outside the South, saw the great potential of Northern philanthropy for Southern education.

The support for Peabody College reflects a more universal interest on the part of Northern benefactors in teacher education for the South. Teachers who could give children a healthy start in basic skills were thought to be a key in the region's economic and social advancement during the New South era. In 1903 Charles W. Dabney at the University of Tennessee persuaded the Southern Education Board to underwrite a summer school for
teachers. He then built Jefferson Hall to house the school. During the next three years 11,000 teachers participated in the school.

The Northern role in Southern affairs in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries can be illuminated by examining Northern willingness to be involved in the South’s economic and education movements, but not in its politics. Once Reconstruction was over, the Bourbon Redeemers, members of the former planter class, were allowed free rein, not only to restore the South’s political system, but its racial system as well. When it came to economic views, however, Bourbons embraced the new order. Most of them championed an industrial New South while singing the praises and endorsing the social mores of the Old South. Most of the Northerners who interested themselves in Southern affairs made no effort to influence Southern racial views. And very few of the most enlightened of the Southern educational leadership saw the need to grant black Southerners any measure of genuine equality.

Records of Southern institutions of higher learning provide evidence that educational leaders of the period allowed themselves to be co-opted by the New South agenda. One of the most striking examples of this phenomenon can be found in the University of Tennessee’s Bureau of Investigation and Information, which served as a New South propaganda machine. Although the bureau conducted one of the most thorough studies of the South’s poverty and the educational backwardness of the era, its existence and much of its function illustrates the extent to which Southern educators unquestioningly accepted New South values. William E. Dodd, then of Randolph-Macon, openly criticized intellectuals who had succumbed unquestioningly to New South boosterism. He felt that the quest for philanthropic funding had led them to be silent on such issues as how capitalists like John D. Rockefeller had achieved their wealth.
His views caused him to be ostracized by the leading intellectual establishment of the South, and the next year he moved North to the University of Chicago, which was, ironically, established by a grant from Rockefeller.

In many ways, social issues in education provide an interesting contrast with economic goals in the New South education movement. While improving the economic status of all Southerners was the major objective of the New South and of educational efforts, Southern leaders were well aware that improving the standard of living for the Southern people would help ensure social stability and preserve the racial system. After 1877, the illiterate poor were streaming into the cities to escape rural poverty, a development which led to widespread urban unemployment. This created a turbulent social situation that cried out for intelligent leadership. Therefore, maintaining the social order and instilling middle class values while lifting the poor out of poverty was a major initiative of New South education.

College and university records should answer several questions on this subject: Who was going to college in the South between 1877 and 1914? Why were they attending? What did they hope to gain from their efforts? Did the upper classes still desire a classical education or did they want training to become businessmen? What were the experiences of the women and blacks who were achieving an education as groups for the first time? What kind of social mobility, if any, did this make possible?

The New South did produce some real progress in the region, even though the extent of the progress was generally exaggerated by its advocates. New South liberals established boards of agriculture and agricultural experiment stations to help carry out rural diversification goals; they set up boards of public health; founded agricultural and mechanical colleges, normal schools and
women's colleges, and state colleges for blacks. But in 1914 the South still lagged behind the rest of the nation in economics and education. The agricultural economy still relied to too great an extent on cotton and other staple crops, and the shameful sharecropping and tenant system which had replaced slavery at the end of the Civil War perpetuated the poverty cycle for millions of Southerners, black and white. The rate of illiteracy in the south was still the highest in the nation.

Many research avenues are suggested by the records in Southern colleges and universities. How has New South education of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries been documented? Do Southern records become more like Northern ones for this period or are they still distinctive in their revelation of a defeated region trying to come to terms with the Industrial Age? Have college and university archives been neglected, if not ignored, by all scholars but those working directly on the history of the parent institutions? While this might be something of an overstatement, it is not far from the truth. Academic archives represent a large body of untapped research opportunities.

What types of sources bear the most fruit in this kind of research? First and foremost, in the records of the main administrator of the institution, one is likely to find evidence of academic initiatives undertaken by the school, as well as information about the major education trends of the day. In the records of the ruling body, usually the board of trustees, extensive discussions can be found about plans for expanding and modernizing curriculum, and resolutions on various programs and academic controversies. Papers of prominent faculty members and of academic departments can reveal information about curriculum matters, the role of the faculty in the institution, and social relationships.
This paper is an attempt to illustrate the research opportunities available in institutional archives, to some extent unobserved by scholars. The scholarly value of manuscript collections, by contrast, has long been understood and appreciated. Great manuscript collections, in fact, have helped enhance the reputations of more than several institutions of higher learning.

Records of such institutions as the ones mentioned in this paper are vital to the study of the New South. They are as important as those of major industrial barons and prominent political figures for what they disclose about efforts to reconstruct the South, or more accurately, to construct a new South, and for what they reveal about relations between North and South. As much as the words of any single eminent individual, the influence of the teachers, scholars, and ministers trained in these institutions suffuse the economic, political, and social history of the South in the twentieth century.

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Georgia Ghosts, or Where Are They Now?: One Researcher's Catalog of Georgia's Missing Historical Records

Robert S. Davis, Jr.

Ghosts haunt places like attics, old barns, and university libraries. They live in the minds of researchers seeking in frustration that missing document, pamphlet, or book mentioned in an earlier source. Even when the text of a document has survived in some form, researchers sometimes have gone to great lengths to find the original manuscript for the assurance that nothing more can be found there.

"Ghosts," as the term is used here, are missing historical research sources. Quite often a search for these missing materials proves that the ghosts never existed or were destroyed before copies were made. Occasionally, through luck and persistence, a researcher will uncover one of these treasures and
announce its discovery, replacing the story of a lost record with the more interesting tale of how it was found.

Among former Georgia "ghosts" are the journal of the Georgia trustee, John Percival, the Earl of Egmont, 1732-1738 (discovered in the Phillips Collection, now at the University of Georgia, and published by the late E. Merton Coulter); colonial Georgia will book B (discovered by the late Shelby Myrick to be Chatham County will book B); the will of Button Gwinnett, Georgia signer of the Declaration of Independence (located in the Pierpont Morgan Library); the files of genealogist Leon Hollingsworth (discovered in the Georgia Department of Archives and History after they were reportedly destroyed); and Colonel John Dooly's account of Georgia's Revolutionary War victory, the Battle of Kettle Creek (found at Yale University).

Georgia has a long and varied list of lost manuscripts and printed materials. The following are some of the better known of the missing items. Perhaps publication of this list will lead to information that will move some of those ghosts listed (county records are not included) from this roll of the lost to the list of the found.

DeSoto Drawings, 1540
The first significant white exploration of Georgia was conducted by Spanish explorers under Hernando DeSoto. Their journals provide a unique view of Georgia's Native American peoples before the impact of white civilization. Drawings of the Spaniards' battles with the Indians were stored in a cabinet in the throne room of King Philip II of Spain. The drawings were reportedly destroyed in a fire, although the archives of Philip's palace for earlier periods have survived.
Trustee Land Grants, 1733-1754
Georgia was founded in 1733 by a board of nonprofit trustees, who controlled almost all aspects of the settlers' lives, including land ownership. Many records refer to lands granted by the Trustees of the Colony of Georgia to the colony's first settlers. Only a fraction of the grants themselves are known to survive and the sources for the many on the extant lists of grants cannot be documented.¹ These grants should not be confused with the royal land grants of 1755-1775.

Joseph Bevan Papers, 1730s-1820s
Joseph V. Bevan was appointed Georgia's first official historian. In this role, he gathered an extensive collection of early colonial and state records that was divided and sold after his death in 1830. Some of his collection is now in the holdings of the Georgia Historical Society and the Hargrett Library for Rare Books and Manuscripts of the University of Georgia. Copies that were made of the more important papers before the collection was dispersed are in the Peter Force Collection of the Library of Congress. An unpublished list made of the Bevan Papers before they were sold, with notes on known locations of some items, is in the Georgia Historical Society.²

¹ See Robert S. Davis, Jr., A Researcher's Library of Georgia (Easley, SC: Southern Historical Press, 1987) for a bibliography of these lists of trustee grants.

Colonial Commission Book C, 1754-1806
One of Georgia's earliest commission books, which includes the commission of Button Gwinnett as the first state governor of Georgia, was known to be in the State Capitol in Milledgeville in February 1845. No record of its whereabouts since that time has been found.³

Plat of the Town of Sunbury, c. 1758
No information can be found on the location of this large lot map of the now defunct town of Sunbury. This plat was probably in the possession of Georgia historian C. C. Jones, Jr., who used a rendering of it in his Dead Towns of Georgia in 1878.⁴

Georgia Laws, 1761-1762, 1777-1784
Professor Edwin C. Surrency cites the texts of fifteen of Georgia's first laws as missing.⁵

Wrightsborough "Warrant," 1769
The petition to the governor for the survey of lands initially given to Georgia's one significant Quaker settlement is now found only in the minutes of the governor and council for February 1769 and in photocopy at the Georgia Department of Archives and History. Attempts by several researchers to locate the original have


⁴ John McKay Sheftall, Sunbury on the Medway (Atlanta: Georgia Department of Natural Resources, 1977), 109-10.

failed.\textsuperscript{6} That this petition was published\textsuperscript{7} suggests its whereabouts was known in 1927.

*The Ceded Lands Journal, 1773-1776*

At least two contemporary copies were made of this volume of land-claim registrations for what is today Wilkes and surrounding counties. One of these copies, received in fragments, survives among the records of the Surveyor General Department. The whereabouts of the other copy is unknown, although, contrary to rumor, it is not in the Manuscript Department of the William R. Perkins Library of Duke University. An incomplete and suspect typescript of the Ceded Lands journal survives.\textsuperscript{8}

Excerpts from this journal are among the Loyalist claims in the British Public Record Office and some researchers have theorized that another contemporary copy may be found in the records there. That copy of the Ceded Lands journal, however, may have been lost in the House of Commons fire of 1838.\textsuperscript{9}


\textsuperscript{7} The petition was published as a document in *Georgia Historical Quarterly* 11 (1927): 348-50.


"Tory" Petitions, 1774
Eight Georgia petitions protesting anti-British activities were published in the Georgia Gazette in 1774. George White published slightly different versions of seven of these petitions in his Historical Collections in 1854. It may be that White merely did a poor job of copying from the Georgia Gazette. However, White's omission of one petition and his inclusion of some words and other changes in the rest of the petitions suggest that he copied from the originals, which he cites as "State Records." Instead of deliberately leaving out the names of some persons who later joined the American cause, he apparently omitted signatures he could not read. No information is available on the present location of any of these petitions, if they survive.

Other early Georgia documents reproduced in White's book are also ghosts. He may have removed historical documents from the state records of Georgia for use in his book and never returned them.

Land Grant Book N, 1775-1776, 1778-1782
When Alex M. Hitz was deputy surveyor general of Georgia he believed that this grant book had existed but was missing. If this volume did exist, it would have contained the last land grants

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10 George White, Historical Collections of the State of Georgia (New York: Pudney & Russell, 1854), 412.


made by the colony of Georgia and the first grants made by the State of Georgia.

Charles Lee Papers, 1775-1782
Major General Charles Lee commanded the American forces in the southern states in the early months of the American Revolution. His papers, including important letters relating to the American Revolution in Georgia, were largely dispersed after some were published as abstracts. The existence of at least some of these papers was reported by the New York Historical Society in the 1930s.

James McCall Journal, 1776
James McCall was one of the few survivors of a peace party sent among the Cherokee Indians in South Carolina in the early days of the American Revolution. Most of his party were killed in an Indian attack. The journal of McCall’s tragic mission and escape was cited by his son Hugh McCall, but no record of its later existence can be found.

I. K. Teft Autograph Collection, 1770s-1862
America’s first great autograph collector was Israel Keech Teft of Savannah, Georgia. The sale catalog of his collection had 2,630 entries, including a complete set of the signatures of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution. The collection was sold at auction in New York.

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beginning 4 March 1867. Many of the items listed in that catalog are now ghosts.¹⁵

*State Constitution and Constitutional Convention Minutes, 1777*

The original of Georgia's first constitution was found by Secretary of State Phil Cook in his office in 1894. Presumably, the original document contains the signatures of the men who framed it, including the very rare and valuable autograph of Button Gwinnett.¹⁶ This constitution has not been in the Georgia Department of Archives and History at least since the 1930s. Although the minutes of the 1777 state constitutional convention have been published, the present location of the original also is unknown.¹⁷

*Journals of the Georgia General Assembly, 1777-1780*
*Journals of the House, 1791-1795, 1798-1799, 1801-1803*
*Journals of the Senate, 1793-1798*

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¹⁶ *Atlanta Constitution*, 7 January 1894, p. 9 c. 1-4.

The originals of these Georgia records are not known to have survived. A complete set of the printed journals was donated by Salem Dutcher to the Richmond County Ordinary prior to 1903.18

Benjamin Lincoln Diary, 1778-1780
Major Benjamin Lincoln’s diary for the period during which he commanded the American forces in the South is missing, although his earlier and later diaries survive. If it existed, the diary for those years (1778-1780) would have covered the British capture of Savannah, the battle of Briar Creek, and the siege of Savannah, as well as other events in Georgia during those turbulent months. The missing diary is not the account book in the New York Public Library that is sometimes referred to as Lincoln’s diary. Some of Lincoln’s papers are at the Massachusetts Historical Society, but the vast majority were sold to collectors long ago. If the locations of all of these papers were discovered, a great deal of new information on the events in Georgia for 1778-1780 would be available.

Campbell Maps, 1779
A series of maps prepared by Archibald Campbell, British governor of Georgia, to illustrate his own account of his conquest of the state in 1778-1779 no longer accompanies his manuscript. A copy of what may be one of these maps, showing the Savannah area, is in the Georgia Historical Society. These area maps

should not be confused with Campbell’s famous map, *Sketch of the Northern Frontiers of Georgia* (1780).^{19}

**Mathew Singleton Papers, 1779**
Records of Mathew Singleton’s trials of British sympathizers in Augusta, Georgia, in March and April 1779, survive in fragments at the South Caroliniana Library of the University of South Carolina and the Manuscripts Division of the Library of Congress. Additional records of this court for February 1779 may also survive, providing information on Georgians and South Carolinians who aided the King’s cause.^{20}

**Silas Mercer Journal, 1770s**
The Revolutionary War journal (or diary) of the Reverend Silas Mercer, a founding Georgia Baptist and the father of the famous Reverend Jesse Mercer, is mentioned in Benedict’s *A General History of the Baptist Denomination*^{21} in 1813. The text of this missing manuscript would contain considerable information about Georgia’s first Baptist churches.

**State Records Left in Milledgeville, 1700s-1868**
Stories persist that many state records were left in the State Capitol in Milledgeville when Georgia’s capitol was moved to Atlanta in 1868. A newspaper report of the fire that destroyed

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the Milledgeville state house in 1941 implied that these records had been saved by the cadets of Georgia Military College. No one presently at the college has any knowledge of these state records.

Folks Huxford found an 1887 article describing a group of documents found by some boys in the streets of Milledgeville after the Civil War evacuation. The papers included a letter from President Thomas Jefferson and were reported to have been sent to the governor at that time (1887). In 1943, Louise Frederick Hays, then director of the Georgia Department of Archives and History, wrote to Huxford that no letters like those described in the article could be found in that repository.

*Georgia State Deed Books A and B and Record Books A and B, 1770s-1780s*

Deeds in the papers of Loyalist William Manson, now in the Hargrett Library for Rare Books and Manuscripts of the University of Georgia Libraries, are certified as recorded in Georgia State Deed Books A and B. There are also records of two missing manuscript volumes A and B that were recorded copies of loose records in the Georgia Executive Department.

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22 *Milledgeville Daily Times*, 24 March 1941, p. 4, col. 4-5.

23 *Valdosta Times*, 23 July 1887.

24 Directors' Correspondence, Box 1, 1933-1955, Georgia Department of Archives and History.

A Georgia public record book B containing an important 1785 petition from Reverend Daniel Marshall and his Baptist followers was cited in 1898. No such record has been found at the Georgia Department of Archives and History, at least since 1938.

British Officer's Visit to Stone Mountain, 1780
An account of a visit to Georgia's Stone Mountain (also called Rock Mountain) by a British officer in 1780 was reported to have been published in London in 1788. However, no information can now be found on the source and date of when and in what this account was published.

Federal Censuses of Georgia, 1790-1820
Federal census records for Georgia for 1790, 1800, and 1810 (and for Franklin, Rabun, and Twiggs counties in 1820) are missing. Statistics from these censuses were published shortly after the censuses were taken. However, the fate of the censuses themselves, listing names of heads of households with statistical descriptions of each family, is a mystery. The records were in the federal district court in Savannah and, contrary to modern published claims, were not destroyed when the British burned

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27 Reba C. Strickland File, File II, Names, Georgia Department of Archives and History.

28 Georgia Messenger, Macon, 7 January 1832, p. 2, col. 1-2, and Adiel Sherwood, A Gazetteer of the State of Georgia (Philadelphia: The Author, 1829), 152. A likely author of this article was the famous Georgia loyalist Colonel Thomas Waters.
Washington in 1814. Numerous searches of the federal records have failed to locate these missing censuses.\textsuperscript{29}

*Langworthy's History of Georgia, 1791*
What would have been Georgia's first real history, prepared by Edward Langworthy, was never published, and if the manuscript survived, it would be a valuable source of firsthand information on Georgia during the Revolutionary War.\textsuperscript{30}

*Reverend John Newton Diary, 1790s*
Published information from this diary proves that it contained considerable material on the early Presbyterian church in Georgia. It should not be confused with the diaries of the contemporary Baptist preacher of the same name--ghosts until discovered and donated to the Hargrett Library for Rare Books and Manuscripts, University of Georgia Libraries.\textsuperscript{31}

*State Censuses, 1798-1866*
Georgia first attempted to conduct a state census in 1786. Only a few scattered returns have survived of the state censuses (1786, 1798, 1804, 1810, 1817, 1824, 1831, 1838, 1845, 1852, 1859, and

\textsuperscript{29} Genealogist Ted O. Brooke has suggested, in jest, that these missing census records are in the federal warehouse shown in the last scene of the movie *Raiders of the Lost Ark.*


\textsuperscript{31} Correspondence with members of Newton families concerning both of these diaries is in the Robert S. Davis, Jr. Collection, Hargrett Library for Rare Books and Manuscripts, University of Georgia Libraries. The missing Newton diary is rumored to be secretly in the possession of some of the family members.
Among those records specifically known to be missing are fragmentary returns for 1824 and 1831 reported to have been in the State Capitol in Atlanta at the turn of the century.\textsuperscript{32} Also unlocated are published statistics for the state censuses of 1798, 1804, 1810, 1817, 1852, 1859, and 1866, as well as a pamphlet published by the State of Georgia in 1846 which included the statistics of the 1845 state census.\textsuperscript{33}

\textit{Lieutenant George Gilmer Diary, 1813}

This journal of an expedition into Indian lands by a later Georgia governor is quoted in a 1952 article on Wrightsborough by Alice Mae Massengale.\textsuperscript{34} Her quotes are not from Gilmer’s well-known published memoirs. Gilmer’s journal should contain a description of Fort Standing Peachtree, the outpost which stood where Atlanta is today. No description of Fort Standing Peachtree is known to exist.

\textit{Stephen F. Miller Collection, 1815-1855}

Miller collected pamphlets, many of which were already rare in his time.\textsuperscript{35} The pamphlets were bound and were sold at the time

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{32} Brigid S. Townsend, \textit{Indexes to Seven State Census Reports for Counties in Georgia, 1838-1845} (Atlanta: R. J. Taylor, Jr., Foundation, 1975), 13.
\item \textsuperscript{33} A bibliography of Georgia colonial and state census records, and their statistical sources, has been accepted for publication in \textit{Georgia Genealogical Society Quarterly}.
\item \textsuperscript{34} Wrightsborough Vertical File, Georgia Department of Archives and History.
\item \textsuperscript{35} See Stephen F. Miller, \textit{The Bench and Bar of Georgia} 2 vols. (New York: Pudney & Russell, 1858) 2: 441-45, for a bibliography of these pamphlets.
\end{itemize}
of his death. David M. Sherman found one volume of the Miller collection and donated it to the Georgia Historical Society.\(^36\)

*Milledgeville City Census, 1828*

Ulrich Bonnell Phillips found this document in the Milledgeville City Hall in 1903. He noted that it provided detailed information on the town's residents and their slaves. It is not now found among the Milledgeville city records at the Georgia Department of Archives and History or in Milledgeville.\(^37\)

*Troutman Flag, 1835*

The lone star flag carried by the Georgia volunteers in the Texas revolt against Mexico was captured at the battle of Coletto Creek by the Mexican army. The Georgians and other prisoners were executed at Goliad, Texas, in 1836. The State of Texas dedicated the lone star in their state flag to the memory of the Georgia volunteers and their lone star flag.\(^38\) The actual design of this Georgia flag is a matter of controversy. Texas historian Lee Basore believes that the Georgians' flag, made by Joanna Troutman, or perhaps a later photograph of it, can still be found in Mexico.

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\(^36\) However, this volume cannot presently be found at the Georgia Historical Society and, therefore, qualifies as a ghost.

\(^37\) Ulrich B. Phillips, "Historical Notes of Milledgeville, Ga.," *Gulf States Magazine* 5 (November 1903): 170-71. Neither the original census nor any copy was found in the records and papers that Phillips's widow donated to the William L. Clements Library in Ann Arbor, MI.

Cotting Geological Surveys, 1830s-1840s
John Ruggles Cotting (1783-1867), state geologist of Georgia, is known to have prepared a geological survey of Georgia that he, for reasons not known, never published. Charles Morris of Milledgeville was reported to have the manuscript in 1939.\(^{39}\) Morris is now dead and the location of his papers is unknown. This survey should not be confused with the soil survey that Cotting did publish in 1843. Other reports by Cotting are believed to have been published but cannot be found.\(^{40}\)

"The Death of Grierson" Pamphlet, c. 1845
This book, pamphlet, or article on the American Revolution in Augusta, Georgia, by Ebenezer Starnes, already a "ghost" when it was described in 1902, was written around 1845 by a prominent local writer and jurist. It may have contained first person accounts of Revolutionary War events and sites in Augusta.\(^{41}\)

Views of Athens and Columbus, c. 1859
David M. Sherman of Albany, Georgia, has a page of an article published about Georgia before the Civil War. The page includes

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\(^{40}\) See the report made by Cotting of a soil survey in Warren, Greene, and Clarke counties in the John Ruggles Cotting File, File II, Names, Georgia Department of Archives and History.

\(^{41}\) *Augusta Chronicle*, 16 April 1902, second edition of that date, 13-14.
unique engravings of views of Athens and Columbus. Neither the periodical nor the date of this article has been identified. The complete article may contain additional information and engravings of Georgia on the eve of the Civil War.

**State Constitution, 1861**
Like the Constitution of the Confederacy, the original of this document was penned by T. R. R. Cobb. No evidence can be found that the Georgia State Constitution of 1861 was ever in the Georgia Department of Archives and History.

**Civil War Records, 1861-1865**
Many Civil War records were discovered to have been stolen from the Civil War Records Section of the Georgia Department of Archives and History and apparently sold to persons around the country.

**Bell's Description of Georgia, 1864**
James Bell, scout for the Union cavalry in North Georgia, claimed that in 1864 he supplied information to General George H. Thomas and Captain William C. Margedant that was used by

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42 The engraving of the view of Columbus has been reprinted in *Georgia Historical Quarterly* 72 (1988): 70.

43 Claims that this document was offered for sale to the late Mary Givens Bryan, then director of the Georgia Department of Archives, and that the state of Georgia did not meet the price for the document, are false. Department of Archives policy has long prohibited the purchase of documents.

44 A list of many of the missing documents is maintained by the Georgia state archives. Any Georgia government documents believed to have been stolen should be reported to the Secretary of State, State Capitol, Atlanta, Georgia 30334.
Captain William Emery Merrill in a pamphlet published for use by the Union army in Georgia. The Bell pamphlet described roads, settlements, and rivers in the state. No copy or other record of this pamphlet has been found. Possibly Bell confused one of the maps of North Georgia made by Merrill with a pamphlet since the maps could be folded to pocket size. A crude notebook of miscellaneous geographical information on North Georgia from different sources does exist.

*State School Censuses, 1908, 1913, 1918, 1923*
As late as the 1950s, these records were being kept alternately by the Georgia Department of Education and the Georgia Department of Health. Persons needing proof of age in order to receive social security benefits frequently obtained copies from these censuses that today would be valued by Georgia genealogists as a source of personal information. These agencies now claim no knowledge of the location of these records.

*The Leo Frank Trial Transcript, 1913*
The transcript of the trial of the man convicted of the murder of Mary Phagan has been missing from the Fulton County Courthouse for many years, much to the annoyance of scholars of this nationally famous trial. Only an abstract of the testimony and proceedings is now available.

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45 Petition of James Bell, 18 June 1865, Entry 1730 Letters Received by A. A. Talmadge, Record Group 92, Records of the Quartermaster General, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC.

46 Box 13, Papers of General George H. Thomas, Record Group 94, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington D.C.
As a hobby, Gordon B. Smith of Savannah searches old Georgia newspapers for historical articles. His searches have uncovered other references to missing Georgia history sources. His ghosts are listed below:

A biography of Judge Henry Osborne by his grandson, James H. Osborne, apparently published in pamphlet form, told of now-forgotten incidents, such as duels, in Georgia in the 1780s and 1790s.47

In 1766 Benjamin Stirk wrote letters to his mother describing life at the Reverend George Whitefield's famous Bethesda Orphanage near Savannah. The letters were published48 but their present whereabouts is a mystery.

The history of one of the oldest and most litigated controversies in Georgia history, "Facts and Figures, in connection with the Chatham County Jail, etc.," was a fifty-two-page pamphlet published in Savannah in 1881.49 No copy can now be found.

Living in Greensboro, Georgia in 1826, Lieutenant Jonas Fauche (c. 1753-1835), compiled "A Supplement to all English and French

47 Extracts from the biography were published in "A Little Scrap of Georgia History," Savannah Daily Advertiser, 5 September 1872, p. 1, col. 2.


49 Savannah Morning News, 17 August 1881, p. 4, col. 5.
Grammars." He planned to publish it, but the book may have never gone to press. Fauche was a famous soldier of early Georgia who served as adjutant general of Georgia from 1796 to 1806.

Israel K. Teft announced plans in 1826 to publish a collection of works of Savannah poet Henry Denison which would be entitled "The Remains of Henry Denison." This work may not have been published.

Jane Conor wrote "amusing and interesting reminiscences of old times in Putnam County" before her death on 25 December 1874, which cannot be located.

Burke County farmer Amos Whitehead compiled a manuscript in 1806 that summarized local law cases. It was still in existence in 1893.

In conclusion, ghosts have value far beyond being curious trivia. Documentation that a record did exist or may exist is often used in legitimate, scholarly research. However, no amount of information about a record can ever completely replace having the record itself and the greatest value of any study of literary ghosts is in moving the "missing" to the "found".

50 *Macon Telegraph*, 1 November 1826, p. 3, col. 2.

51 *Georgia Patriot*, Milledgeville, 6 January 1824, p. 4 col. 5.


53 *Savannah Morning News*, 14 March 1893, p. 6, col. 1.
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MAP MANAGEMENT FOR SMALL COLLECTIONS

Pam Hackbart-Dean

In the past, maps have been used only to illustrate texts or to buttress views gleaned from more traditional written sources. However, maps are primary sources and should be integrated with historical research from the outset.¹ They should be viewed as true documents, not as secondary sources.

Archivists and historians must remember that maps provide essential information related to places and man-made objects. "First, they reveal the existence of tangible things such as cities and rivers, as well as indiscrete items such as weather conditions. Second, maps demonstrate the relative position of these discrete objects in relation with other cultural or natural features."² By


developing a system for the management of these special formats, archivists will demonstrate to themselves and to researchers that maps are true documents and enable broader use.

Map management will not always be done by an archivist with specialized training. Many archives, especially those with small staffs, will designate an archivist to handle maps and to design guidelines for their care. Such a project was arranged as part of an internship at the University of Central Arkansas Torreyson Library Archives and Special Collections in the summer of 1987.

Soon after Archives and Special Collections opened, the department inherited from the main library approximately 260 maps of Arkansas dating from the late nineteenth century to the present. Their collection policy was not only to develop collections covering the entire history of Arkansas, but also to preserve and protect them, catalog them in a professional manner, and to make them available to researchers in a way that would follow normal archival practices. Collecting maps dealing with Arkansas was an integral part of that policy.

Background research for the project began with Ralph Ehrenberg's Society of American Archivists manual on *Maps and Architectural Drawings*, Mary Larsgaard’s *Map Librarianship: An Introduction*, Harold Nichols’s *Map Librarianship*, as well as several other books and articles on map collections. Ehrenberg’s manual and Larsgaard’s book both proved to be excellent sources of information on how to arrange and describe collections.

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More background information was gathered from the University of Arkansas, the University of Arkansas at Little Rock, and the United States Department of Agriculture Soil Conservation Service in Little Rock about how they managed their map collections. The University of Arkansas had previously cataloged their maps according to the Dewey decimal system but was currently changing over to the Library of Congress classification system. This system was not ideal for the University of Central Arkansas because the Library of Congress number would be too cumbersome at the level these maps needed to be arranged, which included the state, county, and municipal level. The Library of Congress number was several digits long at the state level of description. There was not enough room on a catalog card for this much information. Adding to the municipal or county level made the number even longer. The University of Arkansas at Little Rock was also considering a change in how they managed their collection, but had not determined what system was appropriate for them.

The USDA Soil Conservation Service held a collection of field survey maps from around the state, arranged in alphabetical order by community. To use these maps effectively, the user had to know all the surrounding communities in order to get the larger picture. This was especially true when various projects, such as flood plain planning, included more than one community. They were planning a two-year project to rearrange the maps in geographic order and assign a digit code that will be entered in a computer data base for easier access.

It was evident from background reading and neighboring institutions' programs that there was no fully agreed upon standard for the administration of these special formats in archives. Only practical guidelines were suggested for their arrangement, description, conservation, storage, and reference service. Thus, it seemed that the development of an unique
organizational system for the map project at the University of Central Arkansas was the best solution.

The first decision concerning the arrangement and description of maps was that the system would be kept as simple as possible. An arrangement scheme based on geographic area is a good idea because it "is a simple system which can be applied to small as well as large collections; it is convenient for both archivist and researchers; and it does not require a complex system of classification numbers and indexes." Formal arrangement and classification schemes based on geographic area have been devised for cataloging maps by the Library of Congress and the American Geographical Society.

The decisions for physical organization and description were to provide easy research and retrieval access to the materials, as well as to facilitate storage. Maps were arranged by geographic area and ordered from the largest geographic area to the smallest. Once divided into series or categories, the maps were then described at a level which would provide the researcher with basic information. The retrieval of individual maps was improved further by the creation of tracings for each map by subject and titles.

As the management system evolved, the maps were divided into seven categories: national, regional, state, county, municipal, bound and miscellaneous. Each was assigned a roman numeral (I-VII) accordingly.

A separate card catalog was developed for the maps. Each map was assigned a locator code, which was noted on each card and penciled in the bottom right-hand corner of the verso of the map itself. The locator code was thorough. The code began with the word MAP on the first line. The following line gave the

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division number to which the map was assigned and the number that individual map had been given. The last three lines gave the division, publisher, and date, but it became apparent that these lines were not necessary in order to retrieve an item and were deleted.

Each map was then described individually on the catalog card. The description included: title, publisher, date, scale, dimensions, and color. Unscaled maps were described essentially the same way except that the scale was not included. If no date was given, an approximate one was provided. The measurement of the map was given in inches to the nearest eighth, giving the vertical dimensions first. The maps were measured within their borders.

![Illustration 1](#)

Multiple access points were provided for each map. Cross-references included subjects, titles, and the name of the collection from which the map was pulled. (See illustration 1.) Subject tracings were established by using the *Library of Congress Subject Headings* (LCSH), as well as an established subject heading authority file from the archives. Using established subject headings from the LCSH is useful because most archives and libraries utilize these descriptive terms. Proper names were to be used whenever possible. The tracings dealt with the history of the state, such as Civil War (except major battles which were
entered under name), ethnic subdivisions, as well as political subdivisions, transportation, waterways, and other descriptive terms that would assist researchers in using maps as primary documents. These tracings were placed in alphabetical order on the shelflist card. (See illustration 2.)

While these maps were being arranged and described, conservation work was also completed. Fragile, rare, or old map sheets were deacidified and then encapsulated in sealed mylar sleeves. All maps were stored within acid-free folders and placed in map case drawers. Typically, five to ten maps could be enclosed in one folder.

### Illustration 2

**MAP**

Scale: 1 inch = 125 miles.
Size: 19" X 24 7/8".
Colored.

Canal; Desert and Wasteland; Elevation; Gas and Oil Fields; Mountains; Region-Northwest Africa; Transportation-Roads; Waterways-Lakes; Waterways-Ocean; Title.

New maps were placed in acid-free folders and held in a safe place until they could be processed. Encapsulation took place after cataloging. These maps were removed from the acidic cardboard backing with which they were shipped, and dirt brushed off all articles before placement in the folder.

Bound maps were defined as a collection of maps that contains no narrative. A catalog card was created for the collection as a whole, not for each individual map. They were processed with the same information as sheet maps; however, the number of maps included in the volume was noted on the
same line. Since there can be numerous maps in any volume, the sizes and/or scale will most likely vary. This also was indicated on the card.

It was important to know whether the system would work effectively for research use as well as staff use before the finalized set of procedures was written up in a manual. Therefore, after this system was designed, a manual regarding the administration of maps was compiled by consolidating specific procedures and policies that had been developed. Finally, a training workshop on the arrangement and description of maps was held for the rest of the staff. A member of the staff was then charged with the care, cataloging, and maintenance of the map collection.

The significance of this system is that other archives can use it also. Staff members at the Richard B. Russell Memorial Library at the University of Georgia have adopted this management plan to catalog a collection of twentieth-century maps. The majority of these maps are from political collections. Cards created for these maps also designate the names of collections to which the maps belong. Removal sheets were placed in collections from which maps had been removed. These maps show proposed dam projects, various official trips of public officials, and house and senate districts (state and national level).

Also, these maps supplement the manuscript and oral history collections by illustrating the history of Georgia. Although this is not a large collection, its importance cannot be denied.

While some institutions can use the same map system because research use is similar, collection size and historical maintenance as well as research use may cause others to choose alternate formats. For example, other departments at the University of Georgia arrange their maps in a different manner. The Hargrett Library for Rare Books and Manuscripts arranges its maps according to their dates. The locator codes are created by the date of the map, the first letter of the cartographer’s last name,
and a numerical designation of that first letter, such as 1875A1. On the catalog card the following items are indicated: location, year, scale, size in centimeters, and anything unusual about the map. Researchers usually request maps by date. Another department, the Science Map Library, catalogs their map collection according to AACR2 and Library of Congress rules. Their comprehensive collection consists of 338,000 individual maps. Many researchers are using these maps for specific geographic information.

In this instance, it is interesting that two institutions with two different missions are able to use the same map management system successfully. Part of the University of Central Arkansas Archives and Special Collections' mission is to collect maps dealing with Arkansas. However, the Richard B. Russell Memorial Library does not actively seek map collections unless they are a part of a political collection. The Russell Library chose the system developed at the University of Central Arkansas instead of those already instituted at the University of Georgia Libraries because of its use of tracings for each map by subject and title, feeling that this system would serve their researcher needs better. Maps have often been used purely to illustrate texts from more traditional written sources. But, these sources are in fact primary and should be integrated with historical research from the beginning. No matter how small the map collection may be, it is worthwhile to take the opportunity to catalog these primary sources. By having a system for the management of these special formats, maps will be seen as true documents by the archivist and the researcher.

Pam Hackbart-Dean is the processing archivist at the Richard B. Russell Memorial Library at the University of Georgia. She wishes to thank Tom Dillard, director of the University of Central Arkansas Archives and Special Collections, for his guidance on the map project described in this article.
Moving

Todd Ellison

We all move; about twenty million Americans traded places last year. Most of them trucked the furniture themselves. Archivists delight in moving no more than the next person, but their professional training and experience prepares them better than does probably anyone else's. Whether they implement their knowledge is another matter; this article describes the ideal.

My reflections on this subject are fresh from personal experience. I was offered a job in Durango, Colorado, on 22 July 1991, accepted it the next day, and moved lock, stock and family from Boulder, Colorado, across four or five mountain passes to our new land of milk and honey on July 30. A move so sudden required certain resources and the application of principles learned in archival work.

A successful move is one where everything reaches the destination intact and is relocated in its new surroundings with maximal efficiency and minimal aggravation. This feat involves preparation, packing, storage, transfer, unpacking, and ultimate disposition. The archivist—and anyone who knows a few

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archival principles—should have an edge in all of these functions. Could this article give you a head start on next year’s exchanges?

It is never too soon to commence the first phase of a move. Preparation includes estimating the volume and special characteristics of the materials. How many cubic feet? Is a grand piano accompanying you? How about the 1,200 tropical fish? How does the new space compare with the old; is it larger, and are there stairs? What resources do we possess in terms of finances, friends, and freight trucks, and what resources will be required? Supplies are one of the earliest needs—boxes, boxes, boxes of all sizes—with lids. One never has enough boxes.

Archivists, unlike librarians, deal for the most part in unique items which contain information. Because they are one of a kind, they resist classification. There is only one box of Fonda Drug Store prescriptions, for example. If we file those prescriptions with the Jones Drug Store prescriptions, where do we file Mr. Fonda’s business correspondence? Archivists conquer this difficulty by applying provenance, the archival principle that records created and received by one records unit should not be intermixed with those of any other. Thus, the moving-van-bound archivist packs all of the baking utensils together; they may have been stored in several different cabinets and drawers in the old residence, but those decisions will be made fresh in the new one. The first time that box will be needed, no doubt, will be when the family baker decides to try muffins in the new oven.

Nobody keeps a perfectly ordered house. That closet of unsorted miscellany is somewhere in there. Archivists are accustomed to the sight of such a closet, jammed full of who knows what. They attack each closet with an appraisal and (often, if energy permits) a container inventory. Their experience has provided them with a reasonably sure basis for deciding which materials to retain and which to deaccession into the
circular file or someone else's closet. Those decisions are better made before the move; there may not be time after.

The archival mind considers the values—primary, intrinsic, informational, and secondary—of groups of materials (series) before either packing them or deaccessioning them. That cracked clay pot from last year's vacation has lost its primary value (as a water-carrier), and it has no informational value because it tells us nothing about any "persons, places, subjects, and things," but for us it possesses an intrinsic and secondary value due to its workmanship and because it reminds us of the good times we had on that vacation.

The archivally minded mover packs and labels the materials of the same provenance immediately after appraising them. Aware that resources are too scarce to permit more than one handling of each item, the archivist packer decides on its disposition the first time. Recognizing that different types of materials require different types of storage conditions, this packer chooses appropriate boxes, suitably durable, small enough that the filled weight will be manageable, large enough to accommodate the largest item of that group. These boxes are neither overpacked nor underpacked, as either extreme could result in damage to the contents. Each box is labeled, in the same place on each box, with a location code (LR, KI, BR, etc.), and a brief contents description is written below the location code (such as "family photo albums"). Likewise, the archival packer considers environmental dangers, especially fluctuations and extremes of temperature. Sound recordings, photographs, and computer disks are placed in boxes sub-coded CC, so that they will be transported in climate-controlled vehicles, not in a hot or freezing van. Anything fragile is so designated, again in a standard location on each box.

When emptying cabinets, the thoughtful archival packer will maintain the original order of their contents. Files will be boxed
in the same order used by the individual who organized them; knives will be placed in a bag or wrapped to keep them separate from the forks in the new silverware drawer. Better to commit to a little additional organizational effort than, like Erma Bombeck, to face a chaos of boxes all marked "miscellaneous" later.

Preservation and access are the primary goals, not only for archivists but for people on the move. Every action in the moving process draws us either closer or further from achieving those goals. Thus, in each phase of the move the materials are organized clearly and consistently. The natural urge to heap them together should be resisted at each juncture. Moving may not be fun, but it can be successful.

Todd Ellison has been archivist of Fort Lewis College, Durango, Colorado, since the summer of 1991.
Suggestions for Moving University Archives

Dennis S. Taylor

Moving archival material is, in most situations, a formidable task that requires weeks or months of preparation. Even in a college or university setting where optimal conditions supposedly prevail, moving material may still require weeks or months because individuals from levels of the organizational hierarchy, as well as the student body, are affected or involved. Whereas another type of archival repository might shut down for the duration of a move, a university archives (located more than likely within a library) cannot, because it serves users who want ready access to the holdings. A quick and efficient move is, therefore, in the interest of all concerned. How is such a move accomplished?

A successful move is the result of a well-articulated methodology. It is a set of procedures that guide the archivist through the planning, implementation, and follow-up stages of a move by answering completely and in full detail five basic questions: What is to be moved? How will the material be moved? Who will do the moving? Where will the material go?
And, when will the move occur? As these questions, and others that are derived from them, are answered, the methodology evolves from a general outline to a detailed description of activities for each stage of the move, from a few scraps of papers to notebooks filled with well-organized information, blueprints, drawings, and specification charts. Depending on the size or types of material in the collection, or a combination of these, a committee of archivists, librarians, history professors, staff members, and security or traffic personnel might be and, it is hoped, will be involved in developing the methodology. In a process that may be compared to an artist painting a landscape by advancing the entire canvas at once, rather than painting a rock or tree one at a time, the committee advances several parts of the methodology simultaneously, all the while reviewing pertinent literature or seeking outside advice.

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1 There are few, if any, articles on the subject of moving archives. There are, however, numerous articles on moving libraries and collections of books and these contain applicable information. See Donna Lee Kurkul, "Planning, Implementation, and Movement of an Academic Library Collection," *College and Research Libraries* 44 (1983): 220-234; Matt Roberts, "Some Ideas on Moving a Book Collection," *College and Research Libraries* 27 (1966): 103-108. The use of the term *methodology* is my own. Many refer to a moving *plan*, but the term is too general to express the details and steps that a methodology encompasses.

2 A three-ring binder, or anything portable and easily accessible, may be used to organize the methodology.

3 In the experience of this archivist, the committee was called a "task force" and was appointed by the director of libraries. It consisted of the head of special collections, a serials librarian, and a library technical assistant (both of whom had helped in a move of the library several years earlier), and another archivist.
This seemingly helter-skelter approach is necessary because certain procedures of the methodology depend on the successful completion of other procedures. The process of developing the methodology begins as the committee gathers information on the size, type, condition, and value of the holdings, or, in other words, by answering "What is to be moved?" Of great help in gathering the information are the accession register, finding aids, and an inventory of holdings. Although a staff member or a student may perform this task, an archivist of experience or someone with knowledge of the collection would do well to perform it, for it is rare that assistants or novice staff members know all the locations where material may be kept, or understand the idiosyncrasies of accession registers, finding aids, and collections.

Next, the committee decides how to move the holdings and who is to do it, procedures that involve packing the collection, transporting it to the new location, and determining if professional movers or in-house staff should undertake the job. The decisions reached depend on an evaluation of several factors: the size of the collection, available funding, how far the security or integrity of the collection will be compromised, and other factors peculiar to an institution, such as time allotted for the move, time needed for completion, and the number of able-bodied staff members who can be conscripted into service.4

4 A. E. Lumb, "Moving an Academic Library: A Case Study," *Journal of Librarianship* 4 (1972): 253-271. Our task force developed a methodology under the assumption that student labor and staff of the facilities and maintenance division would perform the move over a period of weeks. Estimating the cost at approximately $15,000, the committee included supplies, student hours calculated on the minimum wage, and use of vans from the campus motor pool. After the director of libraries reviewed our figures, he recommended that the contract be put out for bid; the
Even if the services of professional movers are employed, the committee would do well to develop procedures on how to move material and see to it that the movers follow them. The following suggestions serve as guidelines for various types of materials:

1. Books. Wrap fragile books in kraft paper, label with their call numbers, and pack into boxes. Books should be packed spine down.\(^5\)

2. Maps and oversize material. A small quantity may be placed into large, flat, storage boxes and packed with acid-free paper. For larger amounts, however, allow the items to remain in their drawers and place the drawers into large moving boxes, then move the cabinet hull and reinsert the drawers.

3. Memorabilia. If possible, wrap in acid-free tissue, place into a box, and secure. Keep a master list of boxes and their contents to maintain intellectual control and permit ready access. Depending on the size and/or value of the collection, a staff member might move the collection by car or van to the new location.

4. Records center cartons need no special preparation.

5. Manuscript boxes (the flip top variety) require care to avoid spilling the contents; pack into larger moving boxes and label appropriately.

As stated earlier, the approach of developing parts of the methodology simultaneously is necessary when certain procedures depend on the completion of others. This approach is needed most when numbering, labelling, and calculating shelving winner underbid our estimate by nine thousand dollars.

\(^5\) Although informed by the Southeastern Library Network that books should be packed spine down, they were not consistently packed that way; instead, they were packed to utilize space to the best advantage and to facilitate easy unpacking.
space are underway, because boxes cannot be moved until they are first numbered and assigned a new shelf location.

The method of numbering and labelling may be as simple or as complex as the nature of the collection being moved. One method uses pre-numbered, self-stick tickets of various colors to represent books, manuscripts, unprocessed collections, or other types of material. But since a roll contains only 500 tickets, and the number of boxes in most collections exceeds the number of tickets on a roll, another method may need to be devised. A practical, more economical system uses a combination of letters and numbers of various colors and legible script. Staff members simply number boxes consecutively in the way they will appear on the shelves.\(^6\)

To calculate shelving requirements and rates of future growth, the committee might consult acquisition records, annual reports, or articles in the professional literature. An illustrated shelving arrangement, such as one that could be produced on a personal computer, showing locations of processed, unprocessed, and other material, helps staff members and the movers.\(^7\)

If the date of the move is not decided by higher levels in the administrative hierarchy, the committee must make the determination based on such factors as seasonal changes in the weather, campus events, traffic patterns, and holidays.\(^8\)

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route over which the material will be moved should permit speed, maneuverability, and safety, taking into account any obstacle, from door widths and elevators, to curves and intersections encountered.\textsuperscript{9} If the material is to be transported in open air en route to a truck, plan for the possibility of bad weather. Arranging in advance a place for the moving van or vans to park by consulting the traffic safety department of the campus police is also a good idea. Whenever the date and route are decided, publicize through the media and by word of mouth.

When moving day arrives, the second stage of the move, implementation, and the corresponding part of the methodology, go into effect. Staff members should be present at the site where boxes are being loaded and unloaded to supervise and direct the movers. As the boxes arrive at the new location, the boxes may be placed on the shelves in proper sequence if shelf space will allow; if not, the contents will need to be unpacked and shelved. If movers are responsible for shelving material and any items are mishandled, speak up; moving company employees are conscientious workers accustomed to long hours, but as they tire, they may neglect procedures. Also, prepare for the possibility that movers may need to leave a loaded van unattended overnight; if this situation arises; notify campus security.\textsuperscript{10}

As soon as the last box is put into place, the follow-up stage of the move and the corresponding part of the methodology go into effect. These procedures, which may take several days or a couple of weeks to complete, involve checking the old location to make sure all materials have been removed, unpacking and disposing of cartons, inventorying the collection or counting

\textsuperscript{9} Moran.

boxes, reading the shelves and noting any damaged or missing items, taking appropriate measures if damaged material is found, and finally, informing the public that the move is complete. As a part of the follow-up stage, but after sufficient rest and recuperation, celebrate the success with a party or special recognition to those who assisted with the move.

Moving archival material requires hours of mental and physical labor, the coordination of diverse activities, and the cooperation of many individuals. A methodology, while not a magical formula, will make the process less traumatic and more efficient.

Dennis Taylor is university archivist at Clemson University in South Carolina. This article is based on a paper presented at the 1989 Society of American Archivists annual meeting in St. Louis.
REVIEWS, CRITIQUES, AND ANNOTATIONS


The cliché "everything but the kitchen sink" is apt for this book, the culmination of more than three decades' work by the staff of the National Archives. A description of all their holdings created before the implementation of the United States Constitution in 1789, this guide also includes later records containing substantive information about the pre-Federal period and is not limited to the geographic area that would come to constitute the new nation. Authored by veteran archivists who know the records, A Guide to Pre-Federal Records in the National Archives is thorough and intelligently helpful. The capstone to an edifice of finding aids to these records and an essential tool for scholars, the volume nonetheless has problems, some of which are implied by the cliché with which this review began.

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The National Archives microfilmed the most important of these records, the Papers of the Continental Congress, in 1959. Twenty years later they issued the massive five-volume *Index to the Papers of the Continental Congress*, a computer-assisted item-level index and calendar. Earlier indexes had been prepared when those records were in custody of the State Department and (after 1903) the Library of Congress. Between 1904 and 1937, the library issued the standard thirty-four-volume printed edition of the *Journals of the Continental Congress, 1774-1789*, for which the National Archives published a consolidated index in 1976. The War Department Collection of Revolutionary War Records and the Revolutionary War Pension and Bounty-Land Warrant Application Files have also been thoroughly microfilmed and described. Two decades ago the compiler of this new guide, Howard Wehmann, revised Mabel Deutrich's 1962 *Preliminary Inventory of the War Department Collection of Revolutionary War Records* and wrote the pamphlets describing three microfilm publications from that record group. In all, ninety-one microfilm publications have been issued depicting records described in this volume.

The coverage in *A Guide to Pre-Federal Records* extends far beyond the best-known records that scholars and genealogists have long heavily used, leaving the impression that many nooks and crannies have been searched for possibly relevant items. Records from approximately fifty record groups are included. In a microfilm publication pamphlet issued as long as a dozen years ago, Wehmann was reported to be at work on this "comprehensive guide." The guide contains no description of how it was compiled, but the results lend confidence that it is indeed "comprehensive," in some cases excessively so. The record descriptions are generally at the volume, subseries, or series level, but this does not preclude inclusion of stray items like a handful of copies of Revolutionary War letters in Captain David
Hopkins's file in the letters received, 1812-94, of the War Department's Ordnance Department. When this degree of thoroughness leads to careful descriptions of stray interrelated pre-Federal fiscal volumes in widely separate places, it is much to be admired. On the other hand, when this painstaking inclusiveness causes record groups to appear in particular chapters only because they contain one facsimile of a 1771 map or two 1923 watercolors depicting a Revolutionary artilleryman, it raises doubts as to the level of judgment exercised in the effort.

After two chapters, "General Records of the Pre-Federal Period and the Continental Congress" and "Records of the Constitutional Convention," ten chapters cover "Commercial Affairs," "Fiscal Affairs," "Foreign Affairs," "Indians and Indian Affairs," "Judicial Affairs," "Land and Exploration," "Military Affairs," "Naval Affairs," "Pensions, Bounty-Land Grants, and Other Claims," and "Postal Affairs." Entries within the chapters are arranged by record group in numerical order. An exception is made for Record Group 360, the Records of the Continental and Confederation Congresses and the Constitutional Convention, which in each chapter immediately follows the introductory paragraphs and helps to provide the context for the rest of the records. Extensive cross-references use a numbering scheme that combines a two-letter abbreviation for the chapter subject, the record group number, and sequential paragraph numbers. This cumbersome scheme is clearly explained in the introduction, which further enhances its status with the dubious instruction that these numbers should be "cited by researchers when requesting records." These numbers are also used for the references in the index.

Consistent implementation of this guide's procedures leads to six separate and partially repetitive entries each for the Records of the Spanish Governors of Puerto Rico and the Records of the Government of the Virgin Islands [Danish West Indies]. These
entries fall within the definition of the volume's scope, but are essentially unrelated to the other records. A less mechanical and more sensible solution might have been a discussion in the front matter. In a few cases omissions rather than inclusions are also a problem. No mention is made of the National Genealogical Society's published *Index of Revolutionary War Pension Applications in the National Archives*, and the editions of the papers of Robert Morris, Nathanael Greene, and Henry Laurens ought to have been cited even if other "papers of" projects less directly derived from the described records had to be omitted. Careful notation of the location of originals in the description of photostatic or transcribed copies (or the disclaimer that they are not known) falters with a letterbook of John Paul Jones and a number of logs and diaries in the Naval Records Collection of the Office of Naval Records and Library.

Because this volume's scope is defined by chronology rather than provenance and its coverage is thorough almost to a fault, it is a potpourri that ranges from the Declaration of Independence and the colonial vice-admiralty court records of New York and South Carolina to a receipt "for reducing one pound steel to dust for making Fireworks to commemorate the anniversary of Independence" in 1781 and a 1955 report on a search for pathological materials removed from the body of John Paul Jones. This reviewer, one of the few persons who will ever read the volume from beginning to end, can testify that a high standard for description prevails throughout. It is unfortunate that this important finding aid is encumbered with an awkward structure and the results of some dubious judgments as to what merited inclusion between its covers.

Charles H. Lesser  
South Carolina Department of Archives and History

The concept of providing a tool for strategic preservation planning by archival, manuscript, and special collections repositories is the ambitious and worthy goal of Guide and Resources for Archival Strategic Preservation Planning (GRASP), produced by the National Association of Government Archives and Records Administrators (NAGARA) with support from the National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC). Although a daunting tome of some nine hundred numbered pages and a computer disk, this publication makes available for the first time in one place, in a convenient loose-leaf format, an impressive array of useful information and provides a framework for studying and evaluating short- and long-term preservation needs. For so ambitious a project, it is perhaps inevitable that the final product is not without flaws. GRASP remains an important step toward bringing together the micromanagement of preservation functions into a broad program of coordinated long-range evaluation and planning.

The project administrators and director rightly point to the need for a preservation tool directed toward archival repositories, with a planning mechanism as a central element. The field of preservation publishing has focused heavily on library standards, microfilming and reformatting for book collections, and conservation of specialized media. There has been a void in published literature devoted to strategic program planning for archives, bringing together a broad management perspective and
information from a wide spectrum of the field. The excellent SAA manual by Mary Lynn Ritzenthaler, which is soon to be published in an updated and revised edition, serves as an introduction to preservation and conservation issues for practicing and beginning professionals. GRASP focuses on institutional preservation planning, following the format of the planning tool produced for libraries by the Association of Research Libraries (ARL).

GRASP is first and foremost a management tool, formulated because of a demonstrated need in government archives. The authors have intended, however, that its use be broadly applicable to all repositories, large and small, housing archival materials. Their goal for broad applicability has been largely achieved. Divided into three sections (or tools), GRASP provides a manual which outlines preservation planning goals under fourteen archival functions and suggests the benefits and questions that must be addressed (166 pages); a computer-assisted interactive self-study on two 5 1/2" diskettes or one 3 1/4" diskette that will run on an IBM-compatible personal computer (with at least 350K memory); and a 645-page "resource compendium" that includes not only a bibliography of major published sources in seven areas relating to preservation issues, but reproduces many of the most important ones in full or in major part.

The manual, with its detailed outlines of goals and objectives and concomitant decision factors relating to actors, mechanisms, benefits, finances, and review procedures is a key element of the publication, but the two sections that immediately attract attention for their obvious practical application and usefulness are the computer-assisted self-study and the "resource compendium." Any repository will find the compendium a gold mine of information. Here one finds copies of articles from a wide range of publications, from College and Research Libraries News to Conservation Administration News, as well as a wealth
of unpublished documents. Included are sample preservation surveys and self-studies from archival institutions; ANSI and other technical standards; technical information papers and staff information papers from the National Archives; lists of organizations and institutions involved in preservation of documentary resources with a description of their activities, publications, addresses, and telephone numbers; names and addresses of vendors for specific preservation supplies and services; a list of products tested by the National Archives; and information on contracting microfilm services and on applying for grants. The resource compendium brings together in one easy-to-use collection those documents and directories that few of us ever seem to have in complete form in one place, easily retrievable. Preservation administrators in libraries would likely not have many of the sources that pertain primarily to archives. The readings are divided into sections on resources, administration, security and disaster, physical plan and environment, record materials, and reprography.

The computer-assisted preservation survey includes some three hundred questions on diskette, relating to aspects of a repository’s operations from surveying to accessioning to housing and access. More "interactive" than a paper questionnaire, the computer software program entices involvement in preservation planning (the "entertainment" factor) and makes the analysis of information a transparent process. The computer does it for you! For larger institutions, in which several staff in specialized areas may need to be involved in responses to the computer-prompted questions, an inflexibility in the software program may present difficulties. One cannot skip a question and go back to it later, without beginning the entire program over again. There are several minor problems (unclear wording of one or two questions, typos, and spelling errors) that a closer editing would have corrected. And there are some curious omissions or emphases.
A question on fumigation of materials is not followed by a question about the methods of fumigation, now a major issue. References to machine-readable records occur in several sequences, yet there is no special emphasis to indicate the increasing importance of the preservation problem they present to large modern archival institutions.

The report that is generated at the end of the interactive session, which will vary in time required depending on the complexity of the institution, seems not as significant as the process of going through the intellectual exercise (since additional staff and resources are hardly revelations), but will be useful for providing solid information to administrators who oversee budgets and resource allocation. The computer-assisted survey, despite the inevitable problems with a new product, is an imaginative and valuable vehicle for stimulating more precise and information-based planning.

More than a set of practical tools for assessing and administering a strategic preservation plan, GRASP is also an educational vehicle. It must be used critically and with intelligent selectivity, but it is an important innovation, and a challenging one, forcing archival administrators to approach preservation in a thorough programmatic way, in order to move our institutions beyond the patchwork approach to preservation. It is hoped that the publication will stir comment and critique and that a revised edition will be forthcoming to take advantage of user criticisms and reactions. GRASP is a publication that every archival administrator will want to examine and utilize.

Linda M. Matthews
Emory University
Meeting the Preservation Challenge. Edited by Jan Merrill-Ol

Preservation issues were the focus of the Association of Research Libraries (ARL) meeting in October of 1987, when leaders in the library preservation field convened to explore how research libraries could meet the needs of deteriorating and endangered collections. Speakers offered perspectives on the design and management of preservation programs along with strategies to help librarians better respond to "the preservation challenge."

Papers from this session originally appeared in Preservation: A Research Library Priority for the 1990s: Minutes of the 111 Membership Meeting of the Association of Research Libraries. Then in 1988, ARL published the conference papers separately in Meeting the Preservation Challenge, edited by conference participant Jan Merrill-Ol
dham. The papers are preceded by the editor's foreword and are divided into four sections: an introduction, "Preservation Program Development in the Research Library," "Special Perspectives," and a conclusion.

Given the passage of time since these papers were first delivered, general readers may ask whether these talks offer any new initiatives for addressing preservation problems. Archivists examining these papers should evaluate the suggested approaches and determine whether or not they are applicable to archival as well as library settings.

Readers will likely find "Preservation Program Development in the Research Library" the most substantive section. William J. Studer, director of libraries at Ohio State, makes a number of important points in "The Role of the Library Director: Wherefor and Wherewithal." Administrators are urged to be as interested
in the physical state of collections as in collection size. Studer believes leadership must come from the highest levels of the institution's organization and encourages administrators to commit internal financial resources for preservation. He also cautions his audience against overreliance on new technologies as a solution to preservation problems. Studer's perspective suggestion of allocating acquisition funds to support preservation efforts will please many archivists and records managers who advocate similar approaches. He echoes the sentiments of many in the preservation field when he states, "Ultimately, preservation is everyone's concern."

In his enthusiasm to promote interest in preservation and rally the library community, Studer regrettably underrepresents the achievements archivists and other nonlibrary personnel have had in the preservation arena: "Unfortunately, the crisis that threatens our documentary heritage is still largely unrecognized outside the library field."

While there are some similarities between libraries and archives, fundamental differences in their organizational and managerial structures often hamper the application of library preservation program components to archival settings. Because many of the features of Jan Merrill-Oldham's "The Preservation Program Defined" are specific to a research library preservation program, with its focus on circulating collections, this discussion is of limited usefulness to the archivist. Merrill-Oldham does, however, stress the need for integrating preservation activities with other repository functions, important for the success of library and archives preservation programs.

Problems of adapting the library program to the archival setting are also inherent in Carolyn Clark Morrow's "Staffing the Preservation Program." While librarians have been more inclined to bring an individual with preservation knowledge into the institution, archivists have looked from within to identify
archival administrators prepared to champion the preservation cause. Choosing preservation personnel from within flows naturally from preservation's intrinsic place in the archival mission.

In considering ways to structure reporting lines, Morrow suggests that the preservation administrator may report to the director, assistant director for collection development, or head of technical services. Successful instances of archival preservation personnel reporting to administrators for reference or public service can also be cited.

Archivists will discover Wes Boomgaarden's "Prospective Preservation" well written and informative. Boomgaarden's concepts transfer well from library to archival setting. He provides practical information about the interplay of factors affecting the longevity of holdings and stresses the importance of staff and user education.

Boomgaarden outlines preventive measures that can ultimately preclude the need for expensive remedies. Archivists must embrace this significant point if they are to care successfully for the massive numbers of items entrusted to them. Because preservation statistics have traditionally focused on numbers of items treated, institutional commitment to preservation has often been measured by money spent on staff and equipment to perform remedial treatment activities. Coordinated programs, like holdings maintenance in archives, look to shift the yardstick for preservation from remedial to preventive activities. Through efforts of this kind, our progress in meeting the preservation challenge may one day be measured not by the number of items treated but by the number of items that never need to be treated.

In a readable and provocative talk, "Preservation Selection and Treatment Options," Barclay Ogden explodes a number of assumptions about the "brittle book problem" and recommends a strategy for preservation selection. Implicating use as well as
deterioration as contributing factors to collection condition, Ogden advocates a selection strategy based both on condition and use. Although his discussion is based on the book format, Ogden’s philosophy deftly translates to archival preservation selection practices and is worthwhile reading for the librarian and archivist alike.

In the final paper in this section, "Preservation Planning and Perspective," Gay Walker fosters the planning process. Archivists will find the section on what it is that should be planned much more relevant than the preceding section, "What Planning Tools Are Available?" In her discussion of planning tools, Walker devotes considerable attention to ARL’s self-study. The possibility that staff become "specialists" as a result of conducting the study pinpoints a major flaw in the attributes of the tool. The study is only as useful as the way it is used; if users do not fully understand the purpose of the survey or how it should be carried out, the statistical validity of the survey must be questioned. The study itself requires a significant commitment of human resources and is often regarded by library administrators as a "final product" rather than the first step in a preservation program. Archivists would be better directed toward examining the recent Guide and Resources for Archival Strategic Preservation Planning (GRASP) developed by the National Association of Government Archives and Records Administrators (NAGARA) as a planning tool for archival repositories. (GRASP is available from the Society of American Archivists.) [See previous review.]

Walker provides a good summary of the planning process and what can be gained from it. She reminds her audience that relying on regional, cooperative, or another’s planning is not proper institutional planning. Preservation planning cannot be regarded as a special project but must be "ongoing and evolving." Stressing the importance of knowing where you are as well where
you are going, Walker writes, "The success of a preservation program and the rate at which it is implemented are often directly proportionate to the amount of effective planning that precedes action. Once established, program components should be reviewed regularly so that problems can be identified, successful activities expanded, and new components added."

While several of the conference participants highlight important aspects of preservation, readers must generally wade through large portions of the publication before arriving at enlightening sections. Archivists accustomed to scanning library literature for information adaptable to archives will still encounter difficulties, mainly because these papers have not undergone a much-needed transformation from oral presentation to written text. Analogies used to engage the audience or relax the speaker can appear out of place on the printed page. Nuances conveyed through a speaker's delivery or intonation are lost, and statements may be interpreted more harshly than otherwise intended.

A number of editorial oversights impede a smooth reading of text:
In the foreword, a verb is missing in the opening sentence of the second paragraph.
Patricia Battin is the president of the Commission on (not of) Preservation and Access. (Foreword)
Page 4 repeats the last line of page 3.
Page 18 has "lactivities" instead of "activities".
Morrow footnotes Studer's paper but not Merrill-Oldham's (page 26).
On page 36, the first sentence of the second paragraph is lacking a verb.
On page 37, Wei T'o nonaqueous book "acidification" system should read "deacidification."
On page 56, a word is missing in the first sentence of paragraph 4.

While the text itself was printed on paper meeting the minimum requirements of ANSI Z39.48-1984, the 8 1/2 x 11-inch soft binding is held together by only a hot-melt adhesive, certain to create its own "preservation challenge."

Meeting the Preservation Challenge allows the reader a glimpse at those preservation issues considered most critical to the research library community in the late 1980s. While archivists may not wish to embrace all philosophies or emulate all suggested practices, examining library preservation models can be a useful exercise and review for assessing archival preservation priorities.

Hilary A. Kaplan
Conservator
Georgia Department of Archives and History

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The SAA Newsletter Index, compiled by Laura Saegert, indexes subject matter from the newsletter's beginning in 1974 through 1988. The spiral-bound paperback has cross references and up to four levels of subentries. Despite some inconsistencies in categories and indentation, the comprehensive index should be an aid to the study of the organization and U. S. archival activity since 1974. It is 58 pages long plus cover and measures 8 1/2 by 11 inches, a handy size to file with the newsletters and other SAA publications. Order from SAA (312-922-0140); $10 members, $14 nonmembers; subject to shipping and handling charges.

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The National Governors' Association (NGA) has issued a publication, *Executive Chamber Records: A Guide for Governors*, by Dorothy Dale Pollack, records management analyst with the North Carolina Division of Archives and History. NAGARA developed the publication for the NGA. In 52 pages it emphasizes the importance of governors' records, provides a summary of records management principles, and discusses in detail records retention and disposition schedules, filing systems, nontextual records, and management of archival records. It is available for $10 from the NGA Publications Office, 444 N. Capitol St., Washington, DC 20001-1572 (202-624-5300).

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*Permanent Paper: The Alkaline Advantage*, a two-page informational handout printed on alkaline paper, is available free from the Georgia Department of Archives and History, 330 Capitol Ave., SE, Atlanta, GA 30334.

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*Archives and You: The Benefits of Historical Records* is a twelve-page booklet directed to a general audience to help explain the fundamentals of historical records. A free copy may be obtained from Terry Sewell, New York State Archives and Records Administration, 10A46 Cultural Education Center, Albany, NY 12230.

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*A New Age: Electronic Information Systems, State Governments, and the Preservation of the Archival Record* offers principles to guide the management of government records and
help shape government-wide information policy coordination. Published by the National Association of Government Archives and Records Administrators, the brochure deals with the fundamental impact of electronic information systems on traditional recordkeeping practices. Free single copies are available from Gaye Horton, Council of State Governments, P.O. Box 11910, Iron Works Pike, Lexington, KY 40578. There is a modest charge for bulk orders.
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EDITORIAL POLICY

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 Provenance.

Manuscripts and related correspondence should be addressed to Margery N. Sly; Editor, Provenance; Smith College Archives, Northampton, MA 01063.

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

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Two copies of Provenance will be provided to the author without charge.

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**Manuscript Requirements**

Manuscripts should be submitted in double-spaced typescripts 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.

Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies, the original typescript and two copies. Articles submitted on diskette (IBM compatible, in unformatted ASCII form) are welcome. Diskettes should be accompanied by three formatted hard copies.

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

References and footnotes should conform to accepted scholarly standards. Ordinarily, *Provenance* uses footnote format illustrated in the University of Chicago Manual of Style, 13th edition.


Use of terms which have special meanings for archivists, manuscript curators, and records managers should conform to the definitions in *A Glossary for Archivists, Manuscript Curators, and Records Managers*, compiled by Lewis J. Bellardo and Lynn Lady Bellardo (Chicago: SAA, 1992). Copies of this glossary may be purchased from the Society of American Archivists, 600 S. Federal Street, Suite 504, Chicago, IL 60605.
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