

Archival Issues

Journal of the Midwest Archives Conference

Volume 18, Number 2, 1993

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EDITORIAL POLICY

Archival Issues, a semi-annual journal published by the Midwest Archives Conference, is concerned with the issues and problems confronting the contemporary archivist. Submissions relating to archival theory and current practice are solicited. Diversity among topics and points of view is encouraged. Ideas and opinions expressed by the contributors are not necessarily those of the Midwest Archives Conference or its Editorial Board.

Material in a wide range of formats—including articles, review essays, proceedings of seminars, and case studies of specific archival projects or functions—will be considered for publication. Guidelines for authors of articles and case studies are available upon request from the editorial board chair.

Manuscripts should be sent to the board chair, Ann Bowers, Center for Archival Collections, 5th Floor, Jerome Library, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, OH 43403. The editorial board uses the current edition of *Chicago Manual of Style* as the standard for style, including footnote format. Decisions on manuscripts will be rendered within ten weeks of submission. Offers to review books or suggestions of books to review should be sent to the book review editor, Dennis Meissner, Minnesota Historical Society, 345 Kellogg Blvd. W., St. Paul, MN 55102.

MAC members receive *Archival Issues* and the *MAC Newsletter* upon payment of annual dues of \$16; institutional memberships are \$32. Single issues of the journal are available at \$3.50 plus fifty cents for postage and handling. An index to Vols. 1-8 (1976-83) is available at the single-issue price. Inquiries regarding membership or purchase of journal copies should be directed to Becky Haglund Tousey, MAC Secretary, Kraft General Foods Inc., Archives Dept., 6350 Kirk St., Morton Grove, IL 60053: 708/646-2981.

Articles appearing in this journal are abstracted and indexed in *America: History and Life* and *Library Literature*.

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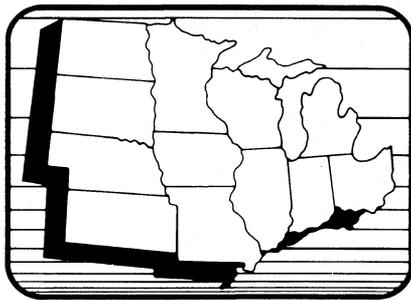
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CREATING A FRONT DOOR TO ARCHIVAL KNOWLEDGE IN THE UNITED STATES: GUIDELINES FOR A MASTER OF ARCHIVAL STUDIES DEGREE

TYLER O. WALTERS

ABSTRACT: The author explores the need for the Master of Archival Studies (M.A.S.) degree in the United States and its expression through the Society of American Archivists' *Guidelines for the Development of a Curriculum for a Master of Archival Studies*. He contends that the substantial and distinct body of archival knowledge, coupled with the emergence of new information technologies that have changed the way archives are created, maintained, and used, make an autonomous two-year degree curriculum necessary. The article examines SAA's history in educational guidelines development, the Canadian experience with educational guidelines and twelve years of M.A.S. degree programs, the growth of U.S. graduate archival education during the 1980s, and major features of the 1993 draft M.A.S. guidelines.

Suppose you are a student about to graduate with a bachelor's degree today. Your degree may be in history, political science, sociology, English, or any other subject for that matter. While fulfilling the graduation requirements, you completed an extended paper based upon researching primary documents. Perhaps you are a student who recently completed a master's degree in history with a thesis, or a master's of library science with an internship in the local university archives or manuscript repository. More than likely, you and other students fitting these descriptions had contact with archivists. Facing an imminent career decision, you reflect on your experience with historical documents and proceed to learn more about the field of archives. You eventually decide to pursue archives as a career.

Where should students like these go to receive an education in the field of archives? If they hold a history master's degree, perhaps they should get a library science degree. If they hold an M.L.S., perhaps they should get a master's in history. What if they recently finished undergraduate degrees and want to pursue an archives career? Most likely they will need to pursue another

degree in history or library science—but which one? Why are students pursuing advanced degrees in history and library science? Are they not looking for an education to become archivists? Yes, but today most archival curricula are a minor portion of a history graduate degree or a master of library science program.

In the United States students must pursue degrees in other fields, typically history or library science, if they want to become archivists. This could be thought of as the “back door” approach to entry into the archives profession. If the back door to archives is studying history or library science, then the front door must be studying archives. However, the situation is frustrating because, after consulting the 1993/94 SAA Education Directory, students discover that no education programs in the United States provide a major field in archives. In fact, programs offering a minor concentration tend to package the study of all archival methods into one course coupled with a semester-long practicum and course offerings introducing tangential areas like oral history and documentary editing. This approach places a heavy emphasis on learning through practical experience, which is no different than the on the job learning methods that generations of U.S. archivists have experienced. What is an aspiring archivist to do?

Today, many archivists want to build that front door to the profession for their future colleagues. They wish to impart to these students the wealth of knowledge and experience they have accumulated about archives as well as create a place to study documentary issues and improve archival methods. The students as future archival practitioners desire comprehensive education regarding the nature of archives, the existence of certain ideas and methodologies, and the use of certain practices. But today these students cannot find the front door to archival knowledge—because it does not exist. Equally important is the fact that without a larger body of research, archivists will continue to experience difficulties in developing methods to manage records in modern society. These desires of archivists, and students aspiring to become archivists, can be mutually satisfied through Master of Archival Studies (M.A.S.) degree programs.

The U.S. archival profession needs Master of Archival Studies degree programs because a substantial body of knowledge exists that is best communicated to students through a university-based curricular program. Studying archives through university curricula is nothing new in the United States; archives courses have been available in universities for many years. However, the vast amount of unique knowledge archivists must master about records throughout their life cycle, as well as the considerable knowledge coming from other disciplines that enhance archival methods and practice, suggest that a two-year degree program where archives is the major field of study is long overdue. But the need for M.A.S. programs is driven by more than just the sheer amount of knowledge to be learned. Because the archives discipline is distinct from other disciplines, such as history or library science, it needs a distinct degree. In support of this assertion Terry Eastwood has written that “the knowledge which archivists need to do their job and on which their techniques are based must be distinctive because the nature of archives, a centuries-old form of documentation, is distinctive, and therefore archival education must be distinctive.”¹ The archival profession’s distinct and substantial body of knowledge requires, at a minimum,

a two-year graduate degree to prepare archivists for all the challenges they will face throughout their careers.

Another major reason for the existence of M.A.S. degrees is that, in light of the rapidly changing environment in which records are created, maintained, and disseminated, archival education can no longer consist of a few introductory archives courses. This changing environment is largely represented by the new information technologies and systems in place. Archivists must continue to develop better methods of identifying, selecting, appraising, and confirming the authentic nature of modern records in this changing environment. Graduate archival education must provide a pedagogical forum where interdisciplinary perspectives and methods can be brought to bear upon the crucible of core archival knowledge. For all these reasons it is important to develop degree programs in which archives is the major field of study, not just the minor concentration.

Given the lack of opportunity for students to concentrate their graduate studies on archives, the Society of American Archivists (SAA) has decided to create guidelines for establishing Master of Archival Studies degree programs. In May, 1993 the SAA Committee on Education and Professional Development (CEPD) released its draft "Guidelines for the Development of a Curriculum for a Master of Archival Studies." The 1993 draft guidelines revise the 1988 SAA graduate archival education guidelines because graduate archival education programs have not been developing to the point where they are addressing all the curriculum elements described in the 1988 document. In 1990 the SAA CEPD realized that an M.A.S. degree program is necessary to incorporate all the knowledge archivists must call upon during their careers. While several archival education programs were developed beyond the three-course sequence called for as the minimum requirement in 1988, they were not creating courses in the core areas of archival practice such as appraisal.

The Society of American Archivists wants future students choosing the archival profession to have the best educational opportunities available in preparing to meet tomorrow's challenges to the archival endeavor. SAA chose to develop M.A.S. guidelines to assist universities that one day may decide to put their resources behind establishing M.A.S. programs. SAA itself is not a university; therefore, it cannot promulgate degree programs. However, SAA can advise universities once the commitment has been made to support the degree. Through the creation of degree program guidelines SAA, as the preeminent archival professional organization in the United States, can be an active advisor to universities and represent the interests of the U.S. archival profession. Professionally sanctioned guidelines for the development of Master of Archival Studies degrees are the appropriate tools to encourage and support universities in the development of degrees in archival studies.

U.S. and Canadian Antecedents

To understand how SAA arrived at creating guidelines for M.A.S. programs one must first look at the history of SAA graduate archival education guidelines. A view of the Canadian experience will also be useful. The Association of Canadian Archivists (ACA) began working on their first education guidelines in tandem with the SAA. The Canadian guidelines of 1976 and the U.S. version of

1977 both began with a common purpose, but one significant difference is evident in the final versions. This difference foreshadowed the course that graduate archival education took in the two countries.

In examining the American progress toward improving graduate archival education, observations on the twelve-year Canadian experience with multiple M.A.S. programs may provide further insights into the M.A.S. degree's likely future in the United States. Understanding the Canadian M.A.S. experience in conjunction with the subsequent growth of U.S. archival education during the 1980s will set the stage for understanding the goals and objectives of SAA in composing M.A.S. guidelines in 1993. These goals and objectives, and the major features of the M.A.S. guidelines, will be examined and shown to be a departure from past SAA guidelines. Finally, additional issues and concerns about the establishment of M.A.S. programs in the United States will be addressed.

1. 1977 SAA Education Guidelines

The history of graduate archival education in the United States is one of dependence. In 1977 the best archival education programs in the U.S. amounted to only a couple courses attached to the educational programs of other disciplines. SAA's 1977 "Guidelines for a Minor or Concentration in Archival Education" stand as a monument to this vision of U.S. archival education. The purpose of the 1977 version of the SAA Committee on Education and Professional Development (SAA CEPD), and the guidelines they were to produce, was "to consider the recommendations on education made by the SAA Committee for the 1970s."² The Committee for the 1970s' conclusions were that archives "does not constitute a sufficient intellectual discipline to merit a separate degree program," and that "our best interests as a profession are not served by attempts to develop separate degree programs in our universities and colleges for archives administration."³

The 1977 guidelines codified what had been occurring already within the better sequences of archival education courses found in U.S. universities. A three-course minor concentration in archives built onto history or library science programs was the model advocated in this document. This minor would cover the subject matter defined as "the nature of archives," "the acquisition of archives," "the processing of archives," "the use of archives," and "the administration of archives." These subject areas, comprising the same basic professional concerns shared by archivists today, were somehow to be covered comprehensively in SAA's recommended minor concentration. The text of the 1977 guidelines reflected this perspective.⁴

The SAA guidelines bear a strong resemblance to the Association of Canadian Archivists' "Guidelines Towards A Curriculum for Graduate Archival Training Leading to A Master's Degree in Archival Science," developed by Edwin Welch and Hugh Taylor in 1976. Canadian archivists began discussing formulations for their graduate archival education programs about 1969. Seven years later the need for guidelines for graduate archival education became one of the priorities of the newly formed Association of Canadian Archivists. At the outset the SAA and ACA documents were so similar that even the aforementioned titles of the archival subject areas remained identical. The similarities were personified by the presence of Canadian archivist Hugh Taylor on both

committees responsible for fashioning education guidelines: the ACA Education Committee and the SAA CEPD.

However, one distinct difference exists between the Canadian and U.S. versions. The SAA guidelines refer to being part of a graduate degree and to being a minor concentration. The SAA guidelines specifically ruled out the possibility of establishing an autonomous archival education program, invoking the wisdom of the Committee for the 1970s. The ACA document does not impose the same proscription, instead leaving the door open for the development of graduate degree programs in archival studies. This distinction has been identified by Terry Eastwood who stated, "The ACA's guidelines were constructed so as not to restrict initiatives to establish a separate program of studies leading to a master's degree in a Canadian university." The key words in the title of the SAA guidelines, "minor or concentration," as opposed to the ACA guidelines' "leading to a master's degree," tell the whole story.

By 1977 initiatives in North American archival education had reached a fork in the road; the distinction between the U.S. and Canadian varieties was now stated explicitly. The SAA endorsed programs offering an archives minor grafted onto a master's degree in history or library science. The ACA chose the road toward establishing an autonomous Master of Archival Studies degree. Five years later the first Canadian M.A.S. program was established at the University of British Columbia School of Librarianship, with its first class graduating in 1983.

2. 1988 SAA Education Guidelines

The revision of the 1977 SAA guidelines, approved by SAA Council in February of 1988, develops and articulates several points necessary to improving graduate archival education. Perhaps the most important assertion is that "the work of an archivist represents that of a profession, not a craft or applied vocation. Theory is not only just as important as practice but guides and determines that practice." The relationship between archival theory and practice was not addressed in the 1977 guidelines. However, implicit in those earlier guidelines was an emphasis on practice, not on theory. This is demonstrated in the guidelines' dearth of requisite courses and their preoccupation with practicum administration. Thus, the statement in the 1988 guidelines represents a clear departure from the past.

The 1988 guidelines next address how "the changing nature of the profession demonstrates the need for a more extensive approach to archival education." These guidelines are offered "to support multi-course programs at master's and doctoral levels in related fields or fully independent graduate programs in archival education." For the first time an SAA document referring to standards for graduate archival education in the United States suggests and approves of the existence of stand alone programs. The revised guidelines further state that the "development of graduate archival education programs with additional offerings (more than three courses) will further strengthen the profession and its individual members."⁵ Again, this represents a change in direction from the SAA Committee for the 1970s.

The carefully chosen words in the 1988 guidelines strain to lend support to the establishment of two-year master's degree programs in archival studies. However, they stop short of stating that because the archives discipline is dis-

tinct, it therefore needs a distinct degree, as Terry Eastwood declared during that same year.⁶ In fact, the main thrust of these guidelines is to provide a standard for the three-course sequence archival education program.⁷ A member of the SAA CEPD subcommittee responsible for the 1988 guidelines recently wrote that it was "a compromise document that dealt with the complex political realities within the United States, but attempted to set the stage for a full master's program."⁸

The 1988 guidelines also contribute significantly to articulating a comprehensive knowledge base necessary for all archivists. The "curriculum elements" section comprises categories entitled, "Nature of Information, Records, and Historical Documentation," "Archives in Modern Society," "Basic Archival Functions," "Issues and Relationships that Affect Archival Functions," and "Managerial Functions." Along with the many component parts of these categories, this section describes in greater detail than ever before the knowledge base thought to be necessary for archivists.⁹ The vast amount of knowledge essential to understanding archives that is described there makes it impossible to successfully treat the entire body of archival knowledge within three courses. This is just another feature of the 1988 guidelines demonstrating that the U.S. archival profession was ready to probe the possibilities of a full two-year archival studies degree. The now traditional triumvirate of one course in theory, one practicum, and one independent study that was put forth as the model U.S. archival education program in 1977 was again invoked in 1988, but this time it was recognized to be the minimum requirement."¹⁰

3. *The Growth of U.S. Graduate Archival Education in the 1980s*

Five years after the 1988 guidelines were issued archivists in the United States are less concerned with where to attach archival curricula. Instead, they are focusing on the needs of the archives profession and on developing their own professional education. The most recent example of this perspective is the Winter 1993 issue of the *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, entitled "Educating American Archivists for the Twenty-First Century," and guest edited by Richard Cox. These articles on graduate archival education and continuing education cover topics such as refocusing graduate curricula on core archival knowledge, integrating into curricula the impact of information technology on archival theory, the mission of schools of library and information science to provide archival education, the effectiveness of continuing education in modifying actual archival practice, and developing archival curricula that integrate all aspects of theory, methodology, and practice. This journal issue repeatedly points to two important themes: that archives is a discipline, governed by theory, which informs practice, and that graduate level archival studies degree programs are warranted in the United States to prepare archivists for professional practice based on the knowledge inherent in their discipline.

As the recent archival literature from the United States illustrates, the profession's attention is now centered on the feasibility of establishing and maintaining a two-year graduate level curriculum in archival studies.¹¹ This may not be the leap of faith that some people believe it to be. In fact several graduate programs already go well beyond the SAA's 1988 guidelines. Before describing how far U.S. archival education has come since 1977, it is important to review

the findings of a recent article on U.S. archival education that characterizes its progress as dubious at best.

In the United States, graduate archival education offerings continue to grow in the wake of SAA's 1988 "Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education." Although course offerings have grown, Tim Ericson, in his recently published article, "Abolish the Recent: The Progress of Archival Education," clearly demonstrates that too many of these courses are what he calls "related course work." He regards these as "nice to have and doubtless useful to some extent but too watered down, such as Archives and Museum Administration, or too generic, such as Computer Applications and Their Implications, or tangential to archival work, such as Oral History."¹² This category of course work does little if anything to deliver graduate education in such core archival knowledge areas as appraisal, arrangement and description, and reference.¹³ Ericson also refers to another class of course work he calls "plausible electives." He describes these as "classes such as Seminar in Handling Photographic Collections." These are in fact useful to archivists in many settings. However, they do not form a part of the common ground of theory, methodology, and practice in which all archivists find themselves situated.¹⁴ These categories of course work should not be construed as a substitute for course work in the core archival knowledge areas.

If we are willing to accept the weight of Ericson's criticisms, reason still exists for optimism. In the 1993/94 SAA Education Directory at least eleven out of the thirty-nine programs listed offer three courses addressing the core archival knowledge areas¹⁵ in addition to other courses in the plausible electives area. Incredibly, two schools offer in their catalogs at least twelve archives-related courses listed in the SAA Education Directory. The fact that so many programs developed beyond the existing SAA guidelines is reason enough for updating the guidelines. As was the case with the subsequent growth of archival education after 1977 and 1988, a 1993 update should assist these eleven programs in developing further. However, the observations of Tim Ericson should be heeded. Even within these eleven programs the majority of available courses are outside of the core archival knowledge areas, falling into his categories of "plausible electives" and "related course work." More semester-long courses devoted to exploring the theory, methodology, and practice of core archival topics still need to be developed.

Although curricular development is progressing in a haphazard fashion, a more significant development is occurring in U.S. graduate archival education. The other component critical to any education program is its faculty. The first full-time, tenure-track archival educator was appointed in a U.S. university in 1976, the second in 1982. Ten years after the second appointment approximately nine tenure-track archival educator positions existed. The growth of a faculty of archival educators in the United States during the 1980s, at the rate of one each one and one-half years, represents the most important step to this date in improving U.S. graduate archival education.¹⁶

The growth of a U.S. faculty in archival studies is significant because archival educators are the interested individuals who have the wherewithal to think about developing course instruction and an entire curriculum. They have the resources to devote to investigating archival issues, and for preparing incipient archivists to enter the profession. They will make the case for expanded graduate archival education within their universities.¹⁷ Ultimately, it will be

archival educators who will represent the greater profession in building a commitment in universities to support M.A.S. programs, not practicing archivists and not SAA. These latter two groups do not have the necessary influence. Only the universities themselves can and will decide if they wish to put their resources behind establishing M.A.S. degree programs. With the growth in the number of faculty-level, full-time archival educators, and with more course offerings in core archival functions, U.S. archival education now has the foundation necessary to move toward the establishment of formal Master of Archival Studies programs.

4. Canadian Experience with Education Guidelines and M.A.S. Programs

Another important reason for promulgating the United States M.A.S. guidelines is the success of M.A.S. programs in Canada. When Canadian archivists created guidelines for their Master of Archival Studies degree programs their process of communicating archival knowledge matured, resulting in a much more comprehensive educational method than previously experienced. The Canadians' twelve years of experience with M.A.S. degree programs provide a body of experiences—a testing ground of sorts—for the U.S. archival profession. U.S. archivists can observe, study, and derive principles from the Canadian experience and apply the fruits of this analysis to their own archival education system.

Today four M.A.S. programs exist in Canada: the University of British Columbia, founded in 1981; the Université de Montreal, 1983; the Université Laval, 1988; and the University of Manitoba, 1991. A fifth graduate archival studies program is being established at the University of Toronto Faculty of Library and Information Studies. Additionally, both of the Quebec programs offer undergraduate certificates in archives and records management. Montreal has offered this option since 1983. In a recent essay, Bryan Corbett, the immediate past chair of the Association of Canadian Archivists' Education Committee, identified four important factors in the maturing of the archives profession: the recognition of archives as a separate field of study; the linking together of archives, records management, and manuscript curatorship; the emphasis on the universal and international applicability of archival theory and practice; and the need for research in archival science.¹⁸ It is the recognition of these principles upon which the five Canadian archival studies programs have been founded.

The Canadian programs are continuing to grow and a national standard for graduate archival education is emerging. The University of British Columbia (UBC) School of Librarianship has become the School of Library, Archival and Information Studies. The UBC M.A.S. program now employs three professors of archival studies, having added to its faculty in 1987 and 1991. A fourth faculty member has been appointed recently and will begin in the fall of 1994. The Association of Canadian Archivists' revised M.A.S. guidelines of 1989, entitled "Guidelines for the Development of a Two-Year Curriculum for A Master of Archival Studies Programme," has directly affected the beneficial development of Canadian M.A.S. programs. The new guidelines codify what is defined as archival knowledge and how it is to be delivered in a graduate setting. They address new areas such as the program's location within the university, admis-

sions requirements, and resources for teaching. Where the 1976 Canadian guidelines expressed the hope that one day M.A.S. programs would become a reality, the 1989 Canadian M.A.S. guidelines stand as a testament to the success of the M.A.S.

The results of these new guidelines have been astounding. They were developed concurrently with the reorganization of the UBC program's curricular offerings.¹⁹ The University of Manitoba established its M.A.S. program using these new guidelines. The University of Windsor's History Department has been working closely with the ACA M.A.S. guidelines toward improving their archival studies program. Other institutions of higher education, such as the University of Western Ontario, York University, the University of Ottawa, and Carleton University have all expressed to the ACA interest in supporting graduate archival studies programs. Today, Canadian archivists are developing comprehensive continuing education programs for practicing archivists. Their professional associations are creating the regional elements of a national strategy to encourage the availability of graduate education in all regions of the country. All of these developments stem from a foundation built on twelve years of experience with M.A.S. programs and more than three decades of commitment to making them a reality.²⁰

Features of the 1993 SAA M.A.S. Guidelines: Departures from the Past

With all of the developments in North American archival education, the Society of American Archivists Committee on Education and Professional Development feels that developing M.A.S. programs in the United States is in the archives profession's best interest. In composing the M.A.S. guidelines, the SAA seeks to aid the evolution of graduate archival education by identifying the knowledge areas underlying the field in the United States, developing guidelines to deliver appropriate course work covering those areas, suggesting a configuration of resources necessary to support such a curriculum, and assisting the maturing programs through their developmental stages.²¹ In several areas the M.A.S. guidelines move forward and tackle age-old issues, making them quite different from earlier educational guidelines. Examining some of the critical concepts present in the M.A.S. guidelines will initiate a deeper understanding of the nature of archival knowledge and how the guidelines attempt to render this knowledge pedagogically manageable.

1. The Guidelines Triumvirate: Contextual, Archival, and Complementary Knowledge

Central to the plan of the M.A.S. guidelines are the three knowledge areas they define: contextual knowledge, archival knowledge, and complementary knowledge. Together, these knowledge areas comprise the discipline of "archival studies." Archival studies is described as involving "all studies which increase knowledge of archives and their treatment from any perspective which is useful to the archivist.... They also include elements of administrative, legal, historical, management, philological, and information studies."²² These latter areas of study are expressed in the contextual and complementary knowledge areas of the curriculum. All three knowledge areas of archival studies must be represented and properly proportioned in graduate archival education programs.

In fact the M.A.S. guidelines recommend that two-thirds of the student's M.A.S. work be concentrated in the archival knowledge area because this category represents the core of an archival studies program. They further recommend that the contextual and complementary knowledge areas represent one-third of the student's work in the curriculum. The complementary disciplines and their knowledge areas will therefore assume their logical role in enhancing archival studies, not overshadowing it as is the case with present graduate archival education programs.

Contextual Knowledge. Contextual knowledge refers to an understanding of the administrative, legal, economic, social, and cultural structures in the United States. The guidelines, as published in May, 1993, classify these areas as education in U.S. organizational history, the U.S. legal system, and U.S. financial systems. At the 1993 SAA annual meeting during September, 1993, the CEPD updated the language of the contextual knowledge area specifically to identify other social frameworks such as professional, cultural, family, and religious systems. Studying these diverse social structures is a critical endeavor for archivists. They must have a deep understanding of the systems in society that create documentation from the conduct of their activities. Archivists will develop the knowledge foundation necessary to understand the context of records creation. That context will inform the theories and methods (represented in the archival knowledge area) that archivists must master to treat archives. This view of social systems linked to records creation is the archival perspective on the study of history and society.

In all likelihood many of the contextual topics will be covered in courses found in the undergraduate program. However, it is also more than likely that the archival perspective will be absent at this level of education. Therefore, it is important that within an M.A.S. program courses are developed to explore the genesis of documentary evidence from the previously studied social systems. Such courses would go beyond the existing introductory "archives and society" courses that typically illustrate the role of archival repositories in a democratic society: preserving the rights of Americans as citizens and providing information to them. Course work within or concurrent with the M.A.S. program must include archival considerations in the study of the social systems that are the most relevant to each student's career objectives. An historical and sociological understanding sufficient to facilitate career-long study of the creation of archives from these processes and frameworks must be instilled in each student.

Archival Knowledge. The archival knowledge area is described as knowledge that "prepares students to treat archives in accordance with their nature." Archival knowledge is born from the nature of archives, the circumstances of their creation. In other words, the knowledge archivists have of the nature of records creation, and their contextual understanding of social systems, is brought to bear on how archivists should manage the archival materials. It is from this awareness that principles such as provenance and original order are conceived. Simply put, archival knowledge is unique to the archival profession. It is not knowledge borrowed from other disciplines. Three instructional components comprise the archival knowledge area: "The History of Archives, Archival Organization and Legislation, and the Character of the Archival Profession"; "Records Management"; and "Archival Science." The instruction will analyze the nature of these components. The records management and

archival science components deserve further explanation due to the rapidly changing social and technological landscapes in which archivists function.

Archival Knowledge: Records Management. A recognition of the increasing involvement of the archivist at the point of records creation is apparent throughout the guidelines. In the “Conceptual Foundations” section the definition of an archival document states that “the nature of archival documents depends on the circumstances of their creation (i.e. why they are made or received). Therefore, archival documents must be protected since the moment of their creation on the grounds that their nature is not related to their degree of currency or type of use.”²³ Because of this integral relationship between archives and the process of general records creation, instruction relating to records management is located within the archival knowledge area, not the contextual or the complementary knowledge areas. Including records management as a component of archival knowledge recognizes the importance of the life continuum concept of records, including archival involvement in the records creation phase, particularly where new information technologies are involved.²⁴

The M.A.S. guidelines recognize that records management theory is archival theory. In other words, records management practices are born from the same body of knowledge as archival practices. Archival theory encompasses a “systematic understanding of what documents were made, received, and kept; how and why this was done; and how and why these activities changed or did not change over time.”²⁵ This knowledge determines how records are treated at each stage of their life, whether as active records in the office, semi-active records housed in a records center, or records preserved in an archives. Records management practices involving records creation control, record keeping systems, and automated information systems management and analysis all impinge upon the creation, maintenance, and communication of archival records. In practice, archivists must know about the methods and practices of records managers. The inclusion of records management education will also prepare archivists for the myriad records-related positions that enter into both areas in modern organizations.

This understanding of archives and records management fosters a pedagogical approach that creates the potential for M.A.S. programs to become a place where records managers of the future may also receive their professional education. They, too, can learn more about the entire life continuum of records, informing their own work in the records creation and active records phases. Records managers will also become knowledgeable about archival methods and of the requirements archivists have in caring for archives. Records management education in Master of Archival Studies programs will foster beneficial interactions between records managers and archivists and a common knowledge base for all information professionals involved in the management of records.

Archival Knowledge: Archival Science. Archival science is the core of archival knowledge. It represents the knowledge area that is unique to archives, and is thus the focus of the most course work. It is divided into pure theory, or ideas about the nature of archives, and the application of that theory through methodology (the ideas archivists hold about the treatment of archives) and practice (applying these methods in the real world). The M.A.S. guidelines use the phrase “archival science” because it is commonly used in the international archival profession. The word “science” is used as defined in Webster’s dictio-

nary: "knowledge possessed or attained through study or practice," or "something that may be studied or learned."²⁶ Archival knowledge expressed in the classroom will focus on the traditional functions of appraisal, acquisition/collection development, preservation, arrangement and description, reference service and the provision of access, and outreach.²⁷ Education in archival science must immerse the student in all aspects of theory, methodology, practice, and review of the scholarship concerning the traditional functions.

The archival science component embodies the core challenges facing the future of the archival profession. Issues such as those involving the effects of automated techniques on performing archival functions and involving records created by new information technologies will challenge archivists' understanding of the nature of archives and subsequently the theories, principles, and methods that have been derived. New methods to select and appraise records for permanent preservation, such as the documentation strategy approach, the information systems concept of appraisal, and such new approaches to appraisal as those offered by Frank Boles and Julia Marks Young, are all examples of developing archival methodologies that can be studied, analyzed, and synthesized into new and more useful perspectives to be taught to the next generation of archivists. The archival science component of the M.A.S. guidelines represents the intellectual core of the degree. Through its application in future M.A.S. programs all aspects of the nature of archives, throughout their life cycle, can be researched, observed, questioned, and better understood. The resulting new methods offered to carry out archival functions can be taught to current and future U.S. archivists in an effort to improve the quality of documentation selected and managed in archives.

Complementary Knowledge and the Interdisciplinary Perspective. Education in the complementary knowledge areas "gives students the instruments of other disciplines that can be brought to bear on their own, thereby contributing to its [archival studies] enrichment and development."²⁸ Inclusion of the complementary knowledge area in an M.A.S. program recognizes the interdisciplinary nature of archival studies. In fact, it is not just recognized but inherent in the guidelines. These two areas of knowledge, core archival knowledge and knowledge from other disciplines, must be integrated to better inform the work of archivists. This coupling will result in the new methods and technologies archivists need to utilize when managing modern archival records. The cross-fertilization present in archival studies will give rise to new practices in archival management, and perhaps even new theories of archival science. This is where the discipline of archival studies is forged.

A likely place for the interdisciplinary nature of archival education to flourish is in the study of records from new information technologies. The necessity of the archival management of electronic records requires such an approach. Where once the forms of records and the environment in which they were created were stable and familiar, they are now under constant change. The modern era of rapidly and continuously evolving information technologies used to create, maintain, and communicate recorded information has introduced this change. Therefore, methods not heretofore familiar to archivists must be learned, adapted, and applied. Archivists' understanding of records creation, identification and selection for acquisition, appraisal, arrangement, description, preservation, and use will become informed by information science's perspec-

tives on information resource management and the understanding of such topics as information storage and retrieval, and systems design and analysis. The interdisciplinary nature of archival studies, incorporating from other disciplines that which is useful to the archivist, must thrive if archivists are to ensure the future existence of accurate and authentic documentary evidence.

The guidelines are designed to support countless possibilities in the actual construction of the curriculum. M.A.S. programs will naturally utilize the strengths of their parent organizations. Programs located in library and information science schools may wish to develop specializations in the application of information science methods. A school with an emphasis in preservation administration and conservation may develop an archival specialty in that area. Some history department-based M.A.S. programs may establish a special focus on acquisition and appraisal, applying their strengths in utilizing various research methodologies and the study of administrative history. Schools of administration could specialize in educating future archival administrators in both the public and private arenas, as well as developing a public records specialty. The degree program could be jointly administered, as is currently the case with the graduate archival curricula at the University of Maryland's School of Library and Information Science and History Department. M.A.S. degrees in several locations will foster appropriate educational standards, consensus regarding requisite subject matter, subject specializations, and many creative approaches to archival pedagogy.

One factor carrying significant implications for determining the location of M.A.S. programs is the availability of, and experience in using, information technologies for instructional purposes. Several library and information science schools have invested in these technologies, possessing the requisite experience to employ them in the curriculum. On the other hand, most history departments have not used these technologies in their courses. They may not be knowledgeable about the university's technological resources and how to apply them in a curricular program like archival studies that is grounded in information management. If the information technologies are not readily available, then the M.A.S. program may have to look elsewhere for critical instructional support involving these resources.

2. The Practicum

While many components of the M.A.S. guidelines represent a departure from past perspectives on U.S. graduate archival education, one component did not evolve along the same path. This component is the practicum. Ironically, when the SAA CEPD convened in 1990 it was to review the need for guidelines to practicums. Instead, the committee identified the need for M.A.S. guidelines and began a three-year march to produce the draft published in the May, 1993 issue of *Archival Outlook*. After three years, the practicum portion of the M.A.S. guidelines still does not spell out its composition. However, the lack of prescription here is consistent with the remainder of the guidelines.

The CEPD consciously chose not to develop courses or a curriculum, entrusting that assignment to the universities and their archival educators. In much the same way, the CEPD chose not to prescribe to archival educators the definition of a practicum experience. The CEPD recognized that practicums provide the critical link educational programs must have with members of the archival pro-

fession. Such a link can provide a vital avenue for practitioners to inform the work of educators, for educators to inform the work of practitioners, and for students to benefit from both groups. However, the archival profession needs research into the utility and success of practical experiences within educational programs. Without a more mature understanding of the role and benefits of the practicum, the CEPD decided to describe basic objectives²⁹ for it, allowing archival educators to develop creative curricular improvements. This may be construed as a missed opportunity in the M.A.S. guidelines.

3. Infrastructure: The Development of Faculty-Level Archival Educators

The "Infrastructures" section of the SAA M.A.S. guidelines develops the recommendations for the institutional setting of the program discussed earlier, the program's duration, qualifications for faculty appointments, and standards for student admissions. Qualifications employed while developing the new generation of faculty-level archival educators will play a critical role in the overall development and viability of the M.A.S. The guidelines recommend that the faculty should include at least one full-time tenure-track position to inaugurate an M.A.S. program. It is possible to use supplemental faculty from relevant disciplines in other university departments, and adjunct faculty from outside the university. They should be used to implement instruction in the archival and complementary knowledge areas. This deployment of faculty will likely be implemented early in an M.A.S. program's life. As it matures the program should take on more archival science educators who will instruct virtually all the courses in the core archival knowledge area. Fewer adjunct instructors should then be used for core knowledge areas. Supplemental faculty will also be utilized increasingly for complementary knowledge area courses only. Of course, the benefits of team-teaching with supplemental and adjunct faculty should not be dismissed.

Caution must be employed with respect to faculty size. The use of supplemental or adjunct instructors should not be substituted for the long-term growth of the M.A.S. faculty and the subsequent growth of the curriculum in the core archival knowledge areas. In fact, this danger is occurring in U.S. graduate archival education today. Universities should avoid the inherent danger of offering too few core archival courses and too many "plausible electives" and "related" courses, the pitfalls of which Tim Ericson notes. The potential hazards of employing one archival educator complemented by four or five supplemental and adjunct instructors should be evident.

Qualifications for the tenure-track archival educator include formal academic education in archives, a record of scholarship and professional involvement, and relevant archival work experience. In all likelihood archival educators will need to hold a doctorate degree, but this would be the requirement of the particular university; the degree in question is not prescribed in the guidelines. Potential exists for future archival educators to be selected from among graduates of doctoral programs in library and information science schools that offer a sequence of archival courses. In the course of completing the doctoral requirements graduates conduct extended research into archival issues. In 1993 approximately ten doctoral students were enrolled in six different universities who fit this description.³⁰ If universities will look for faculty-level archival educators with credentials similar to other faculty—a doctoral degree concentrating on the appropriate

field of study, dissertation and scholarly publications, professional activity, and experience—then these doctoral students may become likely candidates for archival educator positions.

Additional Concerns about the Establishment of M.A.S. Programs

A few common concerns about the implications of establishing M.A.S. programs have not yet been addressed directly. One concern is that the establishment of a small group of M.A.S. programs has the potential to cause two- and three-course sequence programs to fall by the wayside. But if we observe the Canadian experience, at least five universities grant graduate and undergraduate certificates in archives and records management, such as the Université de Montreal and Université Laval programs mentioned earlier. Also, at least six universities offer one-, two-, or three-course sequences within their M.L.S. or history degree programs.³¹ Community colleges also provide information management training courses for paraprofessionals, which include instruction in archival practice. George Brown College offers a Certificate of Archival Practices and Algonquin College in Ottawa offers a two-year archives technician training program. In Quebec eight junior and technical colleges offer courses in archival administration.

In the United States M.A.S. programs may have a similar effect. One might conclude from the Canadian experience that Master of Archival Studies degree programs have not rendered small educational programs irrelevant. Instead they have fostered a new class of archival education that addresses the technical skills and understanding necessary for paraprofessional employment in archives. Perhaps future course work available at the undergraduate level in the United States will address the need for paraprofessional education and training. Not all prospective archives students will want to leave their hometown to travel to an M.A.S. program site. Many students, for a wealth of reasons, will continue to seek the best available education through their local library schools and history departments and will seek employment nearby.

Another frequently voiced concern is that universities will not buy into the M.A.S. degree program for financial reasons. While the universities' financial problems are real, this point of view ignores the facts regarding the recent advancements made by graduate archival education in the U.S. and the overwhelming success of the M.A.S. in Canada. Schools of library and information science at the University of Pittsburgh, the University of Texas at Austin, Long Island University, and the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee are working toward offering a requisite number of courses, and maintaining their existing faculty-level archival educator positions, so that they can establish the M.A.S. degree.³² The administrations of these schools have all made long-term commitments to developing graduate archival education and are supportive of SAA's work toward composing these guidelines. Chances are that over the next several years these schools will have a very extensive M.L.S./archival certificate program or an M.A.S. degree program in place.

Perhaps the greatest threat to the emergence of M.A.S. programs is the confluence of education relating to information disciplines under the rubric of information studies. Schools of library science are evolving into schools of library and information science. In some cases this change is only cosmetic,

maintaining essentially the same library science curricula. However, in other cases, schools of information studies are emerging with completely revamped curricula. There are two models of development. One resembles the University of British Columbia School of Library, Archival, and Information Studies. Each of the disciplines are represented by independent academic programs offering independent degrees. In this example the archival studies program does not require any library science courses. It treats information science topics within archival studies courses as they become relevant. This arrangement closely resembles a college of liberal arts and sciences where the strength is at the department level and many degrees are offered. The concept of an M.A.S. degree fits easily within this expanded concept of information studies, respecting the boundaries of the distinct professions and their need for distinct educational programs.

The second model is being employed at the School of Library and Information Science at the Université de Montréal³³ and the Faculty of Library and Information Studies at the University of Toronto. These two schools are building a model core curriculum based on information science and offering specializations in fields such as library science, archival science, and information resource management. In this configuration the schools offer one degree, in which information science and technology is the major field of study, while fields like library science and archival science are the minor concentrations. These programs appear to exploit the interdisciplinary nature of archival studies. However, their approach is problematic because it does not provide enough curricula to address the distinct and substantial body of archival knowledge. It also addresses only the interrelationship between information science, library science, and archival science. It does not provide the necessary curricular support to explore the contributions that fields such as conservation, history, and management make to archival studies.

The information studies degree approach is all too similar to history departments' approach to professional archival education. These departments, frequently through public history programs, offer courses in many different history-related fields and attach them to traditional graduate history curricula which comprise the major field of study. Public history program directors claim their graduates are fully prepared to enter any one of the fields they treat in their program.³⁴ In the information studies scenario archival science is again relegated to a minor concentration. Archival education has been the stepchild of history and library education, and now may be adopted as the stepchild of computer and information science education. It is time to cast off these time-worn and inadequate approaches to professional archival education.

Information science education is a critical component when teaching archivists how to manage archival electronic records. However, it must fall upon archival science to inform the methods archivists use when executing the functions they have always performed: to preserve and provide access to archival records. Information science education mixed with inadequate archival science education will create information scientists who do not know how to identify, preserve, and provide access to archival electronic records. Archivists, now more than ever before, must be thoroughly knowledgeable in the theories and methods belonging to archival science. Without them archivists will not know how to manage modern archival records. The Master of Archival Studies

degree provides the appropriate interdisciplinary approach without losing sight of the importance of archival science, the body of knowledge which identifies the mission of the archival profession.

Conclusion

The ascendancy of the M.A.S. degree will be an evolutionary process. It will not affect this generation of archivists. It will not affect hiring practices until a critical mass of graduates exists from which to choose for virtually any job search. The M.A.S. effort exists for the next generation of U.S. archivists, those who will inherit our legacies. In the future, when young students decide to study archives and pursue a career in the field, they will not have to choose only from library science or history programs in which the archives discipline is but a minor concentration, a stepchild of the host program. Instead, students will be able to choose from a group of archival studies programs where archives will be the major field of study. The M.A.S. program will become a place where students can learn in an academic setting what previous generations of archivists discovered and codified about their work in the course of performing it.

The future Master of Archival Studies programs will shape the way in which archivists of the next generation receive their professional education. They will become home to sustained research into how we select archives for inclusion in our repositories, how to properly persuade records creators to be mindful of archival considerations, and innumerable aspects of archival work too long to list. M.A.S. programs will bring the rise of archival scholars in the United States. The U.S. will join the ranks of the world's nations who already have deemed it necessary to make such an investment in the archival profession and the unique skills archivists employ when selecting, maintaining, and providing access to records and the information they contain.

Yes, as with most professions, there will always be those who enter through the back door. However, this is not the point. The Master of Archival Studies is not about closing that back door. It is about creating a front door that today does not exist at all. The M.A.S. is about giving the study of archives a home. Its essence will lie in studying the nature of ideas about archives and archivists' work, the methods brought to bear upon it, and the actual practice of archivists. It is a place where archivists can build a strong voice to persuade American society of the importance of the profession's mission.

The Master of Archival Studies will be as inclusive or exclusive as U.S. archivists want it to be, so long as they articulate their desires to those universities who one day will consider establishing M.A.S. programs. Without guidelines universities would be free to create any kind of program they want, and to call it an M.A.S. program. However, archivists should be concerned that a program's curriculum focuses on archival knowledge, explores related disciplines to an appropriate extent, supports new research, and creates new methodologies. Archivists, through SAA, are preparing to provide guidance to universities. The Society of American Archivists' *Guidelines for the Development of a Curriculum for a Master of Archival Studies* is the embodiment of these concerns and desires.

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NOTES

1. Terry Eastwood, "Nurturing Archival Education in the University," *American Archivist* 51 (1988): 238.
2. "Archives Education Guidelines Approved," *SAA Newsletter* (May 1977).
3. "Archives Education Guidelines Approved." Also, Philip P. Mason, "The Society of American Archivists in the Seventies: Report of the Committee for the 1970's," *American Archivist* 35 (1972): 209-210.
4. The notion that archival science is a discipline distinct from history or library science had not yet come to fruition in the United States.
5. "Society of American Archivists Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education Programs," *American Archivist* 51 (1988): 382-88.
6. Terry Eastwood, "Nurturing Archival Education in the University," 238.
7. "SAA Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education Programs, 1988": "This strengthening has been exemplified by the post-1977 emergence of multi-course graduate archival education programs that grant certificates or master's with concentrations in archival administration. The guidelines that follow are designed to support this development."
8. Frederick Stielow, "The Impact of Information Technology on Archival Theory: A Discourse on an Automation Pedagogy," *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, 34 (1993): 64, n. 21. Issue entitled, "Educating the Archivist for the Twenty-First Century."
9. In addition to the 1988 guidelines, the SAA Role Delineation document of 1989 presented a comprehensive description of knowledge areas that would be tested through the certification exam for archivists. See "Society of American Archivists Role Delineation Document," *SAA Newsletter* (January 1989): 6-8.
10. "Society of American Archivists Guidelines for Graduate Archival Education Programs," *American Archivist* 51 (1988): 382-388.
11. In addition to the *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science* issue, examples of other recent articles pointing to the need for M.A.S. degree programs in the United States are: Frank Boles, "Archival Education: Basic Characteristics and Core Curriculum," *AHA Perspectives* 28 (October 1990): 1-11; Paul Conway, "Archival Education and the Need for Full-Time Faculty," *American Archivist* 51 (1988): 254-265; James O'Toole, "Curriculum Development in Archival Education: A Proposal," *American Archivist* 53 (1990): 460-466; and Susan E. Davis, "Archival Education: The Next Step," *Midwestern Archivist* 14 (1989): 13-21.
12. Timothy L. Ericson, "Abolish the Recent: The Progress of Archival Education," *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science* 34 (1993): 27.
13. The core archival knowledge areas are generally described as appraisal, acquisition/collection development, preservation, arrangement and description, reference service and the provision of access, and outreach. See Society of American Archivists, "Guidelines for the Development of a Curriculum for a Master of Archival Studies," draft, in *Archival Outlook* (May 1993): 6. (Hereafter cited as "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines").
14. James O'Toole, in his previously cited article, "Curriculum Development in Archival Education: A Proposal," develops a similar classification of courses, a "cluster" approach that categorizes the functions and concepts found in the archival profession.
15. Timothy L. Ericson, "Abolish the Recent: The Progress of Archival Education," p. 26. The three course types: introduction to archival theory, independent study, and a practicum are defined as the minimally acceptable three-course sequence found in the SAA's 1988 guidelines.

16. Frederick Stielow, "The Impact of Information Technology on Archival Theory: A Discourse on an Automation Pedagogy," p. 55. Stielow refers to the existence of a "dozen or so full-time archival educators."
17. Greg Hunter, archival educator of the Palmer School of Library and Information Science at Long Island University, stated on the Archives & Archivists Listserv on October 8, 1993 some of the benefits of having full-time archival educators. The main benefit is the "ability to influence curriculum" by being involved in routine faculty business. Hunter claims that "without a full-time presence on the faculty, it is almost impossible to introduce new courses." Another benefit is the "ability to influence the hiring decisions of other full-time faculty." Hunter says of Long Island University that "we've been able to build a faculty of individuals supportive of archives and able to see the connections with their own disciplines." Randall Jimerson on the Archives & Archivists Listserv, October 8, 1993, also described the frustrations of being an adjunct professor teaching the archival education component. Jimerson recounts that while he was involved in issues regarding the archival education program, he was "almost never consulted about department-wide curriculum development, hiring, or departmental policy." He further stated that "whenever I tried to improve the archival program, I was accused of trying to dilute the History component." These experiences relate the need for full-time archival faculty and other faculty sympathetic to the need for graduate archival education.
18. Marcel Caya, ed., *Canadian Archives in 1992* (Ottawa: Canadian Council of Archives, 1992), 107.
19. Terry Eastwood, "Revision of the Curriculum of the Master of Archival Studies Program," *ACA Bulletin* 13 (1989): 17-20.
20. Marcel Caya, ed., *Canadian Archives in 1992*, 110.
21. See "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," pp. 2-3, for the exact language of the goals of the M.A.S. and the objectives of SAA in creating M.A.S. guidelines.
22. "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," p. 4. For further explanation of the terms archival science (which is comprised of theory, methodology, and practice) and archival discipline see Luciana Duranti, "The Archival Body of Knowledge: Archival Theory, Method, and Practice, and Graduate and Continuing Education," *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science* 34 (1993): 10-11.
23. "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," p. 3.
24. See Jay Atherton, "From Life Cycle to Continuum: Some Thoughts of the Records Management-Archives Relationship," *Archivaria* 21 (Winter 1985-1986): 43-51.
25. Luciana Duranti, "The Archival Body of Knowledge: Archival Theory, Method, and Practice and Graduate and Continuing Education," p. 10.
26. *Webster's New International Dictionary*, 3d ed., s.v. "science."
27. "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," p. 2.
28. "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," p. 4. The guidelines incorporate the perspectives of the major complementary fields of study: conservation, library and information science, management, and history, and incorporating knowledge of a diverse group of research methods.
29. The major objective articulated in the guidelines is that a practicum "is not an exercise to discover theory and methods empirically, but an opportunity for the students to verify their understanding of archival principles by applying them in real life situations, to test in the professional arena the theoretical and methodological knowledge acquired in the classroom." "SAA M.A.S. Draft Guidelines," p. 7.
30. Information from Anne Gilliland-Swetland, Ph.D. candidate, School of Library and Information Studies, University of Michigan, in conversations with the author, May 1993.
31. These programs are at the universities of Alberta, Western Ontario, Windsor, McGill, Dalhousie, and Simon Fraser University.
32. To date, the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee does not have a full-time faculty archival educator position. However, the Library and Information Science school is moving forward with examining a curriculum proposal to establish an M.A.S. degree program.
33. Suzanne Bertrand-Gastaldy, Paulette Bernhard, and Jean-Marc Cyr, "Reconstructing a Master's Degree Program in Library and Information Studies: The Université de Montreal Experience," *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science* 34 (1993): 228-243.
34. Tyler O. Walters, "Possible Educations for Archivists: Integrating Graduate Archival Education with Public History Education Programs," *American Archivist* 54 (1991): 484-492.

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ARCHIVAL EDUCATION: THE EXPERIENCES OF THE ASSOCIATION OF CANADIAN ARCHIVISTS

BRYAN E. CORBETT

ABSTRACT: Since its founding in 1975 the Association of Canadian Archivists has been active in the development of important initiatives in archival education. The annual conference has been a mix of formal academic-style sessions and hands-on practical workshops where archival theory and the “why” of practice are discussed with the “how” of archival methods. The Association has developed guidelines for pre-appointment and post-appointment and continuing professional education and training and intends to develop guidelines for the education and training of archival technicians and paraprofessionals. The ACA has encouraged and assisted archival and educational institutions in developing programs of archival education. The ACA is working with the Association des archivistes du Québec in developing education initiatives at a national level. It has developed a five year *Education Programme and Plan* to provide a framework for these activities in archival education. This article outlines the education activities of the ACA and assesses the education initiatives of the Association.

The Association of Canadian Archivists (ACA) was established in 1975 as an outgrowth of the Archives Section of the Canadian Historical Association. It is a national association of the English-speaking archival community in Canada. It works with the Association des archivistes du Québec (AAQ) through the Bureau of Canadian Archivists (BCA) in areas of common concern and in representing archivists internationally. The Association has three principal purposes: it plays an advocacy role on behalf of the English-speaking archival community nationally and, occasionally, locally; it sets archival standards (these standards include archival ethics); and, it has a major role in archival education.

Since its establishment, the Association of Canadian Archivists has seen education as the key to the development of the archival profession. The ACA has exercised three main roles in archival education:

- 1) The delivery of educational opportunities;
- 2) The encouragement of education programs in archival and post-secondary education institutions; and
- 3) The establishment of standards for archival education.

This article will discuss the experiences of the Association of Canadian Archivists and its predecessors in archival education and the current plans of the ACA.

Delivery of Educational Activities and Opportunities

Prior to the formation of the ACA, educational opportunities were limited chiefly to occasional sessions at the Canadian Historical Association (CHA) annual meeting. These sessions often related to sources in Canadian archives which were germane to topics being discussed or researched by Canadian historians. With the formation of the ACA in 1975, opportunities for a greater variety of educational activities became possible. The one day annual meeting of a section of a sister professional organization became a four day conference and annual meeting of a professional association with a rapidly growing membership. The conference featured concurrent sessions complete with session chairs, one to two speakers, and a commentator. Workshops and hands-on demonstrations supplemented conference sessions. This format offered members the opportunity for in-depth exploration of archival theory, practice and issues as well as the opportunity to deal with more topical concerns and technical matters.

This combination of formal sessions and workshops was developed in response to two levels of member education needs. Many of the members coming from larger institutions with defined policies and procedures wanted the conference to concentrate on theoretical discussions of archival theory and practice. Sessions which would build on and expand professional knowledge were to be developed to meet the needs on an increasingly sophisticated archival community. The workshops were seen as opportunities for less experienced archivists often from smaller archival repositories to enhance their skills through workshops given by experts in the field. The workshop format also provided opportunities for continuing education in new or changing aspects of archival administration.

The origins of a conference with this combination of theoretical sessions and practical workshops is obscure. However, it is possible to speculate that conference organizers were influenced by the need to maintain the profession's status as a learned society,¹ while at the same time recognizing the successful use of workshops offered by provincially and regionally based archival associations in meeting the needs for basic and advanced archival training. In any event, this combination of formal academic-style sessions and practical workshops has proven to be a success.

Encouragement of Education Programs

Typically formal archival education programs in Canada have come from two sources—archival institutions and post-secondary education institutions. While various archival institutions have offered in-house programs, only the National Archives of Canada (NA) has offered regular education programs which have been open to others besides its own employees.²

Universities have offered a variety of formal educational opportunities ranging from single courses offered to professionals in other disciplines such as history or library science to certificate and diploma courses and masters programs.³

Technical and community colleges have developed programs which either include archival studies as part of a records or information technicians education or train archival technicians as a separate field of study.⁴

The Archives Section of the CHA provided encouragement and assistance for the development and implementation of these programs. Between 1959 and 1971, the Archives Section, with the then Public Archives of Canada, co-sponsored the Archives Course given by Carleton University in Ottawa. The Section continued to encourage participation in the course after it moved to the Public Archives in 1971. The advice of the Section was sought by several universities as they contemplated the development of courses and programs at the post-secondary education level. But no such programs were developed before 1981.

The ACA has followed its predecessor's example of encouraging these archival education programs and courses. The ACA offered advice and assistance to the University of British Columbia as it moved to the development of its masters program in 1981.⁵ As the University of Manitoba developed its masters program in 1990-91, the ACA was invited to sit on its advisory committee. Most recently the ACA has encouraged other Canadian universities to consider establishing a masters degree in archival studies. The University of Toronto and other universities in Ontario have responded, requesting advice and assistance.⁶

While the Association has made no moves to establish an accreditation authority for university education programs, it has had considerable success in shaping the direction of graduate level courses and programs. In developing guidelines for archival education (which will be discussed later),⁷ the Association clearly stated its desire for autonomous graduate programs of archival education. These guidelines for archival education sketched out the substantial body of knowledge required of a practicing archivist in the information age. The amount and diversity of this knowledge clearly indicated the inadequacy of single university courses and of certificate and diploma programs offered as supplements to graduate programs in other disciplines or professions. Something substantially more was required.

The ACA has not been as successful with programs of technical education and training. In response to the need for persons skilled in information management methods and techniques (micrographics, imaging, and telecommunications, etc.), Canadian technical and community colleges developed programs for information/records technicians and paraprofessionals. Initially one or more course offerings in records or information technicians programs included archival perspectives, but technical studies in archives administration were not seen as a separate field of study. While individual archivists and provincial and regional archival associations were occasionally consulted by some colleges, with no guidelines for technical education and with program concentration at the local level rather than nationally, the ACA was not involved in early developments. However, in 1992, the first two year training program for archives technicians was established by Algonquin College in Ottawa. Developers of the program used the ACA graduate education *Guidelines* in developing this program. These developments in archival technical training point out the need for guidelines for technical education programs similar to those developed for library technicians. Without such guidelines, the distinctions between professional education and technical training and between two year university graduate programs and two year college programs will be blurred and confused.

By offering advice and assistance, the ACA has played an important role in Canadian archival education delivered by archival and educational institutions. Its Standing Committee on Education and its Executive continue to be willing to work with these institutions in developing new and nurturing existing programs. In addition to a program in Ontario, the ACA would like to see a program developed in Atlantic Canada. This would result in two English-language programs in western Canada, one in Ontario, and one in Atlantic Canada. However, the association is aware of the size of the population of potential employers. The employment market will limit the number and locations of such programs. As a consequence, at the present time, the ACA is not actively encouraging new programs. In the final analysis, initiatives for further programs must come from the university community in recognition of the local and national viability of such graduate programs and the general employment opportunities for graduates.

Education Standards and Guidelines

Canadian archivists have long recognized the need for professional standards in their work and have been very concerned about setting directions for archival education at both the graduate level and at the post-appointment and continuing education levels.⁸ The Association of Canadian Archivists has exercised a leadership role in establishing and publishing these standards and educational guidelines.

As early as 1964, a call emerged for the development of professional standards and their linkage to archival education.⁹ A debate developed as to the nature of the archival profession; the level of university education needed and the body of knowledge required to be an archivist.¹⁰ As an outgrowth of this debate, in 1976, the Association adopted the *Guidelines Towards A Curriculum For Graduate Archival Training Leading To A Master's Degree In Archival Science* developed by Hugh Taylor and Edwin Welch of the ACA's Education Committee.¹¹ By adopting these guidelines, the Association clearly stated that archival education was to be at the graduate level. The *Guidelines* also indicated the requirements of archival education in four areas: program content and duration; enrollment; teaching staff, methods and materials; and curriculum.

The issuance of these *Guidelines* did not directly lead to the development of graduate programs in English Canadian universities. However, they did set a tone and created a climate within which graduate programs could be developed. By approving the *Guidelines*, the ACA indicated that the profession wanted university programs not merely courses of archival education. However, the ACA, while offering guidance, was not pro-active in selling its message to universities.

It was not until 1981 that the first substantial response to the issuance of the *Guidelines* for graduate education occurred. In that year, the University of British Columbia (UBC) developed its masters of archival studies program.¹² While it cannot be said that the *Guidelines* led directly to the establishment of the UBC program, it can be said that the association had been able to offer meaningful assistance in its development. The UBC program met all the essential elements laid out in the Association's *Guidelines*.

The ACA closely followed the development, growth and success of the University of British Columbia program. The experiences of this graduate pro-

gram and those of other professions influenced the ACA to revise its graduate guidelines. In developing a long term education plan for the ACA, its 1987-1989 Education Committee decided that its first priority would be to re-visit and revise the Taylor-Welch *Guidelines* of 1976.

The resulting *Guidelines For The Development Of A Two-Year Curriculum For A Master Of Archival Studies* were approved in 1989 and first published in volume twenty-nine of *Archivaria* (Winter, 1989-90). The ACA subsequently published the *Guidelines* as an Occasional Paper in 1990.

The Association expected that the new *Guidelines* would provide practical direction to educational institutions in the development of education programs. They broadened the body of knowledge required by the practicing archivist. The archival program was to have full academic status. While such a program was expected to be attached to a faculty or a department, its autonomy would be recognized by the inclusion of the name of the program in the official name of the faculty or department to which it was attached. The teaching staff would be full time, tenure track professors. It was recognized that there would be a need for supplementary teaching resources. These adjunct professors could be drawn from other professions provided they possessed knowledge of or experience with archival practices. It was preferable, but not necessary, for students to be full time. They were to be selected for the program based on their academic achievements, personal suitability and motivation. While no preference was expressed for a specific undergraduate degree, the *Guidelines* called on students to have completed at least one or two courses in Canadian history before applying to an archival studies program.

The *Guidelines* called for a practicum of at least two months between the two years of study. A thesis was also viewed as an essential element in the graduate program. It was seen as an expression of both the intellectual nature of archival studies and of the scholarly substance of archival work. The thesis was to be a reflection of the academic status of the archival studies program and also as the first contribution of the student to archival literature.

While the *Guidelines* consciously avoided linking subjects to courses, they divided the body of knowledge into four areas:

- 1) Subjects for Foundation Courses
- 2) Subjects for Core Courses
- 3) Subjects for Methods Courses, and
- 4) Subjects for Courses in common with other professions.

Subjects for Foundation Courses include intellectual history, the administrative history of Canada, and elements of law for archivists. Subjects for Core Courses include archival science and the history of archives; records management, and the organization and administration of North American archives. By far the largest component is the subjects relating to archival science. Subjects for Methods Courses include diplomatics, automation, and special methods for archival description and research methods. Finally, subjects common with other professions are preventive conservation, management sciences and financial accounting.

The *Guidelines*, while making a strong case for locating the archival studies program in a school or faculty of information studies, offered other options such as a history department or law faculty. Learning resources such as a library of international archival resources, a computer laboratory and a large number of

local archival repositories and archivists were indicated as essential learning resources to the success of any archival studies program.

The *Guidelines* were not so presumptuous as to instruct universities on aspects of university programming. The *Guidelines* outlined subjects, not courses. The structure and duration of archival studies courses were left to the universities to plan. So too were the methods of teaching the subjects. While the *Guidelines* recognized that the archival profession is a practical one, the archival studies professors could determine the mix of theory and practice. Likewise student evaluation was reserved to the educational institution.

The *Guidelines* were seen as being a reasonable balance between providing a clear direction or statement of intent and the flexibility necessary for universities to develop programs suitable to their circumstances.

The *Bulletin*, the ACA's newsletter, advertised the availability of the draft guidelines and invited member comment. The Education Committee revised the draft guidelines according to this input, and the ACA Executive approved them. They were subsequently approved by the membership as part of the approval of the Education Committee's Annual Report.

The ACA distributed the graduate *Guidelines* to all provincial and federal government departments responsible for post-secondary education. They were also sent to all Canadian universities, their library science schools or faculties, and their history departments. These institutions were encouraged to use them in the development of any such programs. The University of Manitoba used these *Guidelines* in developing its masters level program as mentioned above. The University of Toronto and the University of Windsor are using the *Guidelines* in developing proposals for or modifying existing programs of graduate education.

With the approval and publication of the graduate education *Guidelines*, the ACA turned its attention to the development of similar standards for post-appointment and continuing education. The resulting *Guidelines For The Development Of Post-Appointment And Continuing Education And Training Programmes* were approved by the Association in 1991.¹³

The Post-Appointment and Continuing Education *Guidelines* (hereinafter referred to as the *PAC Guidelines*) were developed to assist the ACA, provincial professional associations, archival institutions and educational institutions in developing post-appointment and continuing educational and training activities and programs. They confirm the body of knowledge required for archival practice that was indicated in the graduate education *Guidelines*. They identify three levels of non-university archival education and training—fundamental, advanced and specialized—and relate these levels to the number of hours required to acquire the body of knowledge. They address the need for administrative support of the programs, the physical facilities needed to hold the classes, the needed equipment and supplies, the teaching and reference materials to be used, and the qualifications of the instructors and students. Finally, they outline the role of associations and institutions in delivering non-university archival education and training.

As with the graduate *Guidelines*, those for post-appointment and continuing education were designed to be permissive and facilitative rather than restrictive and prescriptive. They were designed to enable the various partners in archival education to develop and deliver complementary programs at various levels.¹⁴

However, unlike the graduate *Guidelines*, those for post appointment and continuing education provide a specific course outline which could be used in developing such education and training programs and activities. The Alberta Society of Archivists in its 1993 revisions to its education and training program used the ACA's *PACE Guidelines*. Other provincial associations are using the *PACE Guidelines* in developing specific course or workshop offerings. The University of Alberta in developing a Library, Archives and Museums Technicians training program for Aboriginals has also used them in developing the archival component of that program. And the Association of Canadian Archivists, in implementing its continuing education program, is being guided by its own work.

Current Plans and Activities

In 1980 the Consultative Group on Canadian Archives reported to the Canadian government Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council that while much had been done in graduate and continuing education, much more needed to be done.¹⁵ ACA members and the professional associations had periodically called for the development of national programs of archival education. In 1988 the Strategic Planning Committee of the ACA indicated that the Association should provide advanced educational opportunities at a national level. The Canadian Council of Archives *National Needs Assessment Report* indicated that archival education was the number one, long term institutional priority.

In response to these and other concerns, the ACA began work on an education program and five year plan in 1989. The *Education Programme and Plan* was approved by its members in a mail ballot in August 1992 and published by the ACA as an Occasional Paper in September 1992.

Under the *Programme and Plan*, the ACA will continue with existing activities and will undertake new initiatives. The ACA will continue to revise and develop education and training standards and guidelines. Standards and guidelines for the education of archival technicians will be a new priority in this area. The ACA will develop, or coordinate the development of curriculum and teaching unit content descriptions for post-appointment and continuing education and training courses and programs. Such an activity will promote standardization and consistency across the country as provincial associations develop similar programs. The ACA will develop or coordinate the development of study kits to be used in the delivery of courses and workshops.

A major component of the ACA's proposed *Education Programme and Plan* is the development and delivery of post-appointment and continuing education and training courses at an advanced level. One way of delivering such courses is to develop a series of course packages which could be used by the ACA and others. The ACA will use the opportunities presented at its annual conference to coordinate workshops and courses with the overall education program. It will organize courses to train the trainers and educators who will be delivering courses on behalf of the ACA and the provincial associations. The ACA program contemplates the development of an accreditation mechanism for graduate and post-appointment and continuing education programs. Other aspects of the ACA's plans include the development of a speakers bureau of individuals who

are willing to instruct in courses and workshops; the development of distance education and home study activities; the development of a clearinghouse of information on past continuing education activities; and, finally, to address the need for a certification program.¹⁶

Any such *Education Programme and Plan* has significant implementation concerns. It will cost an estimated \$400,000 over five years. For a membership of approximately 750 members nationally, this is a major financial commitment. Such a small number of archivists scattered across so much geography requires taking educational opportunities to selected centers of sufficient membership concentration and having the rest of the membership come to these areas to take the workshops. Continuing education is not the exclusive purview of the ACA. Archival institutions, educational institutions, and provincial professional and institutional associations are key players in the development and delivery of educational and training opportunities. The ACA program is based on the assumption that the provincial associations have in place or will develop continuing education and training programs and activities at a basic level. Current resource limitations may prove this assumption to be incorrect. To make the program a success, archival institutions will need to support staff with time and money to enable their participation as instructors, and as students in the workshops. Funding is crucial to getting the program started. In July 1993, the Association was successful in obtaining federal government funding to support the development of curriculum for courses in conservation and descriptive standards and for the delivery of workshops in these subjects. As a consequence, the ACA has been able to hire an Education Officer to begin implementing the *Education Programme and Plan*.

Finally, the ACA has been working with the Association des archivistes du Québec (AAQ) in developing a national Education Strategy. This process began in 1988 when a group of archival educators and representatives from various interested groups met in Ottawa to discuss Canadian archival education. The results of that meeting was a resolution calling for the development of a national education plan.

In February 1990, a joint committee of two representing the ACA and the AAQ was established under the auspices of the Bureau of Canadian Archivists.¹⁷ The committee drafted a strategy to develop and implement a national education plan over the next five years. The major components of the plan are the development of national standards and guidelines for professional and technical education and training; collaboration between existing education programs; accreditation of graduate education; accreditation of continuing education programs; and certification.

The national education plan recognizes the unique geographic, political and financial situation of each province and territory. It recognizes the role of the ACA and the AAQ in developing education and training programs and activities suitable to their members. Most importantly, it recognizes the need to cooperate and coordinate at the national level. No program of accreditation of education programs or of certification of individual archivists, if undertaken at all, can be successful if done only at a provincial or regional level. Collaboration is necessary to effectively implement educational activities resulting from such national initiatives as the development of descriptive standards. However, a national education strategy is not designed to replace the educational initiatives of the

ACA and the AAQ, but rather to maximize cooperation and reduce overlap and duplication.

Work on the first element in the National Education Plan is well underway. A Committee composed of two representatives of each association and the Secretary General of the Bureau have developed a "Politique du Bureau Canadien des Archivistes concernant la formation et le perfectionnement des archivistes au Canada".¹⁸ The purpose of this policy on education and training is to establish a common framework in which each association will establish consistent education and training guidelines. The existing ACA guidelines on education fit well within this framework. The "Politique" has received approval in principle by both associations and is being translated for final approval.

In summary, the ACA since its creation in 1975 has had a substantial interest in archival education. Because of its belief in education as essential to the survival of the archival profession, it has been active in promoting the development of education and training opportunities. Through its annual conference, the ACA has provided its members with training opportunities. As early as 1976 it issued its first guidelines for graduate archival education. These were revised in 1989 and were followed by post-appointment and continuing education and training guidelines in 1991. It has been successful in encouraging education institutions to develop graduate archival education programs. In conjunction with the AAQ, within the Bureau of Canadian Archivists, the ACA has developed an action plan to address education issues at a national level for all Canadian archivists. With the approval of its *Education Programme and Plan* in 1992, ACA members have established a blueprint for continuing action in archival education. Only time will tell if this blueprint is a viable one.

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NOTES

1. As members of a Section of the Canadian Historical Association, archivists were part of what is called the Learned Societies Conference. Annually, the Learned Societies Conference is held at a designated Canadian University for approximately a month. Each learned society (including both academic and professional societies and associations) holds its conference and meeting at a specified time during that month. Numerous overlapping conferences provide for significant networking opportunities. The Learned Societies Conference structure provides significant cost

- savings for its component members by providing common support services, such as accommodation and day-care services. Most learned societies meetings follow the pattern of academic-style conference sessions. The importance of these networking and financial opportunities to Canadian archivists can be seen in a resolution approved by ACA members instructing the ACA to meet with the Learned Societies at least once every four years. Being considered a learned society, whether it meets at the Conference or not, makes the ACA eligible for an annual grant from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada to assist members in attending its annual meeting.
2. The National Archives of Canada (NA) Archives Course is primarily designed for its own employees. NA has two courses—one in English and one in French. In recognition of the demand for archival education by archivists outside of the National Archives, the NA reserves a certain number of places in its course for non-NA archivists who have at least two years work experience.
 3. For details see "Archival Education and Training in Canada," Bryan Corbett, *Canadian Archives in 1992* (The Canadian Council of Archives, 1992), 99-112.
 4. *Ibid.*, 99-112.
 5. "The Origins and Aims of the Master of Archival Studies Program at the University of British Columbia," Terry Eastwood, *Archivaria* 16 (Summer, 1983): 35-52.
 6. In 1993, the University of Toronto established a full time tenure track position to develop a program of archival studies within its Faculty of Library and Information Science.
 7. Since 1976, the ACA has issued two graduate archival education guidelines. *Guidelines Towards a Curriculum for Graduate Archival Training Leading to a Master's Degree in Archival Science* were approved in 1976 and are published as an appendix to "The Origins and aims of the Master of Archival Studies Program at the University of British Columbia," Terry Eastwood, *Archivaria* 16 (Summer, 1983): 44-49. The current *Guidelines for the development of a two-year curriculum for a Master of Archival Studies*, were approved by the ACA in 1990 and are available through the ACA, P.O. Box 2596, Station D, Ottawa, Ontario, K1P 5W6.
 8. The ACA through the Bureau of Canadian Archivists is a key player in the development of descriptive standards and recently approved a code of ethics.
 9. "What Training Do Archivists Need?" Alan D. Ridge, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 1:3 (1965): 3-12. This paper was originally delivered to the Archives Section of the CHA at its annual meeting in June 1964.
 10. Much of the discussion surrounding archival education centered on whether there was a body of knowledge relating to the archival profession which was sufficiently large and varied to warrant a graduate program; whether the archival profession was a distinct separate profession or in effect a form of the historical profession or librarianship. The discussion took place at annual meetings and in various articles in the *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* and *Archivaria* relating to the nature or archival work and the future of the profession. For examples, see the "Chairman's Letter," Alan D. Ridge, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 1:4 (1966):16; "Archival Training in Canada. Report on Archival Training, 1968" Wilfred I. Smith, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 1:7 (1969): 39-45; "Information Retrieval and the Training of the Archivist," Hugh A. Taylor, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 2:3 (1972): 30-35; "Continuing Education for Archivists," Edwin Welch, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 2:5 (1974): 41-46; "The Quest for Professional Status: Examples and Inferences", Shirley Spragge, *Canadian Archivist/L'archiviste Canadien* 2:5 (1974): 29-40; "The Compleat Archivist," Gordon Dodds, *Archivaria* 1:1 (Winter, 1975/76): 80-85; "Education and the Profession," Terry Eastwood, *Archivaria* 1:1 (Winter, 1975/76): 80-85; *To Know Ourselves: The Report of the Commission on Canadian Studies* (T.H.B. Symons: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975), 74-75, and Recommendations 10-12 on p. 83; "Archival Education," Edwin Welch, *Archivaria* 4:4 (Summer 1977): 49-59; "SAA Conference—1977," Barbara Lazenby Craig, *Archivaria* 5 (Winter 1977-78): 159-161; and comments by Janet Fyfe, Laurenda Daniels and Edwin Welch in "Counterpoint: A Forum for Archival Debate and Discussion," *Archivaria* 5 (Winter 1977-78): 184-188.
 11. These *Guidelines* were published as an appendix to "The Origins and Aims of the Master of Archival Studies Program at the University of British Columbia," by Terry Eastwood, *Archivaria* 16 (Summer 1983): 35-52.
 12. *Ibid.* 35-52.
 13. The availability of the *Guidelines for the Development of Post-Appointment and Continuing Education and Training Programmes* was advertised in the *ACA Bulletin* and copies were sent

- to selected members of the association inviting comment. Based on comments received, the draft was modified. In 1991, the ACA Executive approved the *Guidelines* which were in turn approved by the membership as part of a motion of acceptance of the Education Committee's annual report for 1991. They were subsequently published in *Archivaria* 31 (Summer 1991-92), and as *Occasional Paper 2* of the Association's publications program.
14. In Canada, these include archival institutions, educational institutions, provincial professional associations and provincial and national institutional associations.
 15. In this regard, the ACA is following with interest the experience of the Society of American Archivists with certification.
 16. *Canadian Archives: Report to the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada* (Consultation Group on Canadian Archives, 1980), 76-81. (Subsequently called the Wilson Report).
 17. The Bureau of Canadian Archivists/Bureau Canadien des Archivistes is an umbrella organization with two members—the Association of Canadian Archivists representing English-speaking archivists at the national level and the Association des archivistes du Québec representing French-speaking archivists at the national level. The Bureau undertakes various projects of mutual benefit to members of the ACA and AAQ. It has published *The Directory of Educational Opportunities in Canada* in 1988 (out of print). It represents Canada on various International Council on Archives Committees. It has coordinated the development of descriptive standards for archival material. Members of the Joint Committee were Hélène Bernier representing the AAQ and Bryan Corbett representing the ACA. The resulting *Action Plan for the Development of a National Education Strategy/Plan d'action pour l'élaboration d'une stratégie nationale sur la formation et le perfectionnement en archivistique du Canada* was printed by the Bureau in February 1990. For a description of archival education in Quebec see "Archival Education and Training in Canada," Bryan Corbett, *Canadian Archives in 1992* (Canadian Council of Archives, 1992), 99-112.
 18. ACA representatives are Barbara Craig and Bryan Corbett. AAQ representatives are Victorin Chabot and Danielle Dufresne Saint-Hilaire. The Secretary-General of the Bureau is Sylvie Gervais.

THE MODERN ARCHIVES INSTITUTE: A HISTORY AND PROFILE OF RECENT STUDENTS

BRUCE AMBACHER

ABSTRACT: This paper briefly reviews the history and evolution of the Modern Archives Institute and its current goals and structure as a provider of post-appointment training. The profile of current students focuses on their current position, education, and other archival training, experience, staff size, institutional holdings, and major problems to develop a profile of attendees. The paper also examines the success of the Institute as a provider of continuing education. The paper closes with an overview of possible future changes for the Institute.

Since the mid-1930s, when the National Archives opened its doors and American archivists founded the Society of American Archivists (SAA), archival education has been an essential component in the efforts of archivists to define themselves. Many questions have been asked regarding archival education and many questions on the subject remain to be answered. Who should educate archivists? Where should archivists be educated? What are the essential components of a basic archival course offering? Should archival education be located in history departments, library schools, or independently? What is the most effective methodology—traditional academic coursework or practicums in the form of institutes and internships? Is pre- or post-appointment archival education more effective? The history and emphasis of the Modern Archives Institute in many ways reflects this continuing discussion and offers some answers to these questions.

The debate over archival education continues today. The SAA's Committee on Education and Professional Development (CEPD) recently adopted and promoted guidelines for a two year masters degree in archival studies. For CEPD the issue is decided. Traditional academic education, preferably pre-appointment, is the proper approach. Reliance on workshops, institutes, and post-appointment training is inadequate. The demand for such training, however, continues unabated. Both approaches have merit, both meet clear needs. This paper focuses on one of the most successful post-appointment delivery vehicles—the Modern Archives Institute.

In the summer of 1945, responding to a need for post-appointment archival training across the United States, Ernst Posner conducted the first Modern Archives Institute at the American University campus in Washington, DC. By

1992, seventy-one additional institutes had been conducted in the forty-seven years since that first session. Throughout its existence the Institute has been sponsored by the National Archives with continuous co-sponsorship by the Library of Congress. The Maryland Hall of Records also served as a co-sponsor until 1976. On three occasions since 1986 the Institute has been conducted outside of Washington, DC, with co-sponsorship by the Western Council of State Libraries (1986), the State Historical Society of Iowa (1988), and the Rocky Mountain Archivists (1992). All sessions outside Washington, DC, have been offered in late summer. Current plans call for regional sessions on an even year schedule.

The Modern Archives Institute served as the model for other continuing education archival programs across the United States, including the summer institute at the University of Denver with cooperation of the Colorado State Archives (begun in 1950 and since discontinued), the Georgia Institute, and, most recently, the Western Archives Institute, begun in 1986.¹

Over almost five decades the Institute has evolved in format, content, purpose, and sponsorship. Early institutes reflected their academic setting. They were four week offerings with academic lectures on archival topics, term papers, examinations, and supervised internships in the National Archives. Participants could receive academic credit.

By 1970 the Institute's focus had begun to evolve from Posner's emphasis on academic credit and pedagogy toward greater emphasis on the more practical needs of those seeking post-appointment training. The Institute moved from the American University campus to the National Archives shortly after Ernst Posner's retirement in 1961. While American University continued to offer academic credit to Institute participants, by 1975 less than forty percent of the students were opting for academic credit. Frank B. Evans, the Institute's director at that time, reflected that "with regard to post-appointment training, academic credit is neither essential nor commensurate with the costs."²

Throughout the seventies the Institute increasingly emphasized the practical needs of those seeking post-appointment training. The internship and the formal examinations, required of those seeking academic credit, were discontinued in 1965 in recognition of the time restraints on contemporary archivists and of the development of formal archival education courses in both history and library science programs across the continent. While the opportunity for obtaining academic credit continued through 1985, the number of participants selecting this option declined significantly. Since 1985 it has been the student's responsibility to arrange for academic credit. The Institute's director will certify participation.

Offered first as an annual summer institute between 1945 and 1971, the Institute has been offered twice each year in Washington, DC, in late January and mid June since 1972. Currently, it is an intense two week program of lectures on archival topics, reinforced with practical exercises, demonstrations, tours, and formal and informal discussions with practicing archivists. Topics covered include basic archival principles and concepts, appraisal, arrangement and description, reference and access, law, preservation, public programs, management, ethics, professional issues, fundraising and grantsmanship, all traditional concerns. The Institute also focuses on overviews of non-traditional records, including photographs, cartographic materials, and electronic records, and archival automation.

Another aspect of the emphasis on practical application above academic theory is the use of subject area experts as instructors. Each of the fifteen to twenty instructors are recognized experts in their field of archival endeavor. They are selected by the Institute directors for their ability to teach, in addition to their subject area expertise. This ability is measured by reputation, by observation of their classroom performance by the co-directors, and by student evaluations. Changes are made when necessary due to ineffectiveness, instructor "burn-out," and the need to ensure that other competent instructors are available when needed. The turnover rate, however, has been very low with only one or two instructors changing from session to session.

The directors and the instructors recognize and convey to the students that the wealth of archival theory, information, practice, and experience on any given topic cannot be covered fully in the amount of time available. The Institute's goal is to give participants a baseline of information upon which they can expand: a solid foundation of principles, concepts, and current practices supplemented with extensive readings, bibliography, and contact points to enable the participants to pursue any topic as their own need arises.

Between 1986 and 1992, 87% of the participants in the Modern Archives Institute worked in their institution's archives³; 54% were their institution's archivist and an additional 33% worked with the archivist for their institution (Figure 1). Only 12% were not archivists. Casual observation and conversation indicate most non-archivists supervised archivists and attended to gain a better understanding of the concepts and principles which guide their staff. At the regional Institute held in Denver, CO., in 1992 the percentage of participants who were archivists, 83% (compared to the overall average of 54%), reflects the demand for training in an area geographically distant from the three existing institutes.

The educational backgrounds of Institute participants is strikingly different from that of the broader profession. A growing number of participants have neither a history nor a library education (Figure 2). In 1970 30% of the Institute's

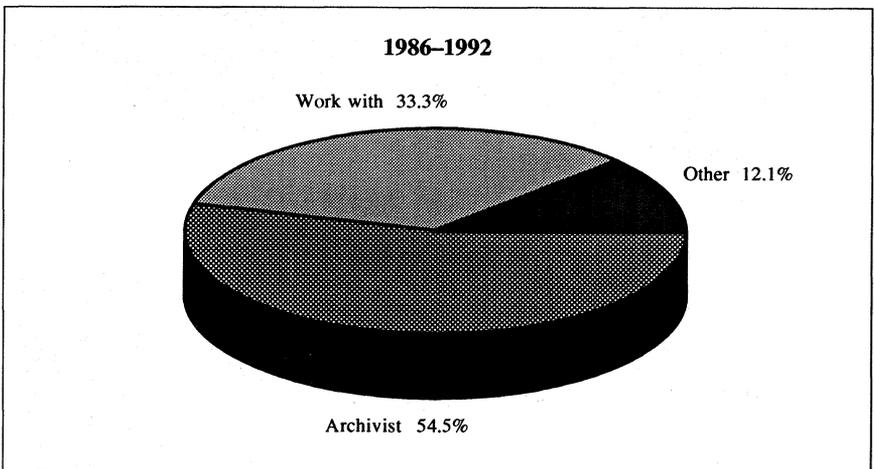


Figure 1
MAI Occupational Categories

participants had a history degree. For the period between 1986 and 1992 that number had fallen to 24%. This compares with 50% of those responding to the SAA 1990 continuing education survey who have one or more degrees in history (Figure 3). Similarly, in 1970 62% of those in the Institute had library science backgrounds. Currently only 12% have library degrees. Just over one-third (34%) of those responding to SAA's 1990 survey had an MLS.

Correspondingly, the percentage of Institute participants with "other" degrees has risen from 8% in 1970 to 30% between 1986-1992 (Figure 4). These include disciplines as diverse as English, Religious Studies, Archeology, Business, and Fashion Merchandising. This is nearly double the 16% of SAA's 1990 survey respondents who have other degrees. This trend reflects the increasing complexity of archival work. In response, many archival repositories have sought people with non-historical, non-library subject expertise to care for archival collections and meet the needs of their researchers. Another trend clearly evident in the participants' profiles is a sense of archives as a "growth field" in terms of employment. Archives also is seen as a desirable second career opportunity.

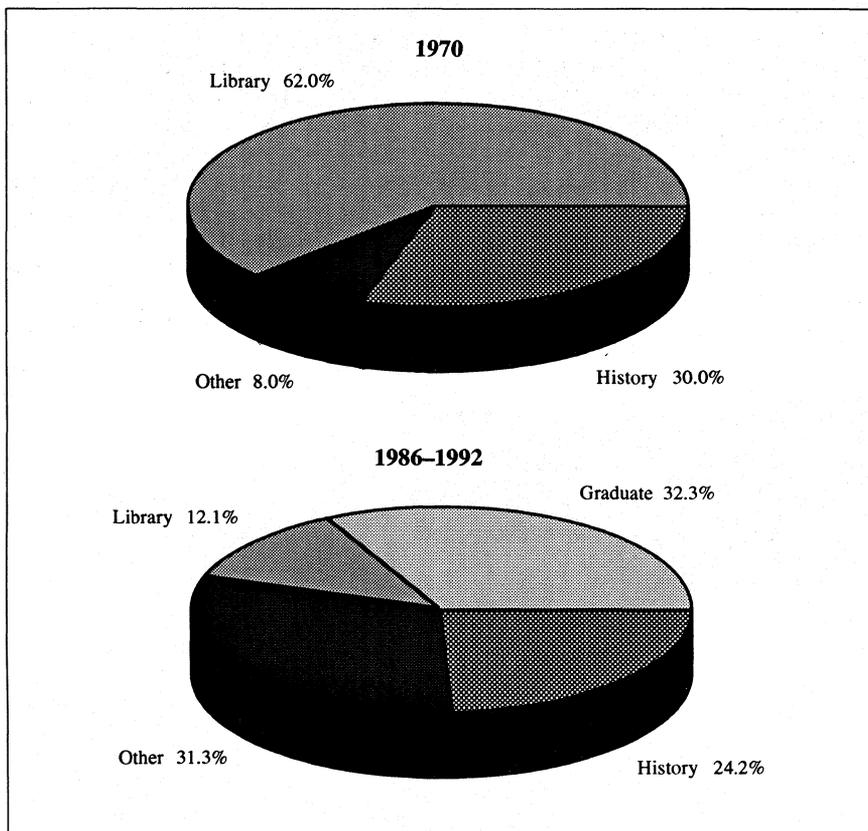


Figure 2.
MAI Education Backgrounds

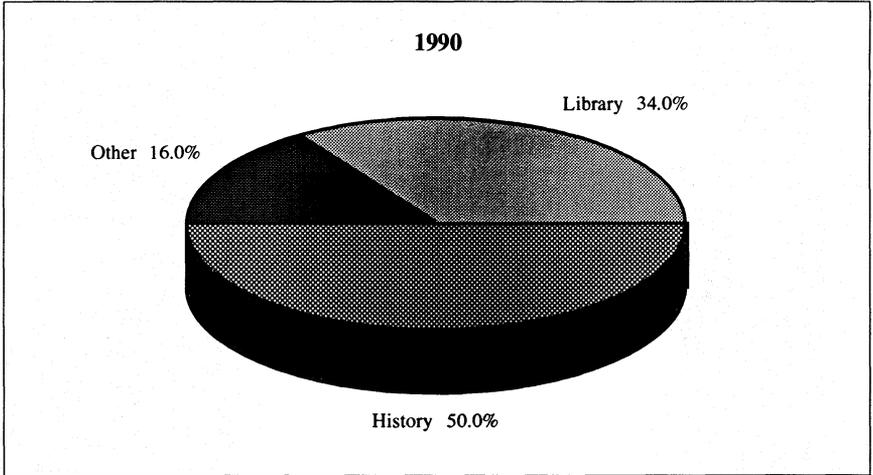


Figure 3
SAA Education Backgrounds

Since its inception in 1945 the Modern Archives Institute has been intended for newly appointed archivists. The Institute continues to serve this purpose (Figure 4). Nearly 45% of the participants between 1986 and 1992 had been on the job less than one year; 58% for less than two years. Overall, only 13% of the participants have more than 5 years experience, and that percentage has been declining with each session. The 1992 Institute session in Denver, with its strong regional emphasis, countered this trend—41% had more than five years experience. For the profession as a whole the 1989 SAA membership survey and the 1990 SAA continuing education survey (Figure 5) found slightly over 10% of the respondents having less than two years experience.

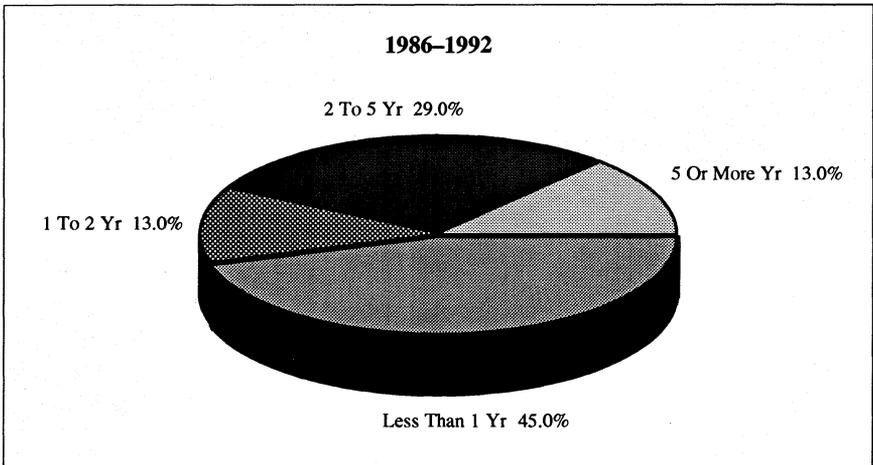


Figure 4
MAI Experience

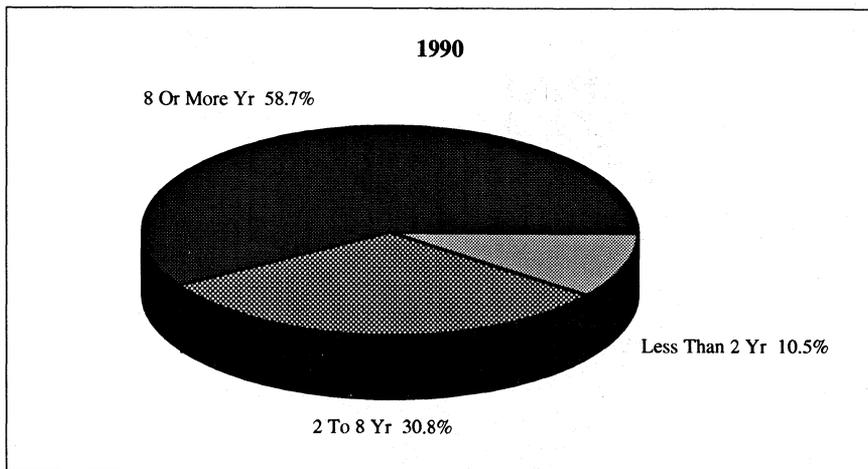


Figure 5
SAA Experience

The Modern Archives Institute also was established to provide archival training for newly appointed practicing archivists who work in small institutions and thus have few, if any, alternate training opportunities, especially within their own institution. Just under one-half (48%) of all attendees between 1986 and 1992 came from institutions with two or fewer full time staff (Figure 6). Fully three-fourths of the participants come from institutions with five or fewer full time staff. The Library of Congress, the Institute's co-sponsor, sends two or more staff members to each session accounting for at least 10% of the remaining 25% who come from larger institutions.

The profile of recent Institute participants does reflect the broader archival community in one significant aspect—the volume of records Institute partici-

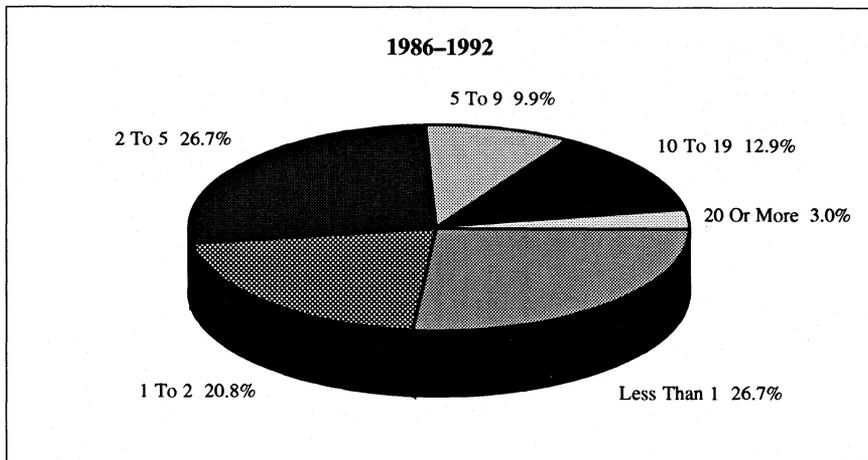


Figure 6
MAI Staff Size

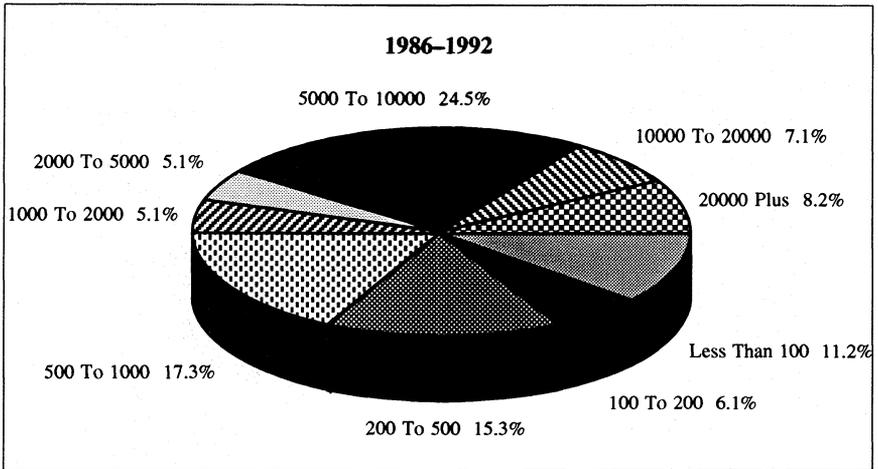


Figure 7
MAI Volume of Holdings

pants are responsible for is similar to that of the profession at large (Figure 7). One-third (32%) of those participants responding work in institutions with less than 500 linear feet of archival material. An additional 27% are in institutions with between 500 and 2000 linear feet. This means that fully three-fifths of the participants are responsible for relatively small collections of less than 2000 linear feet. Conversely, excluding participants from the Library of Congress, only 5% are responsible for holdings which exceed 10,000 linear feet.

The nature of these archival holdings of Institute participants also is as varied as it is for the broader archival community. One-fifth (21%) of the respondents are responsible exclusively for the records of their own institution (Figure 8). For another one-third (35%), more than 80% of their holdings came from only

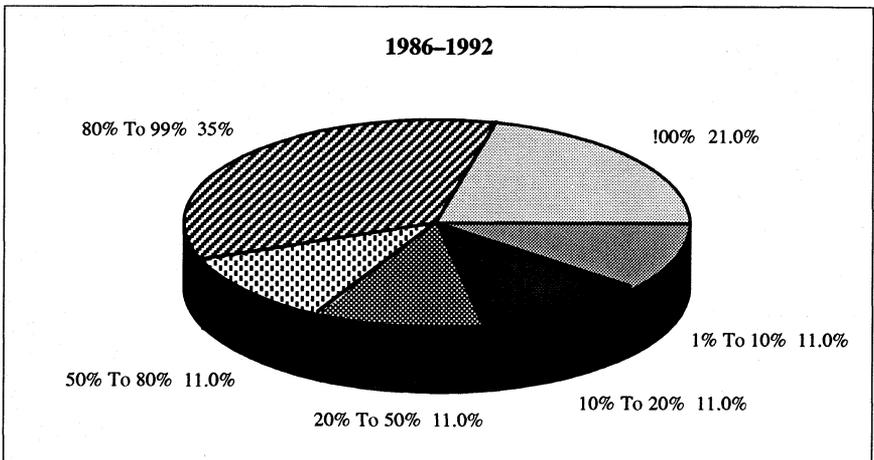


Figure 8
MAI Institutional Archives

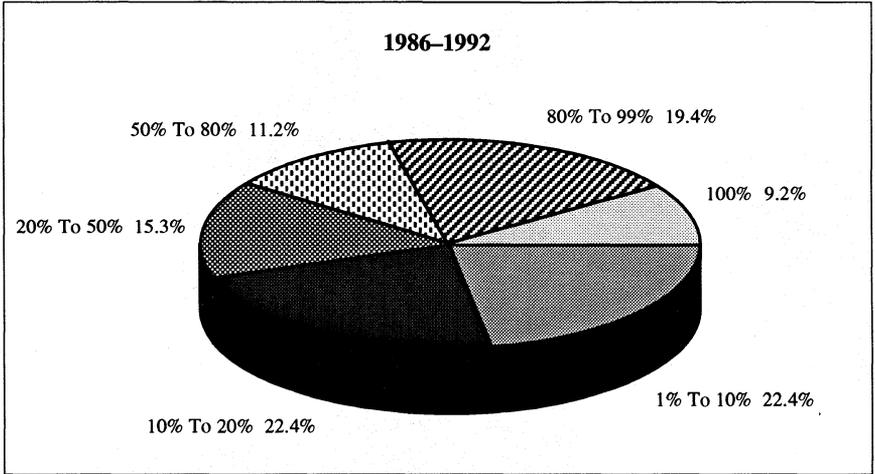


Figure 9
MAI Personal Papers and Collections

their own institution. On the opposite end of the spectrum, only 9% of the respondents were from repositories where all of the holdings were personal papers or collected archives (Figure 9). Another one-fifth (19%) had collected 80% or more of their collections from outside sources.

When asked to address the “major problem you or your institution face,” the answers given by Institute participants between 1986 and 1992 parallel those faced by all archivists and manuscript curators. No single issue was given by more than one-fifth of the respondents (Figure 10). The problems, in descending order of importance, were: ineffective management, insufficient time for the duties assigned, insufficient resources, lack of experience and training, issues relating to appraisal and acquisition, the ever present backlog, unsatisfactory

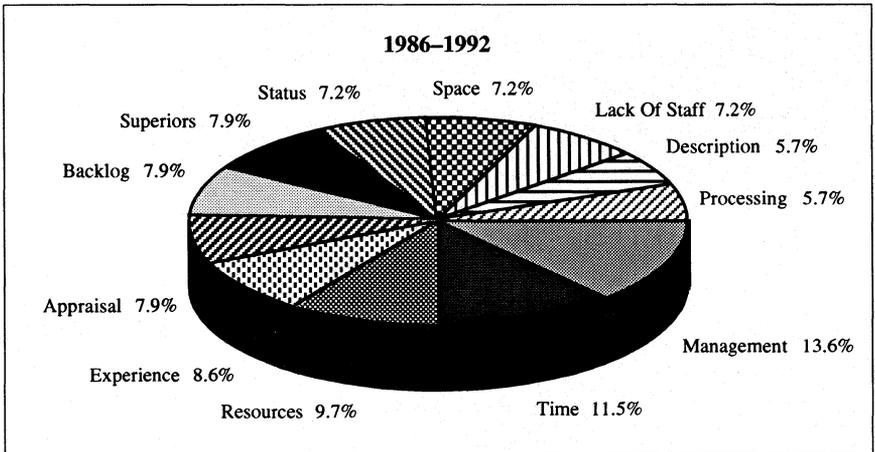


Figure 10
MAI Problems Facing Archives

relations with superiors—especially outside of or above the archives, the low status or lack of visibility of the archives, the lack of space, the lack of staff, and issues relating to description of records. The larger archival community is familiar with each of these issues.

Participants also were asked to indicate what they hoped to gain from the Modern Archives Institute. Responses indicated they were looking for a thorough presentation of the basic issues, practices, procedures, and terminology; and for the opportunity to gain practical solutions to current problems and issues. The Institute meets these needs by providing competent instruction by practicing archivists; by facilitating personal contacts and the opportunity to establish a “network” of archivists they could contact in the future; by stimulating discussion of unresolved professional issues; and by increasing their confidence, reassuring most of them that their current methods and practices conform with the mainstream of archival practice.

Post-appointment archival training can learn a great deal from the broader profession of continuing education. Comments solicited from Institute participants on the strong and weak points of their two week experience highlight this. Participants stress the need for even more practical information, for tours and other kinds of “show-and-tell,” for hands-on exercises, interactive dialogues and question-and-answer sessions to break up or replace the academic lectures. Consequently, instructors emphasize practice which illustrates theory; they illustrate archival principle through real life examples and exercises which demonstrate “how to” and which the participants can relate to their own work.

The Institute has benefited from the perspective of continuing education, especially adult learning. The co-directors and instructors know that no single session should last too long. Frequent breaks and extended lunches are scheduled. Instructors emphasize meaningful information with direct relevance to current situations. The emphasis is on information, sources and contents which will assist the participants when they might face an issue in the future.

The Modern Archives Institute began as an academically based course in an era when virtually no academically based course or extended workshop existed. As college and university based archival education courses and multiple course sequences developed across the United States and Canada between 1945 and 1975, the Institute evolved more properly into a post-appointment training program.

The Institute’s co-directors and their management team continually review the Institute. The Institute session held in June 1993 was the first to confer Continuing Education Units (CEUs) to all participants. This reflects both the changing role of the Institute and the changing needs of the participants.

A second area of reassessment should be offering additional, special focus sessions of one or two week duration, possibly within the Modern Archives Institute structure. Some advanced or special focus sessions which have been suggested include electronic records, preservation, photographs, managing cultural institutions, appraisal, outreach, and fundraising, all areas in which the staff, facilities, and programs of the National Archives and the Library of Congress are recognized as among the best.

A third area of consideration is additional regional offerings of the Modern Archives Institute. The three offered to date have been very successful. They have provided basic training in parts of the country far from any of the three

existing institutes. They have taken the training where it is needed, where the cost to the participants may be less than if they had to travel to Washington, DC. As travel and lodging costs increase, the Institute has seen an increasing percentage of its attendees come from the Washington, DC, metropolitan area. Over the past fifteen years 21 percent of the attendees were employed by federal agencies in the metropolitan area; another 15 percent by other repositories in the metropolitan area. These attendees have access to graduate level courses in archives at four universities in Washington and its suburbs, including the joint History-Information and Library Science master's program at the University of Maryland. Access to information, training, and practical exposure to techniques during the workday appears to be more important than academic credit.

The guidelines for regional sessions, by focusing on site, co-sponsor, faculty, and content, ensure equity, often with a majority of the same instructors used in Washington, DC. Present staffing permits one regional session every two years. The National Archives intends to conduct regional sessions in various parts of the country to provide easier access to the Institute. One shortcoming of regional offerings, however, is that they do not expose participants to the holdings, staff, and activities within the National Archives, the Library of Congress, and other archival facilities in the Washington, DC area.

If future reassessments provide for advanced archival training, it then would be appropriate for the co-directors to reexamine the content of the present Institute. The result might be to remove some topics which are more appropriate for the advanced sessions, such as electronic records or management. This would allow more time for instruction in other topics which presently are given less time than may be desired to provide adequate development of the topic and more time for student questions. This clearly would respond to participant complaints that many topics are given inadequate time.

The Modern Archives Institute continues to fulfill its primary mission of providing post-appointment training for inexperienced archivists, particularly from small institutions with small collections and small staffs with no organized internal training program. The Institute may modify the content of its basic course and may offer additional advanced courses in the future, but no plans exist to abandon this basic task of providing quality post-appointment training at a very reasonable cost.

Together, the Georgia Institute, the Western Archives Institute, and the Modern Archives Institute provide archival training to more than one hundred practicing archivists each year. This number represents a significant portion of all archival education. Such post-appointment training programs remain an essential part of archival education. Combined with other forms of continuing education such as workshops, formal presentations at conferences, seminars, and in-house training, institutes provide a vital part of archival education. They will continue to play an essential role in archival education even after Masters in Archival Education programs are flourishing across the continent.

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NOTES

1. Frank B. Evans, "Preliminary Study for a National Archives Training Institute," December 1973. Frank B. Evans, "Postappointment Archival Training: A Proposed Solution for a Basic Problem," *American Archivist* 40:1 (January 1977): 70.
2. Evans, "Postappointment Archival Training: A Proposed Solution for a Basic Problem," 59.
3. The profiles are based on information gathered for ten of the thirteen institutes from 1986 through 1992. More than 285 participants completed individual profiles with information on their job role, education, personal experience, size of staff and holdings, major problems or issues they faced, whether archives is a first or subsequent career choice and whether they are members of professional archival associations. This profile, supplemented with data from the Lists of Attendees 1979-1993, the SAA 1989 membership survey, the SAA 1990 continuing education survey, and the Academy of Certified Archivists 1991 profile, serves as the basis for the statistics presented in this article.

ARCHIVISTS AND GENEALOGISTS: THE TREND TOWARD PEACEFUL COEXISTENCE

GAIL R. REDMANN

ABSTRACT: Throughout history, genealogy has often been maligned, misused, and misunderstood. However, over the past twenty years, practitioners of both genealogy and history have shifted their focus and have adopted similar methods of study. These changes have altered the traditionally negative view of archivists toward genealogists, with many in the profession not only accommodating genealogists but actually welcoming them to their institutions.

Introduction

The tracing of genealogies has an ancient and often controversial history. During the early years of Christianity, the apostle Paul denounced the prevalent use of “endless genealogies” to support the doctrines of false religions. Detailed genealogies protected the wealth of the early landowning classes in Europe and later created an aura of nobility around the emerging merchant class. Americans in the late 19th century used genealogies to distinguish themselves from the new wave of immigrants, many of whom were from eastern and southern Europe. In the 20th century, the Nazis required the creation of genealogies for the most insidious use of power through pedigree. These negative cultural memories and the narrow connotation of the term “genealogist” cause some of those involved in tracing their ancestry to wince at the label. It often invokes the image of a pretentious provincial absorbed in an entertaining, but historically valueless, pursuit. Fortunately, this stereotype appears to be eroding. Changes in focus and methodology within the studies of genealogy and history, as well as within the archival profession, have helped to blur the demarcation lines between these disciplines. Although the relationship between archivists and genealogists could still be described as tenuous, the past two decades have witnessed a significant trend toward understanding and cooperation.

The “Roots” of “Family History”

While the origin of “genealogy” is ancient, the use of the phrase “family history” is relatively recent, and many will debate to what degree the terms are linked. However, Alex Haley’s *Roots*, the extraordinary history of an African-American family, is widely recognized in both popular and professional litera-

ture as the spark that ignited the passions of millions of Americans to discover their ancestral heritage. In the words of Meredith B. Colket, Fellow of the American Society of Genealogists and former Executive Director of the Western Reserve Historical Society, "*Roots*, more than any other single work, stimulated the man in the street to inquire about the genetic, cultural, and other forces that contributed to making him the person he is."¹

That curiosity was fueled by the interest in community history generated by the Bicentennial, which coincided with the publication of *Roots*. A hundred years before, the Centennial had sparked similar interests, but the focus of genealogical research in 1876 was very different. Descendants of 17th and 18th century settlers, facing the continuing influx of new immigrants, sought to secure their place in the structure of American society by constructing pedigrees that would link them to colonial patriarchs or Revolutionary patriots. As a result, many hereditary societies were created within the decade following the Centennial celebration. This focus on 17th and 18th century immigrants and their impact on colonial and early American history would dominate genealogical research and publication until the 1970s.

The complexion of American society had changed significantly by 1976, when Haley's search for "the African" captured the imagination of ordinary citizens, many of whom were descendants of the immigrants from whom genealogists in 1876 had sought to distance themselves. Patrick Quinn has noted four characteristics of postwar American life that may have contributed to the appeal of reclaiming ethnic heritage: the mobility of the American family, which had led to a separation from cultural and ancestral roots; the generational distance from immigrant attitudes against retaining "old country" traditions; the disintegration of the nuclear family, which had destroyed the traditional transmission of cultural heritage; and the dissatisfaction with "the cultural vacuity of American life—a consumerist, homogenized culture."² However, the growing fascination with reclaiming one's heritage was not a uniquely American phenomenon. Both Canada and Australia, nations also built by immigrants, experienced a similar trend.³ Even Great Britain, while lacking a comparable immigrant history, experienced a surge in interest in the history of the working class.⁴ The Federation of Family History Societies was established there in 1974 to coordinate and assist the efforts of local organizations conducting family and community research.

The social and cultural movements of the 1960s and early 1970s also helped to cultivate an environment in which individual identity and pride in ethnicity could be recognized. Edward Weldon made the following observation in a paper delivered to the Conference on Priorities for Historical Records in 1977:

Trends in scholarship usually reflect prevailing contemporary issues and intellectual trends, and in this instance, the liberation movements—national, social, sexual—have their counterparts in ethnic history, women's and gay studies, and a wide variety of local community research.⁵

In other words, the same cultural milieu that allowed *Roots* to have such an important impact on the general population also helped to revolutionize the way professional historians would study history. Weldon noted that although historians were the backbone of early archives programs, a schism had formed between archivists and historians with the rise in governmental records and pub-

lic archives management in the 1940s. This split had an impact on research methodology, with historians through much of the 1960s making minimal use of original sources.⁶

The new "social history" of the 1970s began to document "history from the bottom up" by studying social institutions through their impact on the lives of ordinary people.⁷ Much of the traditional focus on political and military history was redirected to the study of ethnic, gender, and family history. In order to document the lives of ordinary people from the perspective of the immigrant experience or to illustrate changes in communities and families, professional historians began to seek records they had previously neglected, and which archivists had therefore considered of minimal value.⁸ Social history would be built on the personal papers of "anonymous Americans," and on census records, city directories, tax and probate records, and similar primary sources providing information about individuals and families.⁹

This new interest in ethnic heritage and the family found its way into the history classrooms of colleges and universities. Education in the methodology of "family history," defined as "the professional study of trends in families,"¹⁰ was reinforced by assigning students the task of preparing family history projects, unique "family biographies."¹¹ These projects, generally confined to the 20th century, encouraged students to use primary sources, including personal family information, to document some aspect of their families. Historians supervising the preparation of these projects were quick to distinguish their methods from those of genealogists, and emphasized that "while genealogy is concerned with lineage, names and year of birth and death, family history attempts to understand the life of an entire family over several generations."¹²

While historians acknowledged that indexes, record transcriptions, and genealogies compiled by traditional genealogists had proved useful in "technical family history," they also asserted that "amateur family biography and community history," preferably conducted under the tutelage of a professional historian, would be a much better historical resource.¹³

This new focus in historical research required a new focus for archival appraisal. Collection development began to include acquiring not only the papers of society's elite, but also the documents that would illuminate the daily lives of ordinary individuals, particularly those who were part of the great immigrant waves of the late 19th and early 20th centuries.¹⁴ Nicholas Montalto noted in 1978 that archivists were beginning actively to seek the documents of American immigration and ethnicity in response to the "reawakening of ethnic consciousness and the growing interest of historians in the experience of those heretofore considered inarticulate."¹⁵ Historians encouraged archivists not only to collect the primary source material necessary for family history research but also to encourage students and avocationists to create family biographies and donate them to archives for use by professional scholars.¹⁶

This concept of professional "family history" versus amateur "genealogy," or even "family biography," as it was introduced within the community of professional historians, is a curious one from the perspective of many of those who began tracing their ancestry in the 1970s. Unaware of trends in academia, they have been conducting "family history" by definition, "reconstituting" families and tracing their movements through generations of social change. They have had to deal with the unique problems of locating and researching foreign

records, including international history and politics, language barriers, and patronymics. The rebellion against the analogy of the "melting pot" and a yearning for an ethnic identity sent a new breed of "genealogist" in search of the same primary sources that professional "family historians" were "discovering." In fact, some archivists recognized that even genealogists of the past had not always been as narrowly focused on published materials as most historians believed. Stressing the importance of census records in conducting professional "family history," Janice Reiff observed that "Dedicated genealogists have, for decades, known the value of these censuses in tracing individual families back through the generations.... Through the censuses, those people interested in particular families or individuals have been able to reconstruct the lives of their subjects."¹⁷

A Double Standard for "Genealogists" and "Scholars"

Despite the similarities in the interests, and often the methodologies, of professional and amateur family historians in the 1970s, their research was rarely considered equivalent by archivists and librarians. Since many early genealogists had relied heavily on published sources and had often focused on discovering connections to America's elite or even European royalty, much of the foundation for the stereotype of genealogists was laid in public libraries. Antagonism against genealogists was rampant, ranging from "frayed nerves" to contempt and outright discrimination.¹⁸ Yet even the harshest critics often recognized that the new interest in ancestry differed from its previous incarnation. In an otherwise scathing attack on amateur family and local history as little more than "hausfrau therapy" and "nostalgia," an English librarian acknowledged that it "is a genuine phenomenon, and has nothing of the snob-appeal inherent in traditional genealogy."¹⁹

Archivists often exhibited the professional historian's bias against genealogy as they came into contact with amateur family historians seeking primary sources in local and state historical societies and archives. Genealogists were criticized by both librarians and archivists "for their ineptness in historical research and...their uncritical interpretation of records."²⁰ The belief "that any untrained person can do genealogical research" was frequently at the root of discriminatory practices against genealogists.²¹ This narrow impression of the nature and scope of genealogical research has been subtly reinforced even by those attempting to improve the relationship between genealogists and archivists or librarians. An Ohio librarian, advocating understanding as well as "patience and diligence" in dealing with genealogists, unwittingly disparaged their research by commenting, "The preparation, research, and hours that go into filling in all the blanks on a 'begot' sheet is amazing."²² The perception of genealogy as a time-consuming ancestral crossword puzzle has been an integral part of the stereotype. This image is difficult to eradicate because the old terminology persists even where the old methodology does not. Unfortunately, "family history" in the avocational sense is not as widely used in the United States as it is in Britain; despite its narrow connotation, "genealogy" is still generally applied to amateur family history research regardless of its scope.

The negative attitudes toward genealogists noted in the professional literature have been exposed together with revised views based on acquired experience

with these researchers. The nature of the informal debates about genealogists in the early years of their visits to libraries and archives can only be imagined. An increase in thefts at these institutions during the late 1970s, some of which were blamed on overzealous, though probably ingenuous, genealogists, doubtless exacerbated their already tense relationship with librarians and archivists.²³ Phebe Jacobsen, in an article on the improving relationship between archivists and genealogists, acknowledged that "virtual battle lines have been drawn between genealogists and archivists, as each group has seen the other as the major obstacle to accomplishing mutually exclusive goals." She candidly admitted that "Denigrating genealogists has been a cherished avocation of archivists ever since we began scratching our way up the ladder toward professional status."²⁴

From Confrontation to Accommodation

The large numbers of genealogists who have descended on state archives and historical societies since the 1970s, both in person and by post, have forced many of these institutions to reevaluate not only their traditional view of avocational historians, but also their traditional view of reference service. Many archivists affirm that scholars have been, and often continue to be, the preferred users of archives; however, those who have dared to look closely at whom they serve in reference have discovered that reality does not conform to desire.²⁵ In a paper delivered in 1981 to the National Conference on Regional Archives Networks, Timothy Ericson acknowledged that planners of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin's Regional Archival Network anticipated scholars to be its primary users. Although use by genealogists and local historians was considered, the eventual reality of an "explosion in their numbers was entirely unforeseen."²⁶

The onslaught of genealogists has often seemed overwhelming; Jacobsen referred to it as "a siege by a determined and persistent legion."²⁷ However, she has described how the Maryland State Archives turned the substantial genealogical tide to its advantage by modernizing and improving all aspects of reference service in order to keep up with demand: research rooms were redesigned to accommodate more patrons; the process of answering postal inquiries was streamlined and standardized; and orientation and instruction, along with more efficient guides and indexes, helped make genealogists more independent in the research process. Jacobsen also advocated that genealogists, as an archives' "staunchest supporters," be afforded equitable treatment by archivists, and questioned whether it is "justifiable or prudent to expect genealogists, taxpayers and citizens all, who comprise 1/2 to more than 3/4 of our clientele, to stand patiently in line while we first serve fellow public servants and superfluous historians?"²⁸

In the late 1970s, the Illinois State Archives, determined "to change the composition of its user group and attract scholars as well as genealogists," set about creating a detailed guide to its holdings specifically for that purpose. The preparation and publication of the guide had many positive results. Since it was based on detailed series descriptions and provided subject indexes to link series, it improved the level of control over holdings and allowed archivists to deal more efficiently with reference requests. The publicity generated by the project

helped define the archives' purpose and provided momentum for other public service projects, such as indexing and outreach. One thing it did not do, however, was attract the clientele of professional historians for whom it was designed. In fact, Roy Turnbaugh, head of information services at the Illinois State Archives at the time, discovered that, particularly in tax-supported institutions, the idea that a minority of professional scholars should be especially revered archival patrons is "nonsense." Rather than cling to the myth of the "scholar" as its primary patron, the Illinois State Archives began to orient many of its programs toward its main users, genealogists. In response, genealogists became vocal advocates of the archives and their large numbers spurred the implementation of public services such as automated access and improved finding aids.²⁹

The focus on scholars as the main patrons of archives has made many archivists indifferent to the importance of keeping track of who comes to their institutions, what they are looking for, and how they use the records they find. Reference has often been limited to the "omniscience" of the archivist and his/her interpretation of traditional finding aids.³⁰ Outreach has been a low priority for those archivists who assume that the public does not—or need not—frequent the archives. However, a growing number of archivists have been exploring ways of providing more equitable, efficient reference service and more effective public outreach. As early as 1977, Elsie Freeman noted that most archives users were "genealogists, avocational historians, and general users," and advocated that more emphasis be placed on public outreach to expand the base of support for archives. She warned that "If a public institution does not build constituencies larger than those of the academic researcher, the institution is doomed."³¹ The idea of broadening the base of archives users has forced archivists to confront their espoused ethic of equal access to historical records. In 1978, Freeman credited "genealogy, no longer the property of social climbers but the tool of teachers and the delight of students and avocationists," with helping to stimulate in many Americans "a fascination with the past...undeniable in this nation of transients; and it is their right."³²

Some archivists have called for not only *equal* access, but also *improved* access; they have emphasized the need for conducting user studies to determine what type of guides and finding aids would be most beneficial to those who actually use archives, not those whom archivists would prefer to serve. In 1984, Freeman warned that neglecting to keep accurate records "gives credence to our prejudices, which, in turn, govern our practice."³³ However, as recently as 1988, Laurence Dowler observed that archivists may still not be ready to give up the belief that professional scholars are their primary patrons. He contended that many archivists resist conducting detailed user studies because the low scholarly use of archives "is discouraging news which they may be happy not to have confirmed in great detail."³⁴

User studies that have been conducted show that not only avocational researchers, but also professional social historians are often not adequately served by traditional finding aids and reference service. The emphasis on organizational history and hierarchy in archival description is often a barrier to user access, focusing more on records creators than records users. The professional literature has increasingly promoted the idea that archives become more "client-centered rather than materials-centered."³⁵ While archivists continue to debate the importance of provenance and original order in describing collections, many

see the value in the creation of more detailed guides and inventories, preferably with subject indexes, and in the implementation of automated retrieval systems.³⁶ In addition, as the Illinois State Archives discovered, the improved intellectual control afforded by better guides helps archivists respond more efficiently to reference questions. Some archivists also recognize the importance of improving communication skills to deal more effectively with a diverse user population. Some in the profession have even advocated studying the approach of librarians in enhancing reference skills.³⁷

Many archivists have also discovered that improved finding aids and more attentive reference service can only be effective in conjunction with programs designed to educate archives users. Jacobsen challenged archivists to "train genealogists in the art and mystery of archives," and "to change our attitude, welcome the genealogists, and face the problems they bring to our profession as our greatest challenge."³⁸ Many archivists have accepted this challenge and have built on the popularity of exploring cultural heritage and community history. Because this interest cuts across ethnic, gender, and age divisions, genealogy and local history have proved to be important educational tools for teaching a wide public the value of studying and preserving history.

In advancing the goal of making the archives a "community-centered institution meeting a new and expanded set of social needs,"³⁹ archivists are exploring innovative ways to educate a variety of user groups, from senior citizens to schoolchildren. Some archivists have discovered that avocationists are often receptive not only to information specifically related to their personal research, but also to education on archival principles and methodology.⁴⁰ Ann Pederson, in an article summarizing SAA's 1976 outreach survey, eloquently articulated the essence of an archival public service ethos, and commented prophetically on the significance of the nontraditional archival researcher: "...regardless of what varied views we archivists have of our new public and what sensibilities the new clientele may lack, there is one overriding quality they do possess: potential."⁴¹

The Genealogist as Archives Advocate and Asset

Genealogists have exhibited their "potential" in ways other than just those related to their large numbers, and they continue to gain acceptance as "scholars" in their own right. As early as 1979, in a paper given before the Texas State Genealogical Society, Meredith Colket recognized the scholarly expertise of many genealogists:

Academic circles years ago looked down upon the work of genealogy as mostly profitless. Today, they know that the genealogist in many cases knows far more about record sources than many historians. Genealogy appears to be an important tool to attract students to American history courses in general.⁴²

Although progressive, innovative archivists have provided educational programs for genealogists, self-education has played a significant role in the quality of research being conducted by many avocational local and family historians. The *Genealogical Periodical Annual Index*, an index to surname, locality, and topical categories found within all English-language genealogical periodicals,

illustrates this positive trend. In 1974 the *Index* included ninety-five periodicals with thirty-five hundred citations; by 1989 over eleven thousand citations from nearly three hundred periodicals were included. The index shows a steady increase in topics related to methodology, including efficient research techniques, proper documentation, computerized organization and linkage of data, document and artifact preservation, and the writing and publishing of family histories. Articles on local, national and international history have helped put genealogy within its historical framework.⁴³ In addition, many organizations publishing these periodicals provide education on these topics through workshops and conferences. They frequently index and transcribe local records to facilitate future research, and are political and financial supporters of archives programs.

The Mormons, for whom genealogical research is a theological imperative, have been at the forefront in educating genealogists and collecting genealogical material since the 19th century.⁴⁴ However, their expertise and influence have increased with the growing interest in genealogy around the globe. Their program of microfilming original records worldwide has allowed family historians economically to access a variety of primary source material through branches of Salt Lake City's LDS Family History Center. This project has also helped preserve original archival material by allowing repositories to provide researchers with microfilm copies rather than original records. The technological expertise of the Family History Department of the Genealogical Society of Utah has been used to create many unique databases that have been accessed by millions of genealogists.⁴⁵

Many avocational family historians have taken advantage of the educational opportunities provided to them and have gained experience researching diverse records. They have attracted the attention of archivists and librarians not because they are part of an inescapable horde, but because their experience and knowledge have made them valuable to archives and libraries. As often happens with stereotypes, increased contact and communication have helped to erode the negative image. Many librarians and archivists now recognize that "the chasm between [historical research and genealogical research] is disappearing rapidly,"⁴⁶ and that "traditional historical researchers and governmental research programs are using genealogical information more today than ever before."⁴⁷ To illustrate the change in attitude toward genealogical research, a "News Notes" article in the Spring 1982 issue of *The American Archivist* reported that the Los Angeles Division of Archives and Records had recently received a five thousand dollar grant to create an educational tape and slide show demonstrating how genealogical researchers use historical methods.⁴⁸

Particularly during tough economic times, archivists have discovered not only that genealogists as a group can be a political and financial asset to the archives, but also that the knowledge and expertise of individual genealogists can be valuable in a variety of archival functions. Volunteer genealogists can help provide lifeblood to an institution faced with massive budget cuts. When the Cuyahoga County (Ohio) Archives staff was slashed to just two people in 1988, genealogists filled the void to help keep the institution functioning. A Volunteer Assistance Program was created to assist the archivist in many aspects of the archives operation. According to Judith Cetina, Cuyahoga County Archivist, the volunteers eliminated any preconceptions that might have existed

about genealogists by proving themselves to be “serious, knowledgeable, and interested.” They provided assistance in locating and accessioning stray county records, compiled indexes and other finding aids, offered personal reference assistance to archives patrons, and donated materials the archives could not afford to purchase. The program continues to reap benefits for both the archives and the genealogists.⁴⁹

Informal discussion of this program at the 1992 Fall Meeting of the Midwest Archives Conference illustrated the role that volunteer genealogists are playing in many archives and historical societies. A representative of the State Historical Society of Iowa acknowledged having used volunteer genealogists successfully in several areas of archival function, including arrangement and description. While other archivists were reluctant to advocate full participation by genealogist volunteers in all archival functions, they did recognize the generally positive role they fill in the reference department. Representatives from both the Ohio Historical Society and the Western Reserve Historical Society reported a high degree of success using volunteer genealogists to assist in reference. Similar observations could be made about many archival institutions around the country.

Conclusion

As the interest in genealogy continues to grow, so do the related challenges for archivists. While professional historians may wonder, “What Ever Happened to Family History?”⁵⁰ archivists know that the avocational variety is alive and well in the crowded reading rooms of archival institutions. As long as there are neophyte genealogists, archivists will continue to debate the extent to which they should have access to original records. Archivists will continue to emphasize that genealogists be better prepared and better educated to conduct their research properly, but they will be more willing to help in those endeavors, offering genealogists “simplicity, elegance, and welcome.”⁵¹ At the same time, experienced genealogists will continue to be offended that social historians who use the fruits of genealogical research in their academic studies are afforded recognition as “scholars,” but the genealogists who conducted the initial research are not.⁵²

Whatever the personal attitudes of individual archivists concerning genealogical research, clearly genealogists have had a significant impact on all aspects of archival function: appraisal and accessioning, arrangement and description, reference and outreach—and perhaps eventually, even archives education. Janice Ruth suggests students of archives reference try an ancient technique to cultivate an appreciation of genealogists—put on the genealogist’s shoes by attempting a family history assignment. She contends that “it might instill in would-be archivists a better understanding and greater empathy for the needs, problems, and interests of their largest group of users.”⁵³ The serious consideration of such a proposal demonstrates how significantly the attitude of the archival profession has changed regarding genealogical research. If both archivists and genealogists recognize that they can learn from one another, the future may see their relationship moving from uneasy peace to active partnership.

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CATALOGING: A CASE STUDY OF PRACTICES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

NANCY M. SHAWCROSS

ABSTRACT: The following paper contextualizes manuscript cataloging tactics in Special Collections, University of Pennsylvania. Penn's approach maximizes existing capabilities of RLIN and the AMC format. Through extensive use of "linked records," Penn provides access to manuscript holdings without adding significantly to the time required for typical arrangement and description. Foremost in the creation of this methodology was the assurance that the RLIN/AMC database would not be degraded and would, in fact, be strengthened for researchers. Although current manuscript cataloging rules are followed, the spirit of this new approach appears to run counter to prevailing archival conventions or perceptions.

In 1988 the Department of Special Collections, Van Pelt Library, University of Pennsylvania, was in the seemingly unfortunate position of having none of its approximately 8,000 linear feet of manuscripts cataloged in *any* on-line database. In fact, only a handful of catalog cards had been generated for holdings that encompass well over a hundred distinct collections, although records did exist for *some* of the thousands of individual items or small groups of items that had found their way into the department over the course of the century. As the newly appointed Curator of Manuscripts, I had to address the issue of bibliographic control immediately and, in essence, completely from scratch. The situation, therefore, was both a bane and a blessing as I began my tenure at Penn: I had no cataloging base on which to build, but I also had no unfortunate or misguided work to impede my freedom to bring our manuscripts under the best bibliographic control that I could envision with today's technology and practices.

The collections at Penn have some central themes but represent the not uncommon diversity of a special collections department in a large research library/university. No guarantee existed that the majority of patrons who would be well-served by aspects of our holdings would know to contact Penn, *even if* collection-level records were created in RLIN/AMC for all of our manuscript collections. I also noticed almost immediately a predominant pattern in reference inquiries. Most often asked was: who wrote to whom? or do you have any letters or manuscripts by so-and-so? I, therefore, based my decisions as to the nature and form of our cataloging practices on the needs of our patrons vis-à-vis our collections.

Having been trained in 1985 in the AMC format by LaVonne Gallo of RLG, I instinctively chose to pursue any manuscript cataloging activity via RLIN. Strengthening the argument to base our cataloging in the RLIN system was the fact that Penn's local on-line catalog (a Notis-based system) had yet to be programmed for AMC-type cataloging. It was of utmost concern to me that I spend *no* time trying to create yet another separate system or data-base locally: I did not want to re-invent the wheel, so to speak, or to strain the financial and personnel resources of an already-overburdened systems office. RLIN provided all the functions, features, and capacities that I would ever need, and using it as our data-base of record meant *immediate* international access to our materials. Although the trend today is to produce cataloging records locally and load them in either RLIN or OCLC, I recommend the opposite, if affordable and permissible at one's institution.¹ But again, my strategy was based almost on a one-stop-shopping mentality: I wanted to deal with only one system *from* which all other needs (such as local cataloging records) would be derived, a system which simultaneously was offering the broadest public access and the greatest commitment to the AMC format.

Rationale

Not all researchers desire the "big picture" when tracking down manuscripts for their topic of study. Many long for and often demand a myopic presentation of information to reduce valuable time and money spent on consulting original documents. More often than not the search for specific manuscript materials falls on the librarian, who then expends considerable time ascertaining whether or not his/her institution has the requested items or to what extent it holds manuscripts related to the inquiry.

The description of manuscript collections, therefore, really has a two-fold function. The first is to provide collection-level information in order to let the research community know where the papers of individuals or records of institutions now reside. The second is to provide series- or subseries-level analysis not only to expedite a researcher's search for pertinent material within a manuscript collection but also to alert researchers to pertinent items within manuscript collections *that they might otherwise not have thought to consult*.

In general, the first need has been met by manuscript librarians through collection-level cataloging in-house; through notification of holdings to *NUCMC* and other published guides to manuscript collections; and since the 1980s through the cataloging of records in the AMC format in RLIN, OCLC, or local on-line catalogs. The second need has generally been managed through the creation of finding aids to or inventories of the contents of individual collections—guides that may then be published or remain within repositories for patron and staff use. Some repositories also create in-house card files or even local machine-readable data bases that interfile groups of letters or materials found within various manuscript collections. Many institutions also participate in organizing and providing data—beyond a mere collection-level scheme—to subject guides, for example, *American Literary Manuscripts* or *English Literary Manuscripts*, which present many individual listings for manuscripts located within larger collections. For example, a repository may indicate that it possesses 149 letters by Eugene O'Neill, 27 of which are in a larger collection of

Random House Archives, 2 of which appear in the John Reed Collection, and 120 of which are in an O'Neill Collection.

A finding aid or register is an essential product for a manuscripts repository. It is the guide to a large body of collected material for researchers needing access to the bulk of that collection; it is a text that can be photocopied easily and sent out; it is the security—or shelf-list—for the physical location of the component parts of the collection. But hard-copy registers do not interact with one another nor unite related material in the way that card files, machine-readable data-bases, or subject guides do: each register must be consulted to answer specific research requests, such as a request for *all* the correspondence of a certain individual within a repository. One traditional method of bringing forth component parts has been to include added entries—both author and title—to the collection-level cataloging record. While this approach offers important assistance to the researcher, it remains cumbersome and often frustrating—cumbersome because the “notes” or “520” field can become painfully long and tedious to read and frustrating because the number of items and their respective dates for the added entries are usually not found in the cataloging record.

At Penn we have developed and implemented a new approach to the description of our manuscript collections. This approach exploits the resources of RLIN by providing national access not only to collection-level information but also to group-level information for our large manuscript collections. At the same time, RLIN provides us with hard-copy container lists or indices that are incorporated into the registers for the collections.

Description of Cataloging Process

We prepare what is essentially a traditional cataloging record for each manuscript collection and enter it into AMC. The entry indicates the years covered in the collection, its physical size, its scope and general contents, its provenance, etc. (For an example of a collection-level entry, see Figure 1.) For large manuscript collections, however, which contain a significant number of important correspondents, we eschew added entries as a means of tracing individual correspondents. Instead we catalog in AMC individual correspondents within a collection *as separate records linked to the collection-level record* (or “host item”). These brief entries contain information as to the extreme dates of the correspondence and the number of items and leaves and also note the collection and folder location. (See Figure 2 for an example of a linked record.)

After all linked records for any given collection have been input and revised, we request an RLIN report (Figure 3). The report is an alphabetized sort of all 1xx and 7xx fields. The alphabetized, two-column printout or report contains the heading (1xx or 7xx field); the date(s) (245 field, subfield “f”); the number of items and leaves (300 field); and the folder number (773 field, subfield “g”).

The report serves as an index for our register to collections such as the Lewis Mumford Papers or the Theodore Dreiser Papers—at an approximate cost of \$450. Without the report from RLIN, we would have typed a list of all the principal correspondents, which in the case of Dreiser runs to 3,742 names. Instead, RLIN does it for us, and the typing (i.e., inputting) that we do with relation to describing this collection will provide national access to many constituent parts of it. As more of our collections are entered into RLIN/AMC in this manner,

less often will we have to check individual collection inventories to determine what correspondence we have for an individual. Instead, one personal name search will retrieve all our holdings at the same time, regardless of the manuscript collection in which they reside.

The feasibility of inputting possibly 3,000 to 4,000 linked records into RLIN/AMC for a single manuscript collection has been enhanced by a mechanism worked out in consultation with RLG staff. We create a "dummy" record in the "Visual Materials File" (VIM) file for a typical linked record. Only the smallest of adjustments is needed to have the VIM record resemble the AMC record.² For the kind of linked records that we input, the ARC segment remains the same for each linked record of a particular collection. The "dummy" record in VIM and the transfer ID command, therefore, are invaluable to us. Because our linked records are generally brief, we really are not typing (i.e., inputting) much more than we would be when creating a register/container list. Because of the quantity of our linked records for an individual collection, we do not include

Dreiser, Theodore, 1871-1945.

Papers, ca. 1890-1965 (bulk 1897-1955).
503 boxes.

American writer.

Summary: Contains 22 series, including correspondence (118 boxes); legal matters (7 boxes); writings (260 boxes), comprising books, essays, short stories, poems, plays, screenplays, radio scripts, addresses, lectures, interviews, introductions, and prefaces; journals edited by Dreiser (6 boxes); notes (9 boxes); diaries (5 boxes); biographical material (1 box); memorabilia (41 boxes), comprising scrapbooks, photographs, art work, promotional material, postcards, and miscellanea; financial records (5 boxes); clippings (23 boxes); works by others (12 boxes); and oversize materials (2 boxes).

Also includes materials regarding various family members: brother Paul Dresser (8 boxes of correspondence, sheet music and lyric sheets, clippings and memorabilia, and two plays written by Dreiser); second wife Helen Dreiser (4 boxes of diaries and other writings); and niece Vera Dreiser (2 boxes of correspondence).

Principal holdings: gift of and purchase from Theodore and Helen Dreiser, 1942-1955. Additional donations: Myrtle Butcher; Louise Campbell; Harold J. Dies; Ralph Fabri; Mrs. William White Gleason; Hazel Mack Godwin; Paul D. Gormley; Marguerite Tjader Harris; R. Sturgis Ingersoll; Los Angeles Public Library; F. O. Matthiessen; Vera Dreiser Scott; Lorna D. Smith; Robert Spiller; and Estelle Kubitz Williams.

Literary rights to unpublished Dreiser manuscripts: The Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania.

Finding aids: Unpublished register, container list, and correspondents' index available through Special Collections, Van Pelt Library, University of Pennsylvania.

Indexes: AMC file of RLIN provides an index to 3,742 principal correspondents. To obtain a listing, do the following search: fin rt Theodore Dreiser Papers#.

Cite as: Theodore Dreiser Papers, Special Collections, Van Pelt Library, University of Pennsylvania.

Location: Special Collections, Van Pelt Library, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104-6206.

I. Dresser, Paul, 1858-1906. II. Dreiser, Helen Patges, d.1955. III. Dreiser, Vera. IV. Title: Theodore Dreiser Papers, ca. 1890-1965.

RGPN: Ms. Coll. 30

ID: PAUR92-A3859

CC: 9554

DCF: a

PROC: b

:+B?

Figure 1
Cataloging of a Collection-Level Record

these names as added entries to the collection-level entry, nor are these records traced under the collection-level main entry. We do not think that 3,743 records (in the case of the Theodore Dreiser Papers) is an appropriate search result for "fin pn theodore dreiser." We do, however, use the 590 field in the collection-level entry to indicate that the AMC file of RLIN provides an index to the correspondents in the collection. It goes on to state that a researcher who needs to obtain a listing should do the following search: fin rt "title of the collection." So a researcher who wanted to scan the individual contents of a collection could do so.

All RLIN/AMC cataloging follows the principles outlined in Steven L. Hensen's *Archives, Personal Papers, and Manuscripts: A Cataloging Manual for Archival Repositories, Historical Societies, and Manuscript Libraries*. It may be important to iterate that the RLIN/AMC cataloging that we have adopted at Penn does not increase our processing time: it simply kills two birds with one stone. It creates a listing or index to significant correspondents within a col-

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ID: PAUR92-A2147          CC: 9554      DCF: a      PROC: b
:+B? ful 1
FIN PN MASTERS, EDGAR LEE ALS LI PAUR - Record 1 of 3

ID:PAUR92-A2147          RTYP:d      ST:p      MS:      EL:z      AD:05-07-92
CC:9554 BLT:bd          DCF:a      CSC:d      MOD: PROC:b      UD:06-24-92
PP:pau      L:eng          PC:i      PD:1912/1950 REP:?
MMD:      OR:      POL:      DM:      RR:      COL:      EML:      GEN:      BSE:
040      PU$cPU$eappm
041      eng
100 1      Masters, Edgar Lee,$|d1868-1950.
245 00      $kCorrespondence$bwith Theodore and Helen Dreiser,$f1912-1950, n.d.
300      280 items (629 leaves).
500      Comprises 275 items to Theodore and Helen Dreiser and 5 items from
      them or their representative.
545      Contains correspondence from Ellen Coyne Masters, wife of Edgar Lee
      Masters.
520      There are 2 galleys (3 leaves) housed in oversize, correspondence
      from E. L. Masters, ca. 1945.
700 10      Masters, Ellen Coyne.
773 0      $tTheodore Dreiser Papers, ca. 1890-1965.$gFolders 4013-4024; 14678.
851      $bSpecial Collections,$aVan Pelt Library, University of
      Pennsylvania, $ cPhiladelphia, Pennsylvania 19104-6206.

Masters, Edgar Lee, 1868-1950.
Correspondence with Theodore and Helen Dreiser, 1912-1950, n.d.
280 items (629 leaves).
Comprises 275 items to Theodore and Helen Dreiser and 5 items from them or
their representative.
Contains correspondence from Ellen Coyne Masters, wife of Edgar Lee Masters.
Summary: There are 2 galleys (3 leaves) housed in oversize, correspondence
from E. L. Masters, ca. 1945.
In: Theodore Dreiser Papers, ca. 1890-1965. Folders 4013-4024; 14678.
Location: Special Collections, Van Pelt Library, University of
Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104-6206.

I. Masters, Ellen Coyne.
RGPN: Ms. Coll. 30
ID: PAUR92-A2147          CC: 9554      DCF: a      PROC: b
:+B?
    
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Figure 2
Cataloging of a "Linked Record"

THEODORE DREISER PAPERS - CORRESPONDENTS' INDEX	Page 109
Martens, Frederick Herman, 1874-1932. SEE International Literary Bureau.	Mason, Harold T. SEE Centaur Book Shop.
Martin, E. C. SEE McClure's Magazine.	Mason, Harold T. 1927. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 4005.
Martin, Edward Sandford, 1856-1939. 1930-1934. 7 items (10 leaves). Folder 3988.	Mason, J. W. T. (Joseph Warren Teets). 1879-1941. SEE Daily Express (London, England).
Martin, George Madden, 1866-1916. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 3990.	Mason, Walt, 1862-1939. 1913. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 4006.
Martin, James S. SEE Century Company.	The Masses. 1913. 3 items (3 leaves). Folder 4008.
Martin, M. W. SEE Hammond Defense Fund Committee	Massey, Dorothy Collins. 1926-1942. 19 items (31 leaves + 1 photo). Folder 4009.
Martin, Martha Evans, d. 1925. SEE Demorest's Family Magazine.	Massie, Effie Dunreith. 1912. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 4010.
Martin, Quinn. 1928. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 3993	Massie, Hughes. SEE Curtis Brown, Ltd.
Martin, Raymond. 1939. 2 items (4 leaves). Folder 3994.	Massock, Richard Gilbert, 1900- SEE Associated Press.
Martindale, John W. SEE Brookwood Labor College (Katonah, New York).	Masson, C. D. 1932. 8 items (19 leaves + 1 pamphlet). Folder 4011.
Maruzen, Kahushiki Kaisha. 1931. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 3997.	Masson Economic Theory and System, 1932. SEE Masson, C. D.
Marvin, Cloyd Heck. 1932. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 3998.	Masson, Thomas L. 1920-1923. 4 items (4 leaves). Folder 4012.
Marx, Carolyn. SEE New York World-Telegram.	Masters, Edgar Lee, 1868-1950. 1912-1950, n.d. 280 items (629 leaves). Folders 4013-4024; 14678.
Marx, Magdeleine. 1932. 2 items (5 leaves). Folder 4000.	Masters, Ellen Coyne SEE Masters, Edgar Lee, 1868-1950.
Marx, Saul. SEE Clipper Press.	Masters, Marcia Lee. 1944-1949. 10 items (14 leaves). Folder 4025.
Maryland Theatre (Baltimore, Md.). 1931. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 4001.	Mathews, Shailer, 1863-1941. SEE The World Today.
Mason, Caroline Atwater, 1853-1939. 1916. 1 item (1 leaf). Folder 4003.	Mathews, William Burdette, 1866-1943. SEE August 27 Club.
Mason, Clara R. SEE Philadelphia Art Alliance.	Mathieu, Aron M. SEE Writer's Digest (Cincinnati, Ohio).

Figure 3
Sample page of RLIN Report

lection through the venue of a national/international data-base. In the case of the Lewis Mumford Papers, a part-time worker was able to enter 4,598 linked records in a semester. When she later worked on the Theodore Dreiser Project, we had refined the system such that she was able to enter 3,742 linked records in about six weeks.

The Debate

The seeds of any current debate regarding the level and nature of cataloging and cataloging records in a national or international shared database may well stem from the classic dichotomy between historical manuscripts repositories and public archives. In a recent article in *American Archivist*, Luke J. Gilliland-Swetland distinguishes "between two competing perspectives within the professional community: one that views archivists as members of a larger community of historian-scholars with a responsibility to interpret the documents in their care; and one that defines archivists as information-management professionals with a responsibility to act as 'gatekeepers' for the materials under their control." In the past the former often endorsed and created calendars (item-level description) for their manuscript collections, while the latter tended to emphasize records management which included issues such as provenance, retention schedules, agency histories, and series-level description. As Gilliland-Swetland notes, although "major historical manuscripts repositories began [after World War II] incorporating the central practices of the public archives tradition, [namely] using arrangement according to provenance as the basis for intellectual and physical control over holdings...[and implementing] series-level rather than item-level description and cataloging," the curators within these same repositories did not also adopt "the outlook of the public archives tradition, that is preserving records for administrative and public needs. Historical manuscripts repositories accepted, rather, what appeared to be better methods for achieving 'traditional' goals, that is, preserving records of enduring value for use in historical scholarship by historians."³

Local cataloging practices tend to differ between historical manuscripts repositories and public archives. In an attempt to enlarge the AMC file in RLIN, federal funding was received in 1985 to "reconvert" local manual files for a group of research institutions into machine-readable cataloging records entered into RLIN's AMC file. In a dramatic way this project made manifest the diversity of cataloging practices still possible within the standard established for machine-readable archival cataloging. The national archival databases created by RLIN and OCLC were bringing together records created essentially from divergent view points, renewing the debate over level and location of description for archival materials.

In terms of the RLIN AMC file, the debate among colleagues seems mostly to concern the two great frustrations expressed by those who consult the file: (1) search results that are too large and which offer high counts for the holdings residing in one institution and (2) lengthy collection-level records with a large quantity of tracings. The latter concerns those well-meaning cataloging records that go into elaborate—sometimes even painful—detail regarding the scope of a certain manuscript collection or record series: entries that run anywhere from five to fifteen or more screens in the long display! The former refers to the

inverse frustration—cataloging records that provide too little information per record yet produce search results in the thousands for items within a single repository.

Although the approach that we have taken at Penn for the cataloging of our manuscripts obviates both frustrations, it suggests to some item-level description and the retrograde traditions of historical manuscripts repositories. Frequently discussed and debated at professional conferences and RLIN-users meetings is not what level of descriptive control should be created by a repository but rather what level of descriptive control should be available through the national on-line bibliographic data-bases. The AMC format was created through the unprecedented union of the Library of Congress and the Society of American Archivists, through a committee known as the National Information Systems Task Force. The task force's objective was to comply with USMARC fields while at the same time providing a format that would respond to and fulfill the bibliographic and management needs of those in charge of manuscript and archival materials and collections. Among the needs of manuscript repositories and archives is that of providing access to component parts of large collections—not only to let the researcher know, in general, that material relating to her or his topic may be had in so-and-so collection but also to reduce the amount of time required by the researcher to locate the needed material by providing container or folder numbers to it. Even more helpful to the researcher and her or his evaluation of how best to allocate time and travel budgets would be a brief description of some of these component parts. Pre-AMC/RLIN, these needs could only be met by creating registers—available in-house, through the mail, or perhaps published; or by maintaining card files in the reading rooms of these repositories; or by creating local on-line data-bases, which might then in turn be available through local or regional networks. For those of us who found these alternatives either costly, time-consuming, clumsy, or generally unsatisfactory to our researchers' needs, the RLIN/AMC file offered a new hope for improved access to our holdings and dissemination of bibliographic information.

I believe that the principal, most productive discussion in which either RLIN/AMC or OCLC/AMC contributors could engage concerns access points (fields of information that are coded for specific retrieval as opposed to “key-word” retrieval) and search results (how many records, representing how many different collections from the same institution, will result from certain search strategies, such as a personal or corporate name search). Secondly or perhaps relatedly, this discourse should address the quality and consistency of cataloging and the amount of bibliographic information provided. Although the SAA, RLG, and OCLC should continue to promulgate standards not only for the format but for the entry of records in the utilities, they should not, in my opinion, inadvertently limit the concept or potential of these utilities to the mission of *NUCMC*. We *must* be forward-looking and address the complexity of our needs through the promotion of new solutions and refined thinking regarding our operations.

Item-level cataloging is the pariah of today's archival profession. For example, in its guidelines for application to the Preservation and Access Program, the National Endowment for the Humanities states: “Calendaring and detailed indexing are not supported unless an applicant can present a persuasive argu-

ment for scholarly needs in this area." But the term "item-level cataloging" or "calendarizing" is misrepresentative of the intellectual complexities of manuscript collection cataloging. I believe that items within a physical and intellectual category should *not* be individually catalogued in national data-bases such as RLIN or OCLC, but I would argue that an intellectual category may comprise only one item, whose cataloging I do support. For example, one illustration of an intellectual category that I have identified as vital to my researchers is "who wrote to whom." So every such category carries equal research value *regardless* of the number of items. Therefore, we created a cataloging record in RLIN for the one letter from Thomas Edison to Theodore Dreiser as well as for the group of 280 items of correspondence between Edgar Lee Masters and Dreiser.

The debate also entails issues regarding access points and search results. I object to a search result (such as I got on the sixth of August 1992) of 1099 hits, 1059 of which represented entries from one special collection. The initial search was find "personal name exact" William Carlos Williams, which resulted in 1099 hits. Suspecting that the majority emanated from one repository, I discovered through a searching strategy that indeed 1059 were from a single institution. It most likely is the case that these items derive from only one or just a few manuscript collections or, put another way, have just one or a few provenances. It is a *time-saving* courtesy to researchers to unite groups of like material together—not only physically, as the library probably received it—but also intellectually, as represented in the cataloging record. Search results of 1059 for a single institution, representing material from only one or a few sources, figuratively-speaking clog the system and absolutely frustrate the researcher (as well as the librarian).

On the other hand, AMC records such as the Francis White Papers with 349 subject entries, 327 of which are personal or corporate names (in the long display there are eleven screens of "bib"), are exasperating, for they fail to tell you how the name that you were searching relates to the collection cataloged: there is no *refined* information to a name that somebody thought was worthy of being an access point. By the way, the AMC record for the Francis White Papers was part of a search result for the following search: find "personal name" Homer Brett. In terms of the record that was available to read to the general public, the name "Homer Brett" does not appear: the researcher has no idea what relation the individual that (s)he was searching relates to the cataloging record selected by the operating system. Although some may claim that at least the researcher will know to contact the institution holding the Francis White Papers, I consider such cataloging elementary in its approach and not exploitative of the system in which it currently exists.

In what one chooses to catalog and then with regard to how one catalogs the material, I propose that institutions who contribute to RLIN pay attention to things like search results, misleading information, or qualitatively poor information. I believe that Penn's approach to the cataloging of its manuscript collections does just that, because it provides more access to materials via a *single* venue; and because it provides qualitatively better information; and because it saves researchers' time for many typical inquiries. Where one could argue possible contradiction is the fact that Penn deliberately has not implemented linked-record AMC cataloging for the hundreds of manuscripts or writings by an author such as Theodore Dreiser. Such materials often comprise a significant

portion of an author's personal papers, and one must admit that the titles of these works can be viewed as important access points. I decided, however, that the main entry for the Dreiser Papers so clearly indicates that the researcher is likely to find most of Dreiser's extant manuscripts at Penn that to catalog them individually does not offer access to a broad population of researchers and would only clog the system in terms of a "personal name" search under "Dreiser." If, however, Penn owned the H.L. Mencken Papers, in which the manuscript to Dreiser's *Sister Carrie* were contained, I would create a separate AMC record linked to the Mencken collection-level record, because Dreiser and *Sister Carrie* have qualitatively more value as access points vis-à-vis the main entry to which they relate. I am trying to reach the patron who may not know to consult a particular manuscript collection, but I am trying to accomplish this while also providing more and better information regarding the particular research interest than added entries and subject entries found in AMC typically offer. *NUCMC* exists; *RLIN/AMC* should and can offer something else in addition to that which *NUCMC* provides.

In the last several years I have either attended cataloging workshops led by staff from the Library of Congress or attended numerous meetings with book catalogers in which I have invariably been told that the need to streamline cataloging practices and/or reduce fields of input is a national mandate or reality. The typical refrain is: "Time and money must be saved; at least give the patron some crumb of a cataloging record rather than add to the backlog." As admirable and seemingly logical as this philosophy may appear, I see no reason why AMC catalogers must follow suit. Like Marion Matters, I would suggest, for example, that manuscripts and archival catalogers use relator terms. As Ms. Matters put it on 16 March 1992 in "Archives & Archivists" (an electronic mail list): "Since the subtleties of 6xx vs 7xx or author vs subject are lost on users (not to mention many archivists), why not tell them the relationship in English? In other words, why not add relator terms to headings more freely (i.e., Hensen, Steven, correspondent), no matter how they're coded?" Since a special task force has carved out a format unique to manuscripts and archives, why not continue to acknowledge and catalog for our unique reference, format, management, and security needs? I don't want an AMC record to resemble a book record more and more: I simply want the AMC format to be machine-compatible with the other formats. Beyond such compatibility and standardization of field codes, we should not look, in my opinion, to the practices of our print colleagues. Rather we should forge ahead with models, databases, and records that truly answer our needs as archival and manuscript professionals and our users' needs.

Conclusion

At several sessions during the 1992 SAA annual meeting in Montreal issues such as multi-level description and/or full-text searching and availability on-line were discussed. And some have even suggested that multi-level searching become a priority system enhancement for *RLIN*. But if such a function were available tomorrow, many significant access issues would remain. How should we point a user at Level I to pertinent material described at Level II, and so on? The availability, for example, of full-text finding aids on-line strikes me as a

luxury of description and a zero-gain with regard to access points or, to put it figuratively, there would be no additional keys to unlock the doors *behind* which lay the desired information. Access via key-word searching is no solution to access, because any full-text data-base would quickly contain such an enormous bank of hits for various character-strings that search results would either be impossible or so large as to be frustrating. The USMARC format provides data in a controlled format and thereby enables us to use controlled vocabulary searches. It is not significant conceptually to decide whether a "personal name" search, for example, contains the 1xx and 7xx fields alone versus the 1xx, 6xx, and 7xx fields. What is important is that a kind of search exists that differs from a key-word search. To quote T.S. Eliot: "We shall not cease from exploration, and the end of all our exploring will be to arrive where we started and know the place for the first time." So do I contend that multi-level description in an on-line data-base only returns us to issues of access points and quality control.

The system at Penn represents one way of addressing issues of bibliographic access points and quality control in an on-line environment that has been successful. Although it is not expected that our particular cataloging practices will be emulated by all or even many, it is hoped that this review of our methodology will contribute to important dialogue concerning how we actually use the devices of automation, networks, and standard formats.

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NOTES

1. Since the University of Pennsylvania Library was a charter member of RLG, it was committed to either producing bibliographic records directly on RLIN or tape-loading locally-produced records into RLIN. When I began RLIN entry into AMC in 1988, it cost the Library nothing more than was currently being spent: the Department already had a dedicated RLIN terminal, and the Library had purchased a searching package that allowed unlimited searches. Other archival repositories and collections will need to consider the cost of equipment, telecommunication charges, as well as RLG membership, if they choose to catalog directly on RLIN. Often—given larger institutional practices—it is more cost-efficient to produce cataloging records on local systems and produce tapes for RLG to load into RLIN.
2. By working in catalog maintenance (as opposed to the catalog function) and by selecting both VIM and AMC files and setting the input for AMC, we can transfer most of the bibliographic fixed fields, and all of the bibliographic variable fields, and all of the ARC, except the INS field. One simply finds the VIM record, then transfers the ID into AMC. (The transfer ID command is the only one that will copy both the bib and arc segments of a record, but this command can be used only between files, not within a file. VIM is the only other file with an ARC segment; therefore, it holds the "dummy" record.)

After the command "set fun cat mai" is entered, the command for each new cataloging entry is:
 sel fil amc vim/set inp amc/fin id "vim record"/tra id

One must then fill in the BLT and PROC fields in the AMC record and the INS on the ARC segment. The AMC record will contain an 035 field with the ID of the VIM record—a field which we have chosen to delete. The VIM record has a "D" supplied in the INS field, so at the

end of the day we go back into the VIM record and remove it. If we fail to remove the "D," the "dummy" record will be lost overnight.

With the "dummy" VIM record transferred and the above-mentioned fields accounted for, we then enter the specific information for each entry. For our situation, the fixed bibliographic fields include L, PC, and PD. The variable bibliographic fields possibly needing alteration include 041, 1xx, 245, 300, and subfield "g" of the 773 field. For the ARC segment, only the INS field must be entered. The only peculiarity within the variable bibliographic fields is the inability to enter subfields "k" and "f" in the 245 field in the VIM "dummy" record. So we must type them in as we create each new AMC record.

3. Luke J. Gilliland-Swetland, "The Provenance of a Profession: The Permanence of the Public Archives and Historical Manuscripts Traditions in American Archival History," *American Archivist* 54:2 (Spring 1991): 160-175.

BOOK REVIEWS

Guide to Photographic Collections at the Smithsonian Institution, Volume III. By Diane Vogt O'Connor. Washington, DC and London: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1992. 390 pp. Introduction, notes, indexes, photographs. Softcover. \$49.95.

Being painfully aware of the criticism that archivists produce guides and other finding aids to amuse and impress other archivists and not the end user, I decided that I would approach the *Guide to Photographic Collections at the Smithsonian Institution, Volume III* from the perspective of a researcher. I further decided that my hypothetical researcher would be predisposed to dislike anything set before him. A profile typical, in my experience, of a good number of researchers.

In this persona I went in search of the idiosyncratic and the silly, knowing well that archivists possess a penchant for uniformity and standardization that accountants envy, which often as not produces guides which require the services of a cryptographer. I am pleased to report that my bilious phantom researcher found little about which to complain. I promise to flog, appropriately, those few things which were an obstacle to the use of the guide, but in all I found it quite serviceable. It accomplishes its mission as voiced in the introduction: "This volume provides a comprehensive overview of over 3.5 million photographs found in 180 collections within 7 Smithsonian art bureaus and one office."

The Introduction serves two purposes. Its first is to pay homage to the conventions of the profession. The archivist in me breathed a sigh of relief to find that the survey was based on MARC-VM and that subject terms were derived from appropriate authority sources. As a researcher, however, I was annoyed by having to read through arcane information that did not improve my ability to use the collections.

The researcher's annoyance quickly passed because most of the introduction is actually a cogent, well-written and approachable explanation of the practices that archivists use, of necessity, to harness information. In six short pages the user learns how to decipher the entries which follow, how to contact the repositories, and the rules by which access is provided. Further, the guide assumes nothing, and provides useful definitions for terms which archivists know innately, but users may find befuddling.

The introduction is followed by a delightful essay by the guide's author, Diane Vogt O'Connor, which relates the works held by the eight institutions to the history of photography. The essay travels the well-worn path of most survey histories of photography, but it approaches some well-known stories with a fresh eye. Because of that, it is both a good introduction for researchers ignorant of photography's convoluted past, and compelling reading for professionals

who have made a life's work of such a study. The essay also is well documented with notes leading the novice user to a great deal of fine extracurricular reading.

The essay is followed by the holdings list for the eight institutions: the National Museum of African Art, the National Museum of American Art, The Cooper-Hewitt Museum, the Freer Gallery of Art, The Hirshhorn Museum and Sculpture Garden, the Office of Horticulture, the National Portrait Gallery, and the Arthur M. Sackler Gallery. Each institution is introduced with a one page overview, and then dissected collection by collection.

As one might expect, reading each entry for each institution was as thrilling as reading a phone book, however it was enlightening to see a consistency in the coverage of each collection. Moreover, it was pleasing to discover that descriptions of even the least interesting of the collections could be written in a manner free of professional jargon and argot.

I was somewhat put off by citations to holdings from institutions which did not allow access to the photographs. One has to question the usefulness of including such holdings in a guide of this sort. I suppose it can be sufficiently apologized for under the rubric of inclusiveness.

The descriptions of the collections are followed by three useful indexes; one each for the creator, forms and processes, and subjects. The impressive consistency of the "assume nothing" attitude of this book appears even in the indexes. Each is introduced with a one page explanation of how each was created and how each was to be used. This is not so much a bow to the lowest common-denominator researcher as it is an acknowledgement of the variegated nature of those who might wish to use the guide.

The book ends with a portfolio of photographs from each of the collections. The exquisite quality of reproduction and the diverse nature of the various repositories from which the images came make each turn of the page a surprise and a distinct pleasure. This section is clearly unnecessary; the guide would stand well without it. But it is a homily of sorts, which reminds us of a fundamental truth that guides like this should not lead the user to other citations, but to the photographs.

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Selecting and Appraising Archives and Manuscripts. By F. Gerald Ham. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1993. 106 pp. Illustrated. Bibliographies and Index. Hardcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, \$19.00 members/\$25.00 nonmembers.

Jerry Ham has contributed a fine addition to SAA's "Archival Fundamentals Series" with this introductory manual on appraisal. In writing a basic manual, volume editor Frank Boles admonished Ham, "We aren't out on the archival edge exploring, we're back in the center of the galaxy explaining basic concepts" (v.). Well said. Though earthbound enough to teach fundamentals, *Selecting and Appraising* has enough reach to also challenge the novice or undertrained archivists for whom it is primarily intended.

The manual is the first of the Archival Fundamentals Series to be issued in hardcover, which permits it to lie open better than the softcovers and which also should prove more durable. *Selecting and Appraising* is thoughtfully organized into 11 chapters: a definition of appraisal and an introduction to why it is a “demanding” but necessary task that *archivists* must perform; an overview of important appraisal theory from Schellenberg to Bearman; the importance of acquisition policies as a “framework” for appraisal; two chapters on “identifying potential accessions”: one covering records management in institutional archives, and one covering solicitation and fieldwork for collecting repositories; specific “appraisal guidelines and criteria”; procedural and administrative steps in conducting an appraisal; “the use of sampling” in appraisal; donor agreements and accessioning; reappraisal and deaccessioning; and “new directions” in appraisal theory.

Ham does a particularly good job of creating a manual that will serve the institutional archivist and the collecting curator equally well. Though the actual acquisition methods in the two types of repositories are obviously different (and discussed in two separate chapters), the manual rightly insists that virtually all other aspects of appraisal are shared by archives and repositories in the modern era. And though Ham notes (laments?) that most of his “sermons” were excised by his editors, the manual benefits from being appropriately opinionated. The “Observations and Caveats” on page 72, for example, may well stand as Ham’s five commandments of appraisal:

“The goal of the appraiser is to make an informed decision, not an infallible one.

Today’s information-laden world has lessened the value of any single set of records; the documents may be unique but the information is usually not. This lessens the importance of individual appraisal decisions.

There should be a ‘definite and compelling justification’ for the retention of records.

Appraisal cannot be done from an archival cookbook with lists of what records are always important, usually important, or occasionally important, because institutional goals and records that help achieve those goals differ. Each appraisal decision is unique....

Appraisal is only part analysis; for the skilled and creative appraiser, it is also an art.”

The basic approach and content of the manual draws most heavily from the work of Frank Boles and Julia Marks Young, with a notable bow to Helen Samuels’ recent work on functional analysis. Many archivists may consider Ham’s approach to be too traditional or conservative, since it gives relatively short shrift to documentation strategy, macro appraisal, and other “archival edge” discussions, but *Selecting and Appraising* will provide its readers with the fundamental grounding they need to make sense of the current debates.

That being said, one of the few weaknesses of the manual is the last chapter on “new directions.” Of the four concepts presented, one is the Boles-Young taxonomy which, eight years after the publication of their “Black Box” article, is hardly new or very controversial. Besides, much of their taxonomy is incorporated into the manual’s chapter on appraisal guidelines and criteria. Much of the rest of this chapter could have been incorporated into previous chapters as

well. Inherently, a "new directions" chapter will quickly date any book, since directions do not stay new for long.

Two other small criticisms bear mention. Instead of a unified bibliography, the manual lists "selected readings" at the end of each chapter. This is a cumbersome device after the first reading because it is difficult to find a particular citation if it might logically be lodged after more than one chapter. The sum of the selected readings is a solid bibliography on appraisal, and should have been presented as a whole. Finally, a pet peeve. The manual contains 37 photographs, of which no more than six actually add anything to a reader's understanding of the text. The 24 "figures," on the other hand—everything from sample transfer forms to donor contact records—are substantive and uniformly helpful. Better, instead, to have eliminated most of the photos and added two or three more figures.

These are the proverbial minor flaws in an otherwise commendable book. *Selecting and Appraising* should be essential reading for beginning archivists, and a useful review and reference work for more experienced professionals.

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Non-Standard Collection Management. Edited by Michael Pearce. Aldershot, England, and Brookfield, VT: Ashgate Publishing Co., 1992. 236 pp. Bibliography and Index. Hardcover.

Written in England by a variety of contributors, the intent of this volume is to provide management guidance to librarians who may encounter materials within their collections which fall outside the scope of their experience. The authors of the topical sections are recognized practitioners in their fields, many with impressive credentials in British and international librarianship.

Sections are included on manuscripts, out-of-print books, newspapers, serials, cartographic materials, music and drama sets, ephemera, slides and microforms, and audio/visual recorded sources (film, videotape, audiotape, compact discs, optical discs, and vinyl recordings). However, there is no treatment of the problems of photograph collections, architectural drawings, or machine-readable records. Although of limited value for organizational references and bibliographic citations (most of which are British), the work does provide an interesting contrast of practice and philosophy in several areas.

In summarizing the area of newspaper collections, the book contains a brief discussion of the British program NEWSPLAN, which seems to correspond with the United States Newspaper Program, particularly in its goals of planning for preservation of UK newspapers through cooperative resource sharing and microfilming. Space is also given to microfilm, including consideration of formats, polarity, storage, readers/printers, and even a discussion of issues related to in-house filming of newspapers.

The chapter devoted to manuscripts stresses conservation and preservation questions, copyright concerns, collection security, user fees, and even the use of computers to provide improved subject access, but issues of processing and cat-

aloging are barely treated, alluding to AACR2 and archival administration works, such as Schellenberg, only in footnotes. With the emphasis on British literary manuscripts, extensive discussion is also given to acquisition, particularly through purchase, stating that, unlike an archivist, "the librarian, especially with some access to funds, is a collector."

The volume is not aimed at archival users, nor even at an American audience. Except for purposes of comparing British library practice, an archival repository or library seeking management information on distinct formats would be better served by consulting a specialized guide, such as the SAA Basic Manual or Archival Fundamentals Series or even one of the Library of Congress cataloging guides to graphic materials or archival moving images. The perspective of this work is definitely focused on application in British libraries, with little of substance to recommend it for general archives use.

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American Archival Analysis: The Recent Development of the Archival Profession in the United States. By Richard J. Cox. Metuchen, NJ, and London: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1990. 347 pp. Index. Hardcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, \$36.00 members/\$40.00 nonmembers.

The title, *American Archival Analysis: The Recent Development of the Archival Profession in the United States* is misleading. It is not "a comprehensive portrait of the archival profession in the 1980's" (vii), but a collection of "semi-autobiographical" (vii) essays about several issues and Cox's views about how archivists should deal with these issues and relate to other professions.

The preface's subtitle, "The Personal Odyssey of an Archivist," is also inapt. These essays are not about a journey home, but the opposite: the maturation of a person as an archivist and of archivists as a profession. They suggest a pilgrimage away from a home in the discipline/profession of history toward the "heavenly city" of archives as a profession like other professions—strong, respected, successful, well-paid, and influential.

After the first-person preface summarizing Cox's career and telling how the book's essays grew out of his experiences, the other sixteen (seven previously unpublished) essays are impersonal, analytical advocacy pieces which follow the same pattern. Cox surveys the existing literature to define a problem. Then he tells archivists how they should deal with it.

Cox admits that the essays "do represent a rut" and "are somewhat repetitive" (xi). He did change some essays "to transform [them] into a book" (xi), e.g., summarizing, updating, and grouping them and giving cross references. But he did not go far enough in tempering his prescriptive, "preachy" tone or excising the too frequent repetition of the same information and citations.

Cox's introductory essay describes the "Precarious Condition of America's Historical Records and the Archival Profession in the 1980s" (pp. 1-21). He cites several studies of national, state, and local public, private, and institutional records showing that they are in serious trouble. He then tells archivists what to do to remedy the situation.

The next seven essays deal with archives as a profession. Cox uses sociological models to show how archives is relatively underdeveloped compared to other professions. He cites the Society of American Archivists' Goals and Priorities Task Force (later a standing committee) and its report as an example of the kind of leadership and planning the profession needs. By contrast, he shows how the lack of professional and political leadership has left America's local governmental (especially municipal) records in terrible condition. He concludes with essays on what American archival education has been and should become. Stressing the value of individual certification and institutional accreditation of graduate programs in archival studies, he describes a "Research Agenda for Archival Education" (pp. 113-63) to develop a strong knowledge base, calls for more and better "Archival Research and Writing" (pp. 164-81), and stresses the importance of archival history.

The next section discusses how archivists and other professions could and should work together. Archivists and public historians are "the most closely related in nature [with] the greatest potential for cooperation" (p. 220). Archivists and librarians can cooperate on dealing with government documents and on developing ways to choose items with sufficient enduring value to preserve. He shows possibilities for cooperation between archivists and rare books librarians and ways archivists can use documentation strategies and new appraisal techniques to work with many professions or disciplines. Before calling for archivists to be more active advocates in shaping national information policy, Cox concedes that "it might seem presumptuous, even foolish...to suggest what the archival profession must do." But, as in the rest of the book, his sense of "urgency" (p. 324) compels him to do so, adding advocacy to his analysis.

Cox concludes with a bibliographical essay on archival issues of the 1980s. This chapter is especially valuable for its citation and discussion of differing views on each issue.

Non-archivists might prefer a more comprehensive, less repetitive and prescriptive study. Beginning archivists will find no help for their daily tasks. Practicing archivists, even if they agree (as does this reviewer) that the profession would be better off following Cox's recommendations, are probably already doing all they can. But for those who want to reform and strengthen archives and, especially, graduate students in archival masters programs—people full of idealism and ambition studying their chosen profession, one of its most influential leaders, and its literature—this book may be the basic (and, many will hope, most influential) textbook on professionalism.

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Libraries and Archives: Design and Renovation with a Preservation Perspective. By Susan Garretson Swartzburg and Holly Bussey with Frank Garretson. Metuchen, NJ, and London: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1991. 225 pp. Indexed. Bibliographies and appendixes. Hardcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, \$27.00 members/\$35.00 nonmembers.

During the past few years there has been a growing concern that the buildings housing library and archival collections have not been designed with preservation issues in mind. Concurrently, preservation administrators and conservators have begun to make their concerns known to their administrators and architects as new buildings have been designed and constructed, as well as renovations performed or additions built onto older structures. Unfortunately, such information, advice, and input is all too often ignored.

This volume has attempted to fill a void by presenting information on how various aspects of library and archival buildings and operations can impact preservation. The book began as the compilation of a selective bibliography on library buildings and preservation for a specific building project at Rutgers University. The bibliography has been accomplished admirably, with some interesting omissions. However, the text that is intended to complete this volume is sparse and disappointing. These people obviously have more to say but have chosen not to do so here. While the historical narrative in the beginning does an excellent job of putting the evolution of library and archival buildings—and the concerns of the librarians and designers for their collections—into perspective, the rest of the volume's text attempts to cover far too much in too little space. The result is that the reader is left with barely a glimpse of the complex preservation issues that need to be examined in the context of these specific building programs. In numerous instances the preservation issues are mentioned, but the text then moves on to something else. As they are presented here, a reader might well not consider them to be of much importance in the general scheme of things relating to library and archival buildings. The problem with this approach is that the reader could easily think that he or she has now acquired a decent knowledge of the field and not pursue the topic further by reading one or more of the many sources cited in this volume. It would have been better if the authors had more strongly emphasized that the text was really meant only as an introduction to the bibliographies it provides, so that this volume would then be considered and listed as a bibliography, a role it accomplishes admirably.

If this book is considered as a bibliography of preservation issues as they relate to library and archival buildings, then its importance increases significantly. The authors have brought together an impressive, though not exhaustive, compilation of sources in areas that most librarians and archivists tend to ignore when addressing their buildings. This is particularly true when one considers that many of the issues touched upon are not often treated in depth in any one volume.

Many libraries and archives are in need of replacement, renovation, or expansion either because of their construction date or because of the need to house expanding holdings. This volume can serve librarians and archivists well as an *initial point* in their search for information on building issues that relate to preservation. At the same time, it is crucial that they realize that this volume is

only the beginning of their search. In the long run, they will need to realize that the preservation of their collections will serve them well in the future and is worth further research. This, itself, may be a hard point to address as many librarians do not recognize the importance of preservation (collection maintenance) in providing service to their patrons, let alone how the building construction and layout can itself play an important preservation role.

Volumes such as this are important in expanding the knowledge base of librarians and archivists in the area of preservation, especially as it refers to the buildings in which we house our holdings. I only wish that there had been a greater effort either to make it clear that the text was essentially an introduction to the compiled bibliographies or to expand the text to address many of the issues in some depth. The bibliographies are excellent, but the authors' cursory treatment of many topics diminishes its overall value.

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Preservation Papers of the 1991 SAA Annual Conference. Compiled by Karen Garlick. Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1992. 155 pp. Illustrated. Softcover. Available from the Society of American Archivists, \$16.00 members/\$20.00 nonmembers.

As indicated in the introduction, these papers are the unjuried presentations related to preservation from the 1991 Society of American Archivists annual meeting in Philadelphia. Therefore, the reader should expect a variety of writing—from “overview” articles, with appropriate footnotes and bibliography, to the “how we did it good in our shop” type pieces. Of course, hearing the latter is one of the main reasons people attend professional conferences. Therefore, practical considerations of pursuing preservation activities are well covered in many of these papers and will be valuable to those facing related issues. Several papers address the pursuit, progress, and results of preservation grant projects, especially grants from the National Endowment for the Humanities, and will assist those contemplating grants themselves. The topics covered in these papers include appraisal, sound recordings, statewide preservation projects, grant case studies, mold prevention, paper permanence, detecting forged documents, archival buildings, educating users, preservation legislation, electronic records, and using new technology to preserve negatives and photographs. The introduction indicates that there are 31 papers, but at least four of these are the brief introductory remarks of session chairs or outlines submitted in place of formal papers by some participants. The majority are formal presentations, although some are fairly short in length, due likely to the SAA session format more than anything else. Some of the preservation presentations from the meeting were not included in this publication, but a full listing of all papers given at the meeting shows that approximately three-fourths are present.

The SAA Preservation Section had previously put together papers from the 1990 Seattle annual meeting, but these are now out of print. This is unfortunate since the same may be true of the 1991 volume before long, and there are many

articles that deserve wider distribution than in this form. While admittedly some of the information is less formal and there may be a time value on the practical advice available in the information presented, they are worth looking into for the average archival reader. Those who are expert in any given area will likely feel confirmed in their knowledge, but learn nothing new in the area of specific preservation techniques. The preservation experts would more likely benefit from the practical insights of what worked and what didn't which may, in turn, not be as useful to the non-experts or "generalists." People seeking workshop-type instructions on preservation techniques will find some in these papers, but will need to read much more in the preservation literature to augment their overall knowledge. In some cases, when new technology is discussed, all levels of preservationists may be hearing some new information. However, one would really need to attend SAA, MAC, or other professional meetings to be truly up-to-date on that type of information, since research and resulting improvements continue.

All in all, this publication is useful for those who wish to have yet another resource on recent developments in preservation, especially if they have an interest in hearing about a variety of topics from a variety of practitioners. While this type of publication may not be the most useful for all, it does provide an available resource within one year of the date of the presentations. This must have been the primary goal of the Preservation Section in preparing them for wider distribution, and they have achieved their goal. While the readings do not substitute entirely for having attended the sessions in Philadelphia—audience participation could not be included—they can be useful to both those who attended the meeting and those who did not if taken in the spirit that they were offered.

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