Reference, Access, and Outreach: An Evolved Landscape, 1936–2011

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A b s t r a c t

Reference, access, and outreach are conceptually and functionally tied together in ways that were largely unexamined and unarticulated in the mid-1930s. In the second decade of the twenty-first century, archivists see these entities not only from a custodial perspective, but also as central to both repository identity and how the broad spectrum of society understands and supports archival work. The evolution of each of these functions and the cumulative impact of their interaction is discussed.

I n t r o d u c t i o n

K a t h y M a r q u i s

In my years in the archival profession, I have seen our hot-button issues move from appraisal, to all things electronic, to processing priorities, and lately, to the potential use of social networks to promote archives. Of course, the central-ity of the researcher to the entire archival enterprise has always been asserted—even presumed. And yet, it has never sparked the sort of frenzy observable by counting the number of sessions at an annual meeting containing phrases like "electronic" or "MPLP," for example. We are indebted to our three speakers for

the effort they have put into delineating the history of these three primary functions of the archival enterprise.

In 1975, as an undergraduate, I came to work as a stacks page for Mary Jo Pugh, who was then the reference archivist at the University of Michigan's Bentley Historical Library. I had no idea that this position title was nearly unique in the archival profession at that time. There were reference librarians, of course, but what archives had the staff size, or the foresight, to create such a specialization? I just knew that I enjoyed our discussions about the collections and how they were being used. When Mary Jo said, "Kathy, reference is a service profession," I knew what she meant because I observed her every day as she educated, assisted, and served a reading room full of researchers.

At the time I worked for Mary Jo, a friend asked if I minded making a career of helping others find the sources they needed to write books and reap the glory. I realized that, in fact, I did not mind. Instead, I had come to appreciate all the work that went into making the research experience a rewarding one. I left that page position determined to become a reference archivist myself.

Mary Jo Pugh's paper, "Reference: Illusions of Omniscience Then and Now," is abstracted in large part from her field-defining manuals: 1992's *Providing Reference Services for Archives and Manuscripts*, and her 2005 updated edition.[1] I can recommend this abstraction to the non-specialist and specialist alike. She has distilled some of the most helpful analyses of what makes archival reference distinct from its cousin, library reference. In addition, she has given much thought to the evolution of its forms and structures. She has culled as well through the research on reference methodologies, user studies, and thought about how archival research is conducted. Who else will call our attention to the first known writing on archival reference, Margaret Cross Norton's piece in a 1939 issue of *Illinois Libraries*?[2]

Mary Jo considers the effect of recordkeeping technologies, descriptive tools, mediation, and delivery systems on the evolution of reference services. She questions the assumption that mediation, and specifically the added value of the reference archivist, is no longer necessary. In this paper, she has brought her ruminations on this core archival function up-to-date; reflecting on both the illusion of the reference archivist's omniscience and researchers' illusions that they can find all the documents they need from their laptops.

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[1] Mary Jo Pugh, *Providing Reference Services for Archives and Manuscripts* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1992 and 2005); the 1992 edition is available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl .handle.net/2027/mdp.39015024092804.

[2] Margaret Cross Norton, "Archives and Libraries: Reference Work," *Illinois Libraries* 21 (August 1939): 26–28, reprinted in *Norton on Archives: The Writings of Margaret Cross Norton on Archival and Records Management* (Carbondale, IL: Southern University Press, 1975): 101–105.

Access is a topic that is often "bundled" with reference and outreach. The SAA Reference, Access, and Outreach (RAO) Section[3] attempted to debate the logic of this combination recently, but the group was unable to come to a firm conclusion. RAO? Just R & O? We seem to be a happy *ménage à trois* for the time being. The reality of archival life is that public services staff members interpret and enforce whatever access conditions have come to us through donor or transfer terms. Access, of course, has a much broader meaning. How accessible is a reading room with tables that do not accommodate a wheel chair? How much more accessible are our materials now that they can be viewed 24/7 on the Internet?

As president of the Society of American Archivists in 1989–1990, John Fleckner's presidential address, "'Dear Mary Jane': Some Reflections on Being an Archivist,"[4] was a powerful evocation of what the profession means to those of us who profess it. This speech is still assigned in graduate archival classes today. John has spent a large part of his career, one way or another, ensuring that records are accessible. As he said in his presidential address, "The archival record assures our rights, as individuals and collectively, to our ownership of our history."[5]

Nearly two decades ago, I commented at a reference-related SAA session that the Society's workshop on archival reference was not being conducted because not enough archivists or their supervisors were willing to pay to learn about this topic. John approached me after the session and offered to sponsor the workshop at the National Museum of American History where he worked. Because of his commitment to reference education, the first SAA reference workshop was held at his shop later that year.

John's paper for this session, "Access Opportunities We Could Never Have Imagined, Issues That We Can Never Resolve," in his words "looks at how our evolving notions of access are deeply rooted in our history." He provides a survey of the trajectory of archival access over the past century. He considers the expansion of public records laws and the notion of equal access to archival documents along with the effect of social movements on the growth of interest in access to archives. He gives equal weight to these outside societal forces and the efforts by groups within SAA to affect the mission of the profession in the United States. He concludes with thoughts about the place of intellectual access in shaping how we inform our users what sources are available to them. He also discusses the role of "archival literacy" in how effectively researchers are able to use everything that we collect and make accessible.

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[3] http://www2.archivists.org/groups/reference-access-and-outreach-section.

[4] John A. Fleckner, "'Dear Mary Jane': Some Reflections on Being an Archivist," *American Archivist* 54 (Winter 1991): 8–13, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl.handle.net/2027 /mdp.39015072452835.

[5] Fleckner, "'Dear Mary Jane'": 12.

Until recently, outreach has been the poor stepchild of reference and access. When I first entered the profession, it was seen as a frill, or an add-on; something that was done only when the other or "real" work of acquiring and processing collections was under control. Archivists prepared exhibits, gave talks, and compiled printed guides to their collections, but marketing was considered crass and somehow mercenary. There was definitely an "if you build it, they will come" attitude toward developing an audience or selling the value of our services.

Over the years, attending SAA RAO section meetings and Midwest Archives Conference meetings, I came to know George Bain. He has been a tireless promoter of what was originally known as Archives Week, and now has expanded to Archives Month.[6] George knew that this was a great organizing construct for the many outreach efforts undertaken by archivists across the country.

George was the first archivist I knew who championed the archival outreach possibilities of National History Day.[7] He continues to be active in the ongoing task force of the RAO section that is coordinating efforts to encourage collaboration between educators and archivists involved in this competition. I know that George is thrilled, as are all of us, that the necessity to reach out to new audiences and advocate for the value of archives in society is now taken for granted by most archivists.

George's paper, "Outreach: An Administrative Function Now Getting Traction," traces the growth of the belief that outreach is a core archival concept, from our early days of looking inward to current national promotional efforts such as American Archives Month and *I Found It In The Archives.*[8] He also notes the impact of SAA's growth, with indicators such as the hiring of the organization's first paid executive director and its efforts to advocate for the profession as a whole. From the Archives and Society Task Force of the 1980s, to the Levy report, to Elsie Freeman Finch's exhortations to consider outreach an administrative function, it seems there has been a clear progression in archivists' awareness of the need to promote the value of our collections and our work to society at large.[9]

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[6] http://www2.archivists.org/initiatives/american-archives-month.

[7] http://www.nhd.org/.

[8] http://www2.archivists.org/initiatives/i-found-it-in-the-archives.

[9] Elsie T. Freeman, "In the Eye of the Beholder: Archives Administration from the User's Point of View," *American Archivist* 47 (Spring 1984): 111–123, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl .handle.net/2027/mdp.39015072452827; Elsie Freeman Finch, ed. *Advocating Archives: An Introduction to Public Relations for Archivists*, (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1994), available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015032210059; and Sidney J. Levy and Albert G. Robles (Social Research, Inc.) *The Image of Archivists: Resource Allocators' Perceptions*, prepared for the Society of American Archivists Task Force on Archives and Society (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1984), available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl.handle.net/2027 /mdp.39015053099076.

Reference: Illusion of Omniscience Then and Now

Mary Jo Pugh

Archives are tools, and like all tools, they are kept to be used. Reference services are the activities by which archivists bring users and records together to meet user needs. These services encompass a wide variety of activities and call upon intellectual, administrative, and interpersonal skills.[10] Bruce Dearstyne argues that the term "reference services" is "too narrow and too reactive."[11] He believes that the term suggests that services begin only when a user approaches the repository. He argues that archivists should focus on *researcher services,* a more active function, in which staff members encourage research use, actively assist users, and evaluate use to improve it. I will be using the term "reference services" in this broader sense.

Literature

Discourse on reference is now explicit, whereas it seems to have been largely implicit seventy-five years ago. We do not have a good baseline of what archivists and manuscript curators thought about what we call reference services; or at least documentation about what they thought of these services is not readily available. They may have been writing in regional, library, or historical journals before the advent of the *American Archivist.* It is too easy to assume that if they were not writing about it they did not care about it.

It is common to say that the literature is thin on reference.[12] The use of archives is often seen as a linear model at end of other functions similar to a caboose at the end of a train. Most archivists were historians originally and did not think of reference in the same way as librarians. Reference encounters in libraries are usually short and voluntary, each devoted to a single question. In contrast, reference transactions in archives are more likely to be substantive, obligatory, and continuing. Like Dearstyne, archivists in the founding generation thought in terms of research, use, and service rather than reference.

In 1939, the ever-prescient Margaret Cross Norton wrote "Archives and Libraries: Reference Work," one of the earliest and best discussions of reference service in archives.[13] The first American manual on archival administration,

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[10] Much of this paper is abstracted from my book, Pugh, *Providing Reference Services* (2005).

[11] Bruce W. Dearstyne, *Managing Historical Records Programs: A Guide for Historical Agencies* (Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press, 2000): 102–121.

[12] See for example, Wendy Duff, "Archival Mediation," in *Currents of Archival Thinking*, eds. Terry Eastwood and Heather MacNeil (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-Clio, 2010): 115.

[13] Margaret Cross Norton, "Archives and Libraries: Reference Work," *Illinois Libraries* 21 (August 1939): 26–28, reprinted in *Norton on Archives: The Writings of Margaret Cross Norton on Archival and Records Management* (Carbondale, IL: Southern University Press, 1975): 101–105.

Modern Archives: Principles and Techniques, published in 1956 by T. R. Schellenberg, lists reference services as one of the four primary functions of the National Archives.[14] But he places Chapter 17 "Reference Service" as the last chapter in the book, preceded even by "Publication Programs." This chapter on reference is divided into two sections. The first section includes six pages on "Policies Governing Access" and the second section consists of six pages on "Policies Governing Use," in a book of some 250 pages. While his advice is succinct, it is also sound. Most other early writings about reference services in archives focused on the externalities of the relationship between user and repository, such as administration, registration, security, paging, storage, retrieval, and copying. Most of these topics appeared as chapters in more general works on archives and manuscripts.

The first manual on reference was published in 1977, titled *Archives and Manuscripts: Reference and Access* by Sue E. Holbert.[15] Like other manuals in SAA's Basic Manual Series, this volume was short, roughly thirty pages long. This manual focused primarily on policies and little on the actual provision of reference services. It was not much longer than the chapters or essays appearing elsewhere. In 1992, SAA published the first edition of my book on reference, *Providing Reference Services for Archives and Manuscripts*,[16] as part of the original Archival Fundamentals Series. It was the first book to examine in detail the process of providing reference services, including the reference interaction, comprised of the initial interview, measurement, and evaluation.

In 1993, the year after publication of the book, the World Wide Web was introduced and began immediately to change reference services. In 2005 SAA published the second edition of my book in the Archival Fundamentals Series II, which tried to come to grips with the revolution that had happened. In that edition, I argue that "archives at the millennium face a paradigm shift comparable to the invention of the printing press five centuries ago, perhaps even comparable to the invention of writing itself five millennia ago. To update this manual in 2004 is to reflect on a decade of transformations, resulting from revolutionary changes in tools for creating and managing records."[17]

At least one dissertation has focused on reference services and I hope we will see articles and perhaps a book from it.[18]

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[14] Midway Reprint (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975): 53.

[15] (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1977), available in the HathiTrust Digital Library, http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015007212262.

[16] Pugh, *Providing Reference Services* (1992).

[17] Pugh, *Providing Reference Services* (2005): 1.

[18] See for example, Denise Anthony, *Beyond Description: An Exploration of Experienced Archivists' Knowledge and Searching Skills*, PhD dissertation, University of Michigan, 2006.

Evolution

Evolution is adaptation to environment. The reference function has adapted to a number of changes in its environment in the last seventy-five years. I will identify some environmental influences including:

- the mission of its repository;
- the organization of the reference function within its repository;
- changes in recordkeeping technologies;
- standardization of descriptive practice and tools;
- mediation made explicit;
- changes in input and delivery systems;
- user-centered archival administration;
- user studies;
- identifying core knowledge, skills, and abilities of reference archivists; and
- information-seeking processes.

Repository Mission

The evolution of reference services depends in part on the repository's mission. The three most common rationales for maintaining archives are administrative use, public accountability, and research. Donald McCoy stated that the new National Archives staff was surprised by the amount of administrative use. For example in 1941, 47 percent of inquires came from creating government agencies and 13 percent from other government agencies.[19] By the time of the reorganization of the National Archives in 1949, reference service commanded about half the time of National Archives staff. [20]

McCoy also notes that the first national archivist, R. D. W. Conner, gave priority to the creating agencies in the use of their records in large measure to instill confidence and to convince agencies to transfer records to the archives. Conner "made it clear that originating agencies had the first priority on the use of their transferred records and that the National Archives would offer expert reference service." Conner also "issued regulations in January 1937 that provided for any federal agency . . . to withdraw material temporarily."[21]

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[19] Donald R. McCoy, *The National Archives: America's Ministry of Documents, 1934–1968* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1978): 89.

[20] McCoy, *National Archives,* 253.

[21] McCoy, *National Archives,* 71.

Organization of the Reference Function

Reference also evolves depending on the organization within a repository. Repositories typically organize reference services in one of three patterns: curatorial organization, functional organization, or reference services rotating among all staff.

The National Archives defaulted to a curatorial organization after experimenting with a functional organization in which reference was handled by a reference division headed by an academic historian to serve as an intermediary between records and users. It became apparent that that the reference staff did not know the records held by the archives divisions. "The eventual solution was to allow the 'stack rats' (as the staff who actually appraised and described records in the custodial archives divisions called themselves in distinction to higher administrators[22]) to serve researchers directly, which would bring researchers in touch with those who could most expertly provide them with what they wanted as well as eliminate the extra time required to gain information through an intermediary. The first step in this direction came in June 1938 with the archivist's authorization of the archives divisions to take reference calls from the agencies whose records they had custody." The archival reference division and the more traditional library divisions merged and served as initial screening of researchers.[23]

Schellenberg in *Modern Archives* argues that the functional organization found in libraries, whereby reference is a separate function, does not work in archives, which should be organized on the basis of the subject matter or function of the records.[24] He argues that every effort should to be made to increase the knowledge of the staff about the records that they are responsible for. He also quotes Philip Brooks, who noted that archivists, who were for the most part trained historians, appraised the records for which they provide reference services.[25] They appraise, arrange and describe, and they provide reference service, learning both about the creation of the records and how they have been used.

A curatorial organization recognizes that in provenance-based systems, specialists who arrange and describe records can provide specialized and informed reference services for the records since they know how and why the records were created and organized. In a small repository, where one archivist provides all archival services, this ideal may be met. In larger repositories, it is impossible for any one person to be familiar with all holdings, so staff members are assigned responsibility for groups of records. Often they are organized on the basis of

[22] McCoy, *National Archives,* 81.

[23] McCoy, *National Archives*, 82.

[24] Schellenberg, *Modern Archives*, 127.

[25] Schellenberg, *Modern Archives*, 32.

form, such as audiovisual records, or according to the source of records, such as legislative records.

From the user's point of view, reference services in the curatorial model are dispersed among divisions. Users depend on referrals to appropriate curatorial divisions, and their needs may be fragmented among them. If the subject specialist is absent, reference services may be unavailable. This dispersal and fragmentation may result in user needs not being identified or considered in overall repository planning.

The functional pattern distinguishes reference and public service functions from other archival functions. Reference specialists offer continuity for users from initial interview to follow-up activities. This approach gives reference services an identity and makes reference staff members accountable for meeting user needs. Reference specialists can identify the research needs of major user constituencies, such as staff of the parent institution, genealogists, scholars, students, or press, and develop strategies to meet them. Reference staff can advocate user needs in institutional planning and relay information about user needs to repository staff responsible for acquisitions, processing, or public programs.

One advantage of the functional model is that it can be more explicit about the educational role of the reference archivist. This may include teaching users about the varieties of records, the range of information in records, the variety of finding aids available, and the development of a search strategy for exploiting them. By explaining their reasoning to users, archivists can help researchers build their own research skills. It is important to help users understand record creation, finding aids, and the process leading to a particular search strategy. Archivists strive to make users as independent as possible by helping them to think *archivally*, that is, functionally and hierarchically. As teachers, archivists help users to think: "Who would have been likely to record the information I am seeking, how would it have been recorded and filed, and where are the records now?" Reference archivists teach one-on-one in the reading room and teach groups through public programs, tutorials, and FAQs on the web.

We may imagine that the educational role of archivists has only recently been acknowledged but in 1939, Robert C. Binkley wrote:

> The libraries could count on the public school system to provide a literate population which could take advantage of their resources; in the development of the use of our public archives, we will find that people will not only need to have the materials preserved and organized for them, but must also be taught to use them. . . . a fully developed archives may have to go much further than the library in teaching people to use it. The public should learn to expect in the archives of its own community the same kind of reference service that its public library gives. The public

archives of a community can become a kind of local encyclopaedia, and the public can be taught to use it.[26]

Reference services evolve as the nature of records and recordkeeping technologies evolve. Textual records are still the prototype for most discussion about and practice of reference services, but other formats are increasingly important and demand specialized attention, including photographs, maps, audio files, and motion pictures. We can see the insatiable demand for images for media productions and television. Seventy-five years ago, records were created by pen and pencil, typewriter, camera, near print devices like the mimeograph machine and the printing press. Archivists used these same tools to create finding aids.

In the 1960s Xerox machines[27] made possible the unintended copy. Initially, Xerox leased its copiers because nobody would buy them. People could not imagine the uses of copies after the creation of the document. A very good typist could make up to five copies at one time. One copy was retained as a record of the outgoing message and the others were used to create "reading files" or were shared with interested departments. The photocopier meant that anyone could create unlimited copies at any time, and they did. Photocopies contributed to the explosion of twentieth-century records and changed use of records as well. Although microforms and Photostats had been used since the 1930s, the advent of photocopiers allowed users to expect to take facsimiles of records to study at their leisure.

Most on our minds these days are records in digital form, which can be can be digitized copies of analog records mounted on the repository website or contributed to consortia, such as the Online Archives of California[28].

Records are also increasingly created digitally, and reference services for these types of records have changed over time. Digital records have been around for roughly thirty years, and can include the byproduct of data processing or results of survey research. Repositories such as the U.S. National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)[29] and the Interuniversity Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR)[30] in Ann Arbor, Michigan, collect such records. Reference services for flat files with structured data sets involved offering information about and from the records, and for a cost-recovery fee,

[26] Robert C. Binkley, "Strategic Objectives in Archival Policy," *American Archivist* 2 (July 1939): 162–168.

[27] For additional background on the development of photocopiers, see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Photocopier.

[28] http://www.oac.cdlib.org.

[29] http://www.archives.gov/index.html.

[30] http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/ICPSR/.

providing copies of digital data files and their related technical information, which is often analog and on paper. Users analyzed the records on their own terms and with whatever computing hardware and software they had or had access to, retaining copies of the records indefinitely.

But as repositories began to accession databases, users wanted information from them. Margaret Adams, writing in the context of NARA, notes:

> Meeting rising access expectations clearly required developing an automated generic access tool for fielded data. . . . that tool is the Access to Archival Databases (AAD) tool in February 2003, an interactive database, which began with a selection of 32 series of born-digital fielded data from accessioned electronic records. The series in the initial rollout contained approximately 50 million records, selected because records in their files identify specific persons, geographic areas, events, transactions, organizations, or index records in NARA's analog holdings.

> The number of users who now independently search for, retrieve, print, or download records online is significantly larger than the number who previously requested information about or from NARA's accessioned electronic records. In September 2005, AAD introduced a new capability and for the first time provided direct access to individual digital photographs of disasters from the Federal Emergency Management Administration (FEMA), as well as to the index records that identify them.[31]

Standardization of Descriptive Tools

Reference services evolve as descriptive tools evolve. Standardization of descriptive tools over the past decades is perhaps one of the most notable events in the provision of reference services. Two traditions developed different tools for describing records. Historical manuscript libraries were closer to libraries and often used card catalogs to describe at the collection level, and often at the item level, by adapting rules from AACR2[32] and using subject terms from LC subject terms.[33] The *National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections*, affectionately known as NUCMC,[34] began in 1959 to aggregate collection-level descriptions across repositories and to index them to provide name and subject access.

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[31] Margaret O'Neill Adams, "Analyzing Archives and Finding Facts: Use and Users of Digital Data Records," *Archival Science* 7 (2007): 21–36. I learned of this source through the footnotes of another paper, just as our researchers use footnotes to find archives.

[32] *Anglo-American Cataloging Rules*, see http://www.aacr2.org/.

[33] *Library of Congress Subject Headings*, see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Library_of_Congress_Subject _Headings.

[34] http://www.loc.gov/coll/nucmc/.

It explicitly excluded archives because it believed that people would look for organizational archives within the parent institution.

Archives, as the records of their parent organizations, like NARA, described record groups and series in inventories. A published guide was the only means of providing subject access. The National Historical Publications and Records Commission (NHPRC)[35] published a guide to archival repositories in the United States and wanted to link inventories of record groups and series descriptions to them.

SAA appointed the National Information Systems Task Force (NISTF) to choose between these two approaches. As David Bearman once told me, SAA was seeking a technical solution to a political problem. The upshot was that NISTF first identified the data elements needed to describe both archives and manuscripts and then sought a data structure for the data elements.[36] NISTF's work resulted, in the early 1980s, in the adoption of MARC-AMC (MAchine-Readable Cataloging-Archives Manuscript Control), a data structure envisioned as both an administrative and descriptive tool for use in describing archival collections in the framework of bibliographic utilities and software. In recent years, the profession has standardized other data structures, such as Encoded Archival Description (EAD), and data content, such as *Archives Personal Papers and Manuscripts* (APPM) and its successor *Describing Archives: A Content Standard* (DACS). Such standardization makes archival description comparable across institutions, but may not be any clearer to researchers.[37]

Mediation Made Explicit

Mediation was also made explicit after a generation of being implicit. Frank Burke succinctly described the indispensable role of the archivist in providing subject access in his deceptively titled, "The Impact of the Specialist on

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[35] http://www.archives.gov/nhprc/.

[36] David Bearman, *Towards National Information Systems for Archives and Manuscript Repositories: The National Information Systems Task Force (NISTF) Papers, 1981–1984* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1987). Available online via the HathiTrust Digital Library at http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp .39015032829502.

[37] For a more detailed survey of the development of descriptive standards in the United States see Steven L. Hensen, William E. Landis, Kathleen Roe, Michael Rush, William Stockting, and Victoria Irons Walch, "Thirty Years On: SAA and Descriptive Standards" (Session 706), elsewhere in this *American Archivist Online Supplement* issue. On the point of the meaningfulness to researchers, see Robert P. Spindler and Richard Pearce-Moses, "Does AMC Mean 'Archives Made Confusing'?: Patron Understanding of USMARC AMC Catalog Records," *American Archivist* 56 (Spring 1993): 330–341, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library at http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015071393857; and Wendy M. Duff and Penka Stoyanova, "Transforming the Crazy Quilt: Archival Displays from a User's Point of View," *Archivaria* 45 (Spring 1998): 44–79.

Archives."[38] Perhaps most important was the work of Richard Lytle who differentiated and studied the two means of providing intellectual access to archives and manuscripts: content indexing, as in the Historical Manuscripts tradition, and provenance information, as in the archival tradition.[39] I elaborated on these insights and gave my article a memorable title in "The Illusion of Omniscience: Subject Access and the Reference Archivist." [40] There and later in my book I noted that:

> In most archival repositories the reference archivist was, and still is, critical to making provenance-based systems work. The archivist links subject requests with archival materials. The reference archivist draws on knowledge of records and of the functional and administrative structure of the agencies that produced them to develop a search strategy. The reference archivist helps a user link a topic with relevant sources by identifying the functions of records creators, locates the relevant finding aids, and identifies series likely to contain needed information. That is, together, the archivist and the user answer a series of questions, "What information or evidence is needed?" "Who would have needed the information initially?" "How would they have recorded it?" "Where are the files now?" "How is the information filed?"

David Bearman and Richard H. Lytle recognized the power of provenance in 1985.[41] Not only does the chain of continuous custody ensure the authenticity of evidence in the records, but it also allows information seekers to evaluate information on the basis of where it is found. Provenance is also a powerful predictor of content and locator of evidence. Unlike arrangements imposed after the creation of the records, the relationship between activities and records remains constant and timeless.
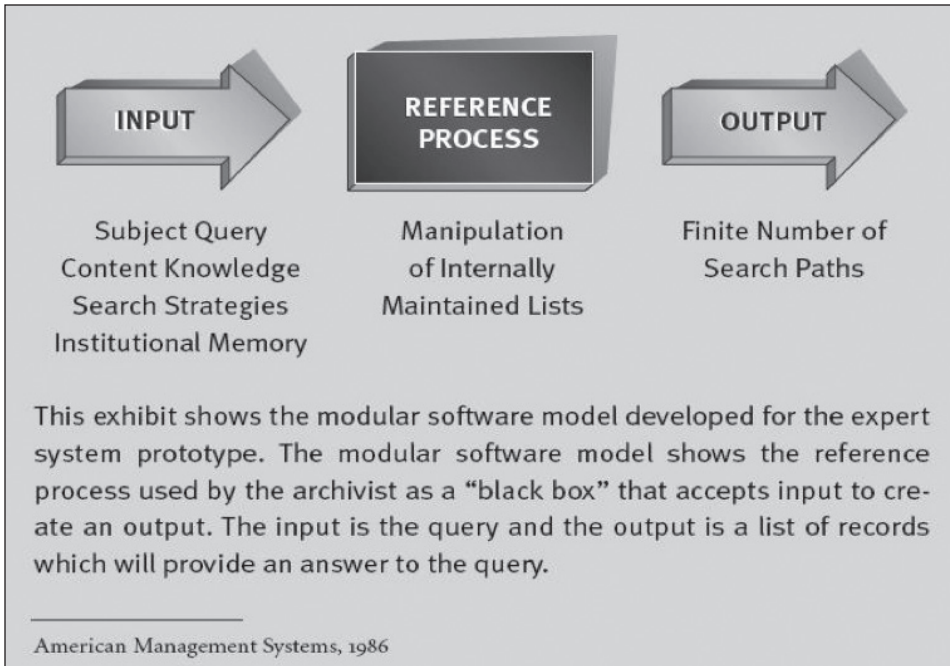
American Management Systems studied reference services at the National Archives in 1986 to test whether an expert system could provide subject access as reference archivists did. AMS was the first to study what goes on inside the reference archivist's head. They examined the black box of reference mediation and indicated some of the elements at work (see Figures 1 and 2).

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[38] Frank G. Burke, "The Impact of the Specialist on Archives," *College and Research Libraries* 33 (1972): 312–317.

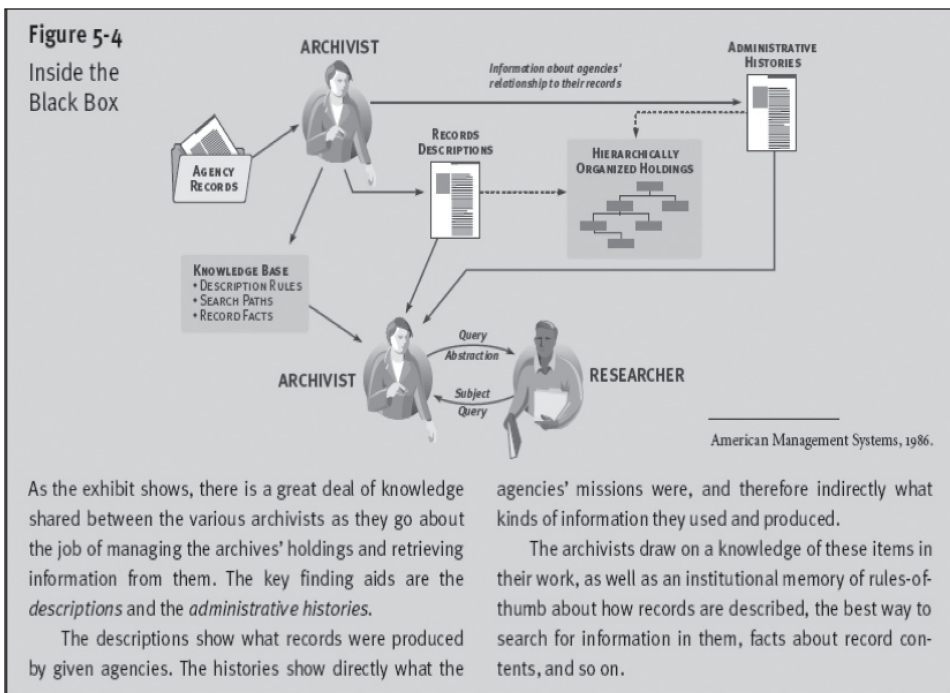[39] Richard Lytle "Intellectual Access to Archives: Provenance and Content Indexing Methods of Subject Retrieval," *American Archivist* 43 (Winter 1980): 64–75.

[40] Mary Jo Pugh, "The Illusion of Omniscience: Subject Access and the Reference Archivist," *American Archivist* 45 (Winter 1982).

[41] David Bearman and Richard H. Lytle, "The Power of the Principle of Provenance," *Archivaria* 21 (1985): 14–27.

INPUT

Subject Query
Content Knowledge
Search Strategies
Institutional Memory

REFERENCE PROCESS

Manipulation
of Internally
Maintained Lists

OUTPUT

Finite Number of
Search Paths

This exhibit shows the modular software model developed for the expert system prototype. The modular software model shows the reference process used by the archivist as a "black box" that accepts input to create an output. The input is the query and the output is a list of records which will provide an answer to the query.

American Management Systems, 1986

FIGURE 1. Reference Process: Black Box

Figure 5-4

Inside the Black Box

ARCHIVIST

Information about agencies' relationship to their records

ADMINISTRATIVE HISTORIES

AGENCY RECORDS

RECORDS DESCRIPTIONS

HIERARCHICALLY ORGANIZED HOLDINGS

KNOWLEDGE BASE
• DESCRIPTION RULES
• SEARCH PATHS
• RECORD FACTS

ARCHIVIST

Query Abstraction

Subject Query

RESEARCHER

American Management Systems, 1986.

As the exhibit shows, there is a great deal of knowledge shared between the various archivists as they go about the job of managing the archives' holdings and retrieving information from them. The key finding aids are the *descriptions* and the *administrative histories*.

The descriptions show what records were produced by given agencies. The histories show directly what the agencies' missions were, and therefore indirectly what kinds of information they used and produced.

The archivists draw on a knowledge of these items in their work, as well as an institutional memory of rules-of-thumb about how records are described, the best way to search for information in them, facts about record contents, and so on.

FIGURE 2. Inside the Black Box

This study also recognized the functional nature of archival research. A subject query gets turned into a functional analysis of agency histories and analysis of forms in descriptions of records. It is a study of a traditional public archives model with little content indexing. The head of processing at the Bentley Historical Library once said to me that, as reference archivist, he indexed those subjects he thought I would not get to by using provenance.

The best, and to my knowledge one of the few recent papers, to explore the nature of the reference process and the actual business of doing reference is Elizabeth Yakel's, "Managing Expectations, Expertise, and Effort While Extending Services to Researchers in Academic Archives."[42] In this article, she examines the expectations, expertise, and effort from the point of view of four archival researchers: an undergraduate history major, a full professor researching the history of higher education, an administrative assistant to a university president, and a local businessman. She concludes that "archivists must simultaneously analyze and understand their collections as well as the researchers who use them."[43]

Changes in Input and Delivery Systems

Reference services change as input and delivery systems change.[44] In recent years we have seen that electronic mail, virtual reference, instant messaging, and chat have added to or replaced the telephone and the postal system as sources for reference interactions. McCoy reports that reference staff at the National Archives in its early years was surprised at the volume of telephone and postal inquiries.[45] Reference services are increasingly moving to the web and digital cameras are used to copy documents in the reading room. The next generation of finding aids will likely allow users to edit them, to interact with other users and the archivist, and to bookmark and copy documents.[46] Adaptive technologies may make it possible for archivists to reach people who have not been able to use archives before.

[42] Elizabeth Yakel, "Managing Expectations, Expertise, and Effort While Extending Services to Researchers in Academic Archives," in *College and University Archives,* ed. Christopher J. Prom and Ellen Swain (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 2008).

[43] Yakel, "Managing Expectations, Expertise, and Effort," 280.

[44] Richard J. Cox and the University of Pittsburgh Archives Students, "Machines in the Archives: Technology and the Coming Transformation of Archival Reference," *First Monday,* 12, no. 11 (5 November 2007) at http://firstmonday.org/htbin/cgiwrap/bin/ojs/index.php/fm/article /viewArticle/2029/1894.

[45] McCoy, *National Archives,* 89.

[46] Magia Ghetu Krause and Elizabeth Yakel, "Interaction in Virtual Archives: The Polar Bear Expedition Digital Collections Next Generation Finding Aid," *American Archivist* 70 (Fall/Winter 2007): 282–314.

As reference services move to the web, and as more finding aids and records become available online, it may seem that there will be less need for reference services. There may well be less interpersonal mediation occurring in the reading room, but on the web, tools such as tutorials and frequently asked questions (FAQs) will become more important. As more people gain access to online information services, even more guides will be needed to help users properly locate the information they seek. As information resources proliferate, people need assistance to locate and evaluate information sources. A reference archivist will serve as a guide not only to finding aids and records, but also to the structures and forms of the information landscape of their repositories and beyond. Providing reference services is a value-added process. To paraphrase Bonnie A. Nardi and Vicki L. O'Day, the reference archivist is a keystone species in the information ecology of organizational archives, and is considered the key to making the system work. Archival reference services provide the "oil" to keep organizational information systems running well.[47] Ideally, the reference archivist is not a barrier, nor a gatekeeper, but rather a partner, a facilitator, and a guide.

User-centered Archival Administration

Reference also reflects repository priorities. In the mid-1980s, some archivists urged the profession to be driven by the needs of users. Elsie Freeman Finch led this discussion and urged archivists to "begin to think of archives administration as client-centered, not materials-centered."[48] Others urging this perspective included Bruce Dearstyne;[49] the Planning Group on the Educational Potential of Archives of the Committee on Goals and Priorities;[50] Lawrence Dowler;[51] and Randall C. Jimerson.[52]

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[47] Bonnie A Nardi and Vicki L. O'Day, *Information Ecologies: Using Technology with Heart* (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1999): 104.

[48] Freeman, "In the Eye of the Beholder," and Elsie T. Freeman "Buying Quarter Inch Holes: Public Support through Results," *Midwestern Archivist* 10 (1985): 89–97, available at http://digital.library.wisc.edu/1793/45446.
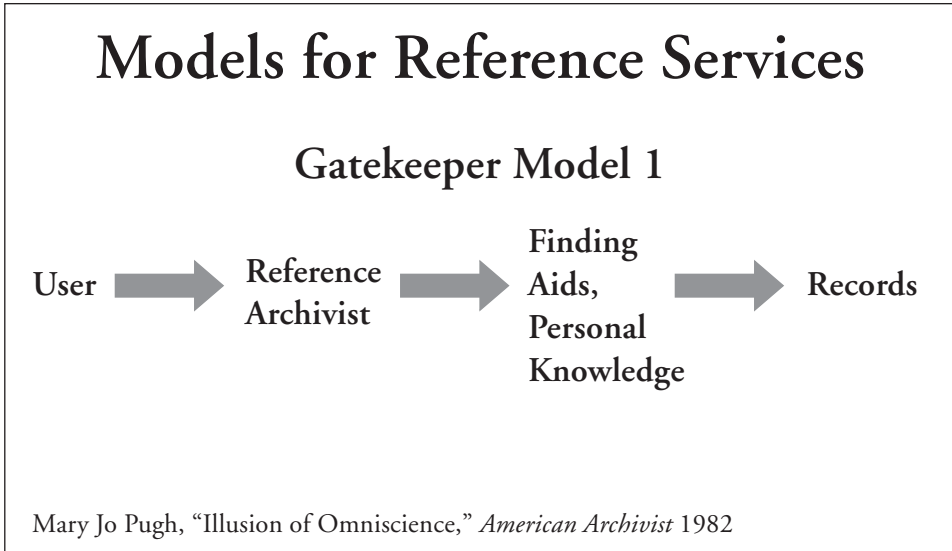
[49] Bruce Dearstyne, "What Is the Use of Archives? A Challenge for the Profession," *American Archivist* 50 (Winter 1987): 76–87, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library at http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015061527555.

[50] *An Action Agenda for the Archival Profession: Institutionalizing the Planning Process* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1988).

[51] Lawrence Dowler, "The Role of Use in Defining Archival Practice and Principle: A Research Agenda for the Availability and Use of Records," *American Archivist* 51 (Winter and Spring 1988): 74–86, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library at http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015072452983.

[52] Randall C. Jimerson, "Redefining Archival Identity: Meeting User Needs in the Information Society," *American Archivist* 52 (Summer 1989): 332–40, available in the HathiTrust Digital Library at http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015071393824.

Models for Reference Services

Gatekeeper Model 1

User → Reference Archivist → Finding Aids, Personal Knowledge → Records

Mary Jo Pugh, "Illusion of Omniscience," *American Archivist* 1982

FIGURE 3. Models for Reference Services

Most repositories explicitly acknowledge user-centered mission statements, whether or not they put them into practice. Becoming truly user centered requires understanding the mental models underlying reference services in archives. As a practicing reference archivist at the Michigan Historical Collections, Bentley Historical Library, I developed a mental model of information seeking in archives. This model informed my article, "The Illusion of Omniscience," in 1982 (see Figure 3).

Looking back, I see that it was centered in the reading room, assumed one omniscient reference archivist, and was a linear model. This model seemed appropriate because most users were not familiar with archival records or archival research. It also seemed appropriate because our finding aids were idiosyncratic and were not consistent, either internally or with other repositories. We inherited a wide range of finding aids from earlier eras in repository history, including handwritten cards and lists, typed cards and lists, and published guides.

It finally occurred to me after some time on the job, that what I was really doing was asking myself, "Who would have needed to know that information and how would they have recorded it?" The more I knew about the university and the state of Michigan, the better I could answer that question and the more "omniscient" I would appear to the naïve user. I came to understand from Frank Burke that I had to position myself between the users and the finding aids.[53] Providing reference services for archives was predicated on this kind of

[53] Frank Burke, "The Impact of the Specialist on Archives," *College and Research Libraries* 33 (1972): 321–17.
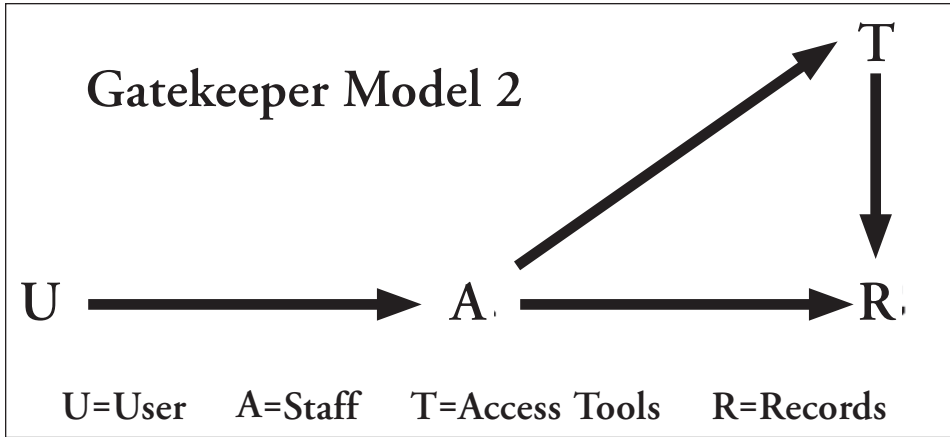
F I G U R E 4 . Paul Conway, *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archive*, 1994.

mediation because subject requests had to be linked to organizational functions and forms of records. In 1982, I argued that we needed better finding aids and master indexes, later called "bridging tools" by our Australian colleagues. We needed to capture the information in the archivist's head.

In 1994, Paul Conway published *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archive: User Studies at the National Archives and Records Administration.* He sums up "Gatekeeper Models" (see Figure 4), saying "The gatekeeper serves as ultimate finding aid under the assumption that most finding aids are inadequate without interpretation. Indeed it may not be feasible to assemble reference tools that patrons can use totally by themselves."[54]

In place of the gatekeeper model, Conway proposes a user-centered model called the "partnership model" (see Figure 5). He encourages the self-sufficient use of the holdings while preserving the quality of professional support. In partnership with patrons, archivists are but one component of an integrated system of facilities, staff, and computer-supported access tools that guarantees equal access and is capable of delivering a variety of services at a level commensurate with stated needs.

The first basic component of his model is users. At the center, users are free to move as their needs dictate among the other components of the system. The second component, staff, includes archivists with various specialties, archives technicians, and other personnel. The third component is access tools which consist of both traditional and computer-based finding aids and additional reference materials in a flexible mix. The fourth component is the records themselves.

[54] Paul Conway, *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archive* (Pittsburgh: Archives and Museum Informatics, 1994), available at http://www.archimuse.com/publishing/partners.html.
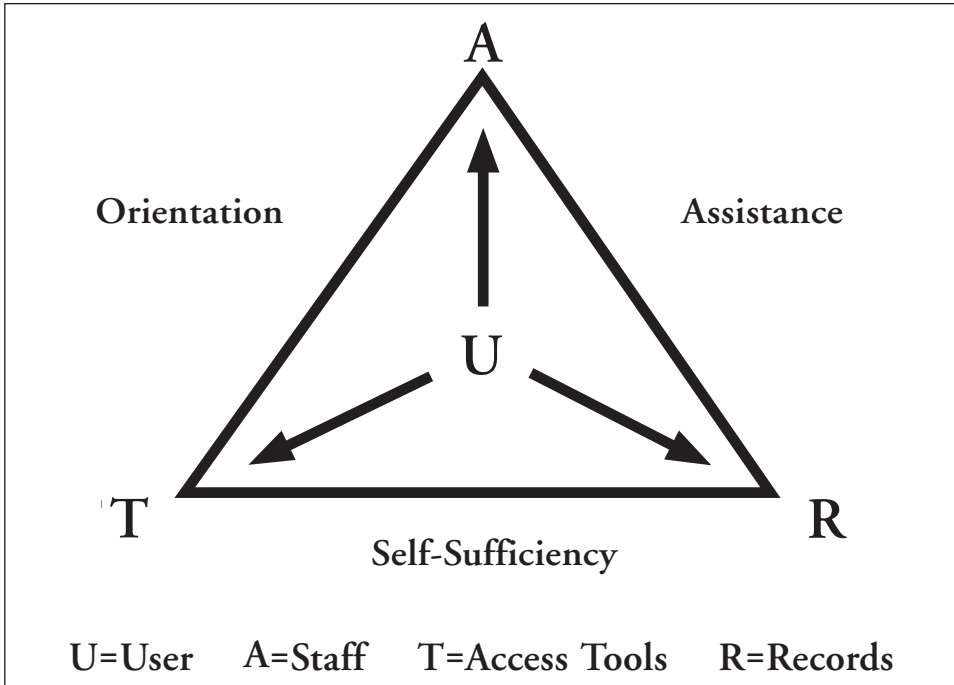
FIGURE 5. Paul Conway, *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archive*, 1994.

The model has three subsystems reflecting the three primary functions of reference services:

1. Orientation: users familiarize themselves with full range of access tools and staff resources that can assist them in satisfying their search and retrieval needs.

2. Assistance: users move fluidly among records experts and technical support staff and the historical records, depending more upon archivists than finding aids.

3. Self-sufficiency: users function independently as researchers, making full use of access tools and the structure and content of historical records to solve historical problems.

User Studies

Archivists have called for user studies for several decades and frequently blame each other for not having done them, particularly in comparison with librarians, who have done thousands of them. Contrary to this belief however, archivists have done a fair number of studies. The problem is not actually

performing the studies; the problem for both professions is using them to make changes. I cannot see that the studies of library users have done much to change the catalogs, indexes, and other tools used by librarians. The Library of Congress Subject Headings remain opaque to all.

Paul Conway has been instrumental in showing archivists the value and practice of studying users of repositories. In 1985, he found that most archives did not collect even the most rudimentary information about use.[55] His article "Research in Presidential Libraries: A User Study" is a practical study.[56] Also useful is a 1987 paper, "User Models: Past, Present, Future: Enhancing Evaluation in the Automated Reference Environment." Another article, "Facts and Frameworks: An Approach to Studying the Users of Archives,"[57] sets forth an intellectual framework that he tested and refined in his seminal research work, *Partners in Research: Improving Access to the Nation's Archive: User Studies at the National Archives and Records Administration.*[58]

We now have better research skills to study users. Most archivists were previously trained as historians and brought domain knowledge. Now, many younger archivists are trained in archival studies programs in information schools and they bring more of a consciousness of studying users along with a better sense of the reference function. Standardized user metrics and tools are institutionalized in the Archival Metrics Projects. Ready for use now are the tools measuring use for university and college archives and special collections.[59] Tools for measuring use of government archives will appear soon.

Kathy Marquis recommended that I look at Jennifer Schaffner's paper, "The Metadata is the Interface: Better Description for Better Discovery of Archives and Special Collections, Synthesized from User Studies."[60] Kathy said that it is "a great overview of the state of use and user studies, which is what *is* being written about when basic reference is not." This example also shows the power of personal recommendations, especially for what used to be called gray literature that is now found in reports on the web. To find such studies, users must know what they are looking for. Schaffner summarizes user studies and finds that users work increasingly on their own; they search by subject terms and

[55] "Perspectives on Archival Resources: The 1985 Census of Archival Institutions," *American Archivist* 50 (Spring 1987): 186–90.

[56] *Midwestern Archivist* 11 (1986): 35–56.

[57] *American Archivist* 49 (Fall 1986): 393–407.

[58] Pittsburgh: Archives and Museum Informatics, 1994.

[59] http://www.archivalmetrics.org/.

[60] Report produced by OCLC Research, http://oclc.org/content/dam/research/publications/library /2009/2009-06.pdf. For practical advice see Rosalie Lack, "The Importance of User-Centered Design: Exploring Findings and Methods," *Journal of Archival Organization* 4 (2007): 69–86; and Merrilee Proffitt, "How and Why of User Studies: RLG's RedLightGreen as a Case Study," *Journal of Archival Organization* 4 (2007): 87–110.

keywords; they expect results ranked by relevance; and they know how to scan and scroll. What they lack is the awareness of archival descriptive tools.

As Conway noted in 1994, the user studies that Schaffner consulted confirm that "Users work increasingly on their own, while librarians and archivists have expected to mediate research. . . . Perhaps ironically, goals to disclose descriptions online and to digitize primary resources have made special collections more visible and roles of archivists and librarians less visible." Schaffner also notes, "Archivists and librarians have created catalogs and portals, but many users don't use them or don't know they exist. It would be heartbreaking if special collections and archives remained invisible because they might not have the kinds of metadata that can easily be discovered by users on the open web."[61]

Identifying Core Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities for Reference Archivists

In recent years we have made progress identifying the core knowledge, skills, and abilities for reference archivists. The Academy of Certified Archivists outlines the knowledge of the reference domain.[62] In the 2005 edition of *Providing Reference Services*, I developed "Standards for Reference Archivists—Behaviors Associated with Good Reference Service" in Appendix 5 and "Standards for Reference Archivists—Knowledge Associated with Good Reference Service" in Appendix 6. But Jeanette Bastian and Elizabeth Yakel found that of 373 courses devoted to archival topics in 2002; only six were devoted to reference services.[63]

Information-Seeking Processes

Archivists must remember that all information seekers are always surrounded by information. (See Figure 6.) Information seekers can turn to people for information; they can look for information embedded in objects, including personal collections, libraries, and archives; and they can also seek information in digital resources, including personal collections, library databases, and networks. An information seeker is a whole person, not an abstraction. Information seekers have a personal information infrastructure which consists of interacting mental models for specific information systems, whether they are human,

[61] Schaffner, "The Metadata Is the Interface," 13.

[62] Domain 3: Reference Services and Access, Role Delineation for Professional Archivists. Academy of Certified Archivists, *Handbook for Archival Certification*, 20. http://www.certifiedarchivists.org/images /forms/handbook.pdf.

[63] Jeannette A. Bastian and Elizabeth Yakel, "Towards the Development of an Archival Core Curriculum: The United States and Canada," *Archival Science* 6 (2006): 133–150.

F I G U R E 6 . **Information seekers are surrounded by information.**

tangible, or electronic. Gary Marchionini defines mental models as dynamic mental representations of the real world.[64] Mental maps are critical to navigation in any context and are also critical to organizing information and understanding it.

Possibly the most revolutionary impact of the web is that people can find communities of people with like interests. This brings us full circle to people as the primary and preferred source of information. The web, however, fosters the very problematic "illusion of omniscience" that all information is available through it. Helen Tibbo notes that many researchers now have better access to the Internet than they have ever had to standard reference tools, especially archival reference tools such as National Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections (NUCMC). The difficulty of physical access to unique materials has been described as the "death of distance" and has always been a huge impediment to use of archives. As people now increasingly turn to electronic networks, they may be less likely to search for archival materials in object form.

Gary Marchionini provides a useful model of three information-seeking sub-processes: (1) understanding the information need, (2) planning and

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[64] Gary Marchionini, *Information Seeking in Electronic Environments* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995): 6–28.
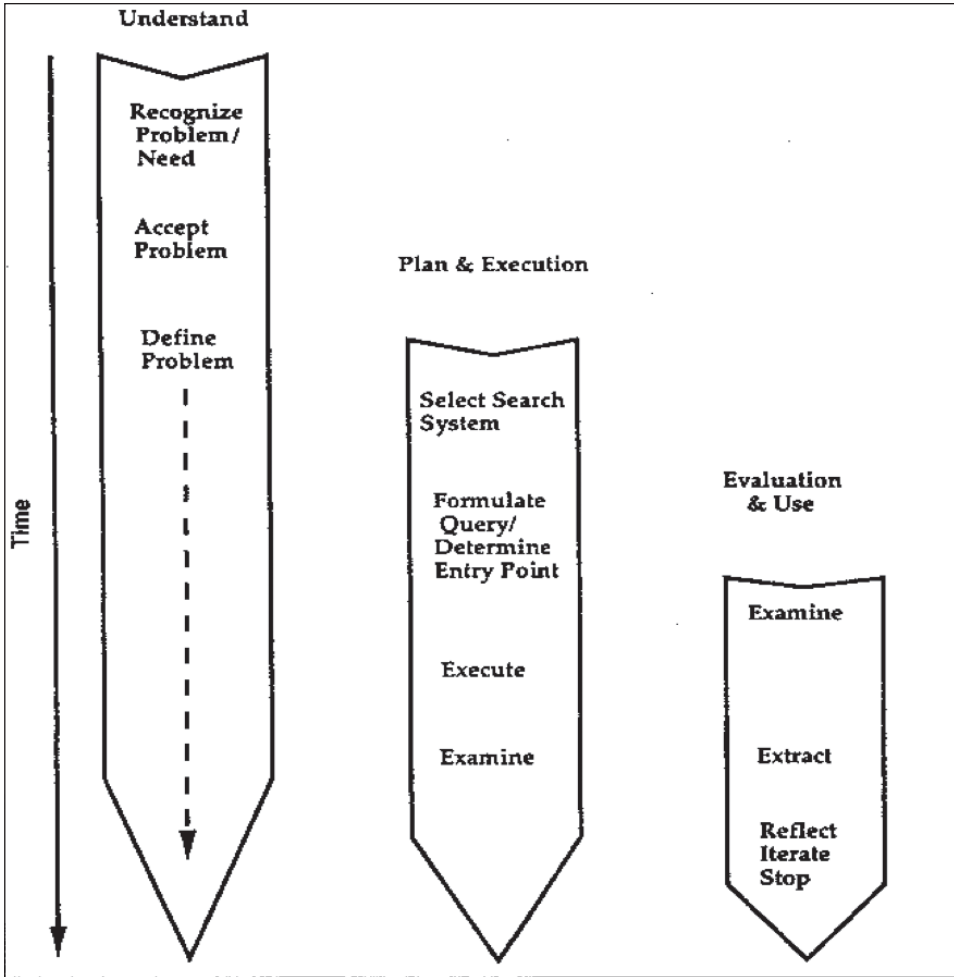
F I G U R E 7 . Information-seeking processes from Gary Marchionini, *Information Seeking in Electronic Environments*, 1995.

executing the information search, and (3) evaluating and using the results.[65] The most interesting one at present is the selection of search systems and the determination of the entry point, illustrated at the top of the second column of Figure 7. How do users decide which search system to use? How do they determine their entry point and then formulate their query? My underlying question is, of course, how do we place archives at that point, as one of the search systems to be considered? This question leads to a consideration of outreach and advocacy for archives outside the repository.

[65] Marchionini, *Information Seeking in Electronic Environments*, 6–28.

Conclusion

We can identify a number of illusions today. There is the illusion that no one writes about reference; the illusion of the omniscient reference archivist; the illusion that all information is online; the illusion that description is enough; and the illusion that MPLP will be enough. Regardless of these illusions, we can assert that reference services are critical to helping users find the information they need.

Access Opportunities We Could Never Have Imagined, Issues That We Can Never Resolve

John Fleckner

The simple word "access" is so familiar a part of the verbal landscape of archives that it is easy to forget its richness and complexities. Access is at once a core value or belief of archivists; a privilege or a right which archivists must administer through institutional policies; and a set of activities by which we make archival records known—that is, intellectual access. This paper looks at the evolving notions of access deeply rooted in our history. It concludes by arguing that archivists should explore another dimension of access—archival literacy, that is the knowledge and skills that enable citizens to understand the archival enterprise sufficiently to meet their information needs.

Thinking About Access for Seventy-Five Years

That archives, as institutions, exist to provide access to archival materials seems true by definition. We would say that a so-called archives with no access of any sort is a reliquary or a mausoleum. What is not at all obvious is who will be the expected (and preferred) beneficiaries of this access? What are the principles by which access will be administered? To what degree should the archivist be a passive custodian or a vigorous advocate for access? What is the place of access (and use of) records in our mental picture of the archival enterprise?

In his 1937 address as SAA's first president, Albert Ray Newsome, a University of North Carolina historian long active in archival affairs, reflected on that enterprise. "The first third of the twentieth century was an era of archival pioneering in the United States," he observed, while the second was "a new era of remarkable archival fruition."[66] One legacy of the "pioneering" era was the development of some measure of consensus about the nature and purpose

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[66] A. R. Newsome, "Objectives of the Society of American Archivists: 1937 Presidential Address," *American Archivist* 26 (July 1963): 299, reprinted from mimeographed *Proceedings* of the Society of American Archivists (Urbana, Illinois, 1937).

of American archives. The Public Records Commission of the American Historical Association and its Conference of Archivists—created in 1909 and transformed into the independent Society of American Archivists in 1936—had been key contributors to this development.[67]

President Newsome drew on these shared ideas and values as he identified objectives for the fledgling SAA. "The Society should become the practical, self-help agency of archivists for the solution of their complex problems of internal economy." These included a litany familiar to us today—appraisal criteria, reproduction techniques, physical preservation, and management of nontextual records. But not all issues centered on the records themselves. "Some of the most puzzling and important problems of archival administration," Newsome judged, "relate to availability." For example, what sorts of "research room rules, practices, and implements" are best? And, even more challenging, "should archivists be content with the maximum availability of their records to the small number of visiting and inquiring investigators or should they extend availability by resort to publication, viewed broadly as the entire progress of taking reproductions and guides to the public?" Newsome's own views seem clear in this striking assertion: The goal of "all competent archivists" is "a more extensive use of archives by scholarly investigators. . . ." Newsome urged SAA "to foster a wider and more intensive interest in archives" among national scholarly organizations. "Public archives," he argued, "are of the greatest value not only to historians but to scholars in every branch of the social sciences."

Yet, good relations with archival and scholarly constituencies were not sufficient. "Absolutely vital to the existence and advance of archival work is public support, intellectual and financial." This support was essential to securing needed archival legislation and financial backing. Newsome offered few particulars, suggesting only that the Society might examine methods for "public exhibition of interesting documents" and "encourage well-directed publicity of an informational nature" about the value of archives to communities. It would be left for many future generations to turn this insight about public support into an action agenda.[68]

Newsome's second SAA presidential address—in those days presidents served for two years—was a mind-numbing analysis of the archival legislation in each of the forty-eight states, but it provided the ground work for a model state

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[67] James M. O'Toole and Richard J. Cox, *Understanding Archives And Manuscripts* (Chicago, Il: Society of American Archivists, 2006), Chapter 2, "The History of Archives and the Archives Profession," especially 51–86 and J. Frank Cook, "The Blessings of Providence on an Association of Archivists," *American Archivist* 46, no. 4 (Fall 1983): 374–399 are brief surveys of the history of the profession.

[68] Newsome, "Objectives of the Society," 300–303. Newsome was not alone in seeing the need for a broader base for the support of archives. See, for example, Robert C. Binkley, "Strategic Objectives in Archival Policy," *American Archivist* 2 (July 1939), 168: "Just as librarians promote the use of books, and as teachers defend before the public the value of education, so archivists have as a part of their duty to give stimulus and guidance to the use of archives, and to their use not by the few but by the many."

public records law drafted by an SAA in 1939.[69] Section six of the model law, addressing "availability" of public records, articulated standards for access by placing three specific duties on custodians of public records: first: "to keep them in such arrangement and condition as to make them easily accessible for convenient use; second: to "permit all public records…to be inspected, examined, abstracted, or copied by any person," "except as otherwise expressly provided by law;" and third: "upon the demand of any person, furnish certified copies. . . ."[70] These standards of access were far from the norm of the day. Although provisions for copying were common, only six states required convenient access; only eight states explicitly made all public records, excepting those restricted by law, available to all persons; while six more states made them available to "citizens;" fifteen states provided "public access to designated classes of records."[71]

SAA undertook several efforts on behalf of the Uniform State Public Records Act. Newsome had communicated with the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws (an American Bar Association affiliate) in preparing the Act and the Society formally submitted it to the Conference in 1940. The Society also printed 175 extra copies of the *American Archivist* issue in which the act appeared for distribution by the Council of State Governments and to a select list of state officials and influential private citizens. In 1941 SAA's Secretary reported that many public officials had become acquainted with SAA and the proposed law and that eleven states were considering public records legislation.[72] Over the years SAA's activities on behalf of archives legislation and other political goals has waxed and waned, but this early example reminds us that from the beginning of the organized profession, archivists have seen advocacy, including advocacy for enhanced public access, as a professional opportunity and obligation.

In 1956, Dr. Theodore R. Schellenberg published *Modern Archives: Principles and Techniques*, the first of several volumes that became basic textbooks for a generation of archivists. *Modern Archives* crystallized lessons learned in the creation of the National Archives while incorporating archival ideas and values inherited from earlier years. The book's final chapter on reference service is in Schellenberg's usual direct and authoritative style, beginning with a bold assertion followed by closely argued propositions that flow from it. "The end of all archival effort is to preserve valuable records and make them available for use," Schellenberg proclaimed, and all the archival functions—appraisal, accession, description, and physical care—serve these twin goals.

[69] Albert Ray Newsome, "Uniform State Archival Legislation," *American Archivist* 2 (January 1939): 1–16.

[70] "Proposed Uniform State Records Act," *American Archivist* 3 (April 1940): 110.

[71] Newsome, "Uniform State Archival Legislation," 12–13.

[72] Philip C. Brooks, "Report of the Secretary," *American Archivist* 4 (January 1941): 53–54.

Schellenberg saw twin audiences as well: The archivist "provides access to records under conditions that will satisfy both government officials and the general public. . . ." After all, he wrote, "Since public records are the property of the state, all citizens who collectively constitute the state, have a right to their use." The undifferentiated "general public," however, is not Schellenberg's focus. It is "scholarly needs" (as well as "official" ones) that the archivist serves in managing the arrangement of records. And it is the possibility of "scholarly researches" that is the archivist's objective in defining "the conditions of access."

Modern Archives makes another repeated assertion about access: it must be equal. The archivist, Schellenberg insists, must apply "the principle of equal access to all legitimate researchers" and "make no distinction between official and private users." Priorities in services, if necessary, should be based on the importance of the request, not the requestor, with "special consideration" given to those seeking to establish "legal or civic rights" or whose work "will contribute significantly to the increase or dissemination of knowledge." Although "an archivist normally favors a policy of free access," Schellenberg recognized that some restrictions on records were inevitable. *Modern Archives* articulated principles for managing this tension. To begin, an archives must negotiate reasonable access restrictions with agencies when transferring records and refuse to accession records restricted beyond that standard, both practices in place at the National Archives. Reasonable restrictions should be time limited and they should be levied to protect specific public interests, for example military secrets and "certain types of personal information." An archives program might, as the National Archives found necessary, seek legislation to overcome obsolete legal barriers to access.[73]

As an archival writer and teacher, Schellenberg's "main objective," according to Jane Smith in 1981, "was to systematize and standardize archival principles and techniques."[74] Promoting common archival values and perspectives was an inevitable accompaniment. Ironically, by the time of Schellenberg's death at age sixty-seven in 1970, the archival landscape that he described and shaped was in the midst of a momentous transformation. Hundreds of colleges and universities, expanding to serve the baby boom generation and eager to enhance their research profiles, added new archival programs. Religious and other institutional archives also flourished. By 1970, public records archivists who had once dominated SAA were barely more than one-third of the membership of about 1,000, while archivists from academic institutions were only 5 percent fewer.

Even more powerful, perhaps, than these structural changes in the profession were the winds of social and cultural change. Movements for civil

[73] T. R. Schellenberg, *Modern Archives: Principles and Techniques* (Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1956): 224–232.

[74] Jane F. Smith, "Theodore R. Schellenberg: Americanizer and Popularizer, *American Archivist* 44 (Fall 1981): 325

rights, peace in Viet Nam, and women's rights also inspired demands for greater democracy, equality, participation, and activism within the archives profession.[75] SAA responded by appointing a Committee on the Seventies, with funding from the Council on Library Resources, that was charged "to find ways to make the Society more democratic, more responsive, and more relevant to its members." Remarkably, SAA adopted the bulk of the Committee's recommendations, some of them controversial and most focused on the internal operations of the Society.[76]

But the Committee on the Seventies also looked at a wider context, most notably in a section on "social relevance" that called for SAA to be "actively committed" to three social goals: "racial justice, equal employment, and reasonable access to research materials." In the access area, the Committee identified concerns about "overclassification of Federal records in the name of security; over-restriction of manuscripts and archival material; [and] unwarranted violations of the confidentiality of records for political or other unworthy purposes. . . ." To the Committee, true commitment to these goals produced "a moral obligation to take official positions on those contemporary public issues, however controversial, which affect the archival profession."[77]

A decade after the Committee on the Seventies, an even more audacious look at the American archival scene commenced. From 1983 to 1986, F. Gerald Ham, State Archivist at the Wisconsin Historical Society, past president of SAA, and co-author of the "social relevance" statement, chaired the Goals and Priorities (GAP) Task Force, an effort largely inspired by Larry Hackman, New York State Archivist and former director of the NHPRC historical records grants program (which, in part, funded the effort). Ham, the energetic iconoclast and Jeremiah of the profession, described GAP's work as the creation of a "strategic vision of where we as archivists should be heading. . . ." It was an agreement, he noted, that the "introspective and isolationist proclivities of our custodial past" had previously doomed.[78]

The six-member GAP Task force, supplemented by a working group of fifteen, met at least six times and its draft documents received wide circulation and critique. By 1986, SAA's fiftieth anniversary, the Task Force had achieved its two primary goals: a handsomely designed, forty-two page report (mailed to every SAA member) and the appointment of an SAA standing Committee on Goals and Priorities that would, in the words of SAA President Shonnie Finnegan,

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[75] Patrick M. Quinn, "Archivists and Historians: The Times They Are A-Changin'," *Midwestern Archivist* 2, no. 2 (1977): 5–13.

[76] Cook, "Blessings," 397–398.

[77] Philip P. Mason, "The Society of American Archivists in the Seventies: Report of the Committee for the 1970s," *American Archivist* 35 (April 1972): 205

[78] F. Gerald Ham, "Planning for the Archival Profession," *American Archivist* 48 (Winter 1985): 26.

continue planning activities and "identify and promote action in particularly critical areas."[79]

Planning for the Archival Profession: A Report of the SAA Task Force on Goals and Priorities was not a plan for the profession (or even for SAA) but, rather, "an intellectual structure, a framework for planning." Its form was familiar: a statement of mission for the profession "to ensure the identification, preservation, and use of records of enduring value," followed by brief statements of these three goals and their relevant objectives and suggested specific activities. The discussion of Goal III, "the availability and use of records of enduring value," reiterated familiar archival ideas: "The use of archival records is the ultimate purpose" of all archival activities and "promoting use . . . is a fundamental goal of the archival community." Three assumptions supported this assertion: access to information sustains a democratic society; knowledge of the past contributes to a better future; and use of records increases public awareness essential to the archival enterprise. What made the work of GAP unique was the further analysis that parsed this timeless goal into five broad objectives, nineteen narrower ones, and fifty-eight possible activities. Some of that analysis now seems curiously quaint—for example, inter-institutional loans of archival records and national and regional collections of archival finding aids. Other portions were prescient—reducing barriers to use (such as attitudes and practices), studies of archives users' needs, and using new information technologies for greater access to finding aids.[80]

Today, the GAP report as a whole stands as a record of the experiences and expectations of a generation of archivists a quarter century ago. It also stands as a forerunner, perhaps even inspiration, for the strategic planning that has become an integral part of SAA and of most archival organizations. Alas, as Larry Hackman has recently written, GAP did not produce a "continuing, settled, and participatory process for nationwide assessment, for adopting priorities and strategies, and for reporting to and encouraging the profession and the American people." Nor did the NHPRC take up this role, a missed opportunity for its aspirations for a National Records Program.[81]

How do we articulate the place of access and use in the intellectual framework of archives in 2011? This year SAA grappled with two major statements of professional identity. "Access and Use" is one of the eleven "Core Values of Archivists" adopted by the SAA Council in May and promoting access and use is an imperative infused throughout the Core Values statement: access to records

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[79] Shonnie Finnegan, "Dear Colleagues," March 1986, cover letter accompanying the GAP Report.

[80] *Planning for the Archival Profession: A Report of the SAA Task Force on Goals and Priorities* (Chicago, IL; Society of American Archivists, 1986): especially 22–30. Available online: http://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=mdp.39015024110663.

[81] Larry J. Hackman, "The Origins of Documentation Strategies in Context: Recollections and Reflections," *American Archivist* 72 (Fall/Winter 2009): 448.

is essential to the value of accountability; promoting use and understanding of the historical record is primary to advocacy; community use of archives fosters the value of diversity; and meeting the needs of record users contributes to both service and social responsibility.[82]

The SAA Council will soon revisit the 2005 Code of Ethics. The proposed revision of Section VI, Access, begins by asserting that "use is the fundamental purpose of keeping archives" and then reiterates the duty to promote open and equitable access. In line with the overall intention to make the code more aspirational, the revised statement adds several elements not in the earlier version: archivists minimize restrictions and obstacles, maximize access tools, minimize psychological barriers, and develop policies that maximize responsible use. Any restrictions on records must be appropriate, well documented, equitably enforced, and carry an end date.[83]

Intellectual Access

Just as the ideas of access and use are inherent in the definition of archives, the dissemination of information about the archives (and its holdings) is inherent in the idea of access. The practice of providing intellectual access to archives by the publication of guides to individual collections and to the holdings of entire repositories and by transcription and publication of documents began in the nineteenth century. The American Historical Association's (AHA) Public Records Commission and, in the 1930s, the Historical Records Survey of the Works Progress Administration, gathered and published information about public and private records in thousands of repositories across the country. In 1954, the *Harvard Guide to American History* noted: "Every library or institution that collects manuscripts, every governmental unit that maintains an archivist, should put out a printed guide to what is has," though the *Guide* lamented, "but few have done so." Nonetheless the *Guide*'s list ran to more than three small print pages despite having "no room to be comprehensive."[84] A renewed interest in records surveys and guides occurred in the 1960s and 1970s as archivists began to speak of a "universe of documentation" and to espouse a more active role in identifying and selecting records for preservation. Federal and foundation grants supported many survey efforts, most notably the Women's History Sources Survey.

[82] "Core Values of Archivists," http://www2.archivists.org/statements/core-values-of-archivists.

[83] "SAA Seeks Member Comments on 'Draft Code of Ethics for Archivists,'" http://web.archive.org /web/20130919080830/http://www2.archivists.org/news/2011/saa-seeks-member-comment-on-draft-code-of-ethics-for-archivists. The current Code of Ethics for Archivists is at http://www2.archivists .org/statements/saa-core-values-statement-and-code-of-ethics.

[84] Oscar Handlin [and others], *Harvard Guide to American History* (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press, 1954): 26.

Beginning in the 1980s, as new information technologies became available, strategies for enhancing intellectual access to archives shifted dramatically. New technical and descriptive standards, new local, regional, and national information systems, and (in the 1990s) the Internet and the web enabled institutions to disseminate collections information and digitized images of archival materials to a vast audience at a cost inconceivably less than print publication.

This extraordinary availability of information about and images of, historical records seemed to promise both enhanced scholarship on historical topics and greater use of primary sources by far broader audiences, especially students and teachers. Trends in education to introduce students at all levels to primary sources bolstered those hopes. Students would acquire critical thinking skills and learn basic research techniques. Today we are less sanguine about these outcomes. As we have learned from a flurry of user studies, becoming fluent in using archives and archival materials—in digital or original form—requires a basic level of archival literacy rarely achieved by K–12 or undergraduate students and only infrequently by others in the research public.[85] So, it seems, our task as archivists to increase use of archives (and win supporters for the archival enterprise) is not accomplished simply by our massive efforts to populate the internet with archival information.

What then might we do? Archivists and teachers typically begin their instruction in using primary sources with copies of sample documents. Using a tool like the National Archives' Document Analysis Worksheet, students identify basic records characteristics—date, author, audience, and the like. Working from these observations, students are encouraged to consider why a document was created, to place it in historical context, and to evaluate it as historical evidence. This instruction no doubt contributes to building critical thinking skills and to preparation for standardized tests with document-based questions. When coupled with specifics about a repository's policies and procedures, it should ease user anxieties and facilitate research assignments.

But most document-based instruction falls far short of preparing archives users to recognize the complexities of archival materials and to locate and

[85] My thinking about archival literacy has been greatly aided by a 2007 research paper by Katrina Righter, then a student in my research seminar at the University of Maryland. Righter found something fewer than thirty Google hits on the term "archival literacy" four years ago; today the number is around 225; Google Scholar, by contrast, finds only seventeen. Righter pointed me to Keith C. Barton, "Primary Sources in History: Breaking Through the Myths," *Phi Delta Kappan* 86, no. 10 (2005): 745–753. Elizabeth Yakel and her colleagues at the University of Michigan have studied and written extensively about the education of users of archives, for example: Yakel, "Impact of Internet-based Discovery Tools on Use and Users of Archives," *Proceedings of the XXXVI Roundtable on Archives (CITRA) Meeting. November 11–14, 2002, Marseilles, France*, published in *Comma* 2, no. 3 (2003); Yakel, "Information Literacy for Primary Sources: Creating a New Paradigm for Archival Researcher Education," *OCLC Systems and Services: International Digital Library Perspectives* 20, no. 2 (2004): 61–64; Yakel and Deborah A. Torres, "AI: Archival Intelligence," *American Archivist* 66 (Spring/Summer 2003): 51–78, especially 77–78; Magia G. Krause, "Undergraduates in the Archives: Using an Assessment Rubric to Measure Learning," *American Archivist* 73 (Fall/Winter 2010): 507–534.

effectively use them in a wide range of repositories. In pursuit of that sort of archival literacy, we might extend document analysis exercises by thinking about the "original" document from which the sample was copied: Where is it at this moment? How did it come to be in a specific folder, box, series, and collection? This conversation would turn away from the individual item and emphasize the "groupness" of archival materials and it would spur further questions: What is the life of archival materials before they enter a repository? How and why do they end up there? How did the repository choose to make these materials known through finding aids and online systems?

Greater archival literacy will make researchers more productive archives users, and it will have many other benefits as well. Understanding archival concepts and practices builds additional critical thinking skills that are vital in our knowledge economy. Students might apply these skills to class projects, such as building a digital community history website, personal and family documentation, and to coping with all the recorded information they will encounter throughout their lives.

Conclusion

Archivists have always played the roles of gatekeeper and mediator between the record and its users. But we have always been teachers, as well. Ironically, when the Internet connects users directly to the documents the role of educator becomes all the more essential. Of course, this rarely is the archivist on one end of a log and the user/student on the other. Our teaching will consist of online tutorials, pop-up help screens, improved graphic design, and a host of other ways that provide users with the intellectual schema they need to be truly effective users of archives. Our teaching, however it is delivered, will be more productive as we better understand what constitutes archival literacy and as we refine our teaching methods on the basis of that understanding.

Archivists believe in access. It is a value to which we are committed and a goal toward which we strive. Over the history of our profession, we have enlarged our vision of potential audiences for archives. We have placed the use of records at the center of who we are and what we do. Our understanding of access and our efforts to enhance it have become far more complex. Lastly, we have learned that beyond disseminating information about archives we must redouble our efforts as educators to promote archival literacy as a basic right of all citizens.

Outreach: An Administrative Function Now Getting Traction

George Bain

One of my colleagues in Ohio maintains that the best outreach effort begins with good, courteous service to any and all reference patrons. One should never exclude the possibility that a user can become the donor of a major collection or a major friend and supporter. In my mind, this is outreach at its most basic. And this leads to the focus here today: an examination of the concept of "outreach" as a facet of the archival enterprise over the seventy-plus years since the establishment of SAA in 1936, along with parallel developments following the creation of the National Archives of the United States in the mid-1930s. In my estimation, our profession's understanding of "outreach" has developed over the course of time in an incremental fashion that has moved from a lower priority in the early decades to today's more robust consideration of this aspect of our professional work and life. For the purposes of this paper, "outreach" is defined very minimally; it is what we tell others about who archivists are and what we do.

The primary focus of this paper will be on the more global parts of the archival landscape over these seven-plus decades. Still, it is important to take a moment to consider temporal changes at the repository level. Long ago, meaning the mid-twentieth century, our predecessors would have used manual typewriters and mimeograph stencils to prepare repository guides and would have frequently limited users to those considered to be "serious researchers." Years later, the office environment had evolved to electric typewriters, Xerox copiers, and electronic union catalogs along with library instruction for users. This was followed by personal computers, the Internet, hypertext, and the World Wide Web. In today's environment, repository-level outreach may include finding aids with EAD links, digitized images, the use of blogs, and other social media. The changes in technologies and our applications with them have been vast, and indeed rather mind-boggling.

Turning now to the broader landscape, how have we couched our understanding of outreach and the ways to make it work for us? This brings us to the story of how outreach as a concept has evolved at the global level. Outreach is not evident in the parlance of the early members of SAA, whose ranks were heavily concentrated within the national archival agencies of the United States and Canada and the state or provincial agencies. This is not to say that reaching out was foreign to early members of the profession. For instance, as Donald McCoy relates, R.D.W. Conner, the first Archivist of the United States, was adept at public relations and had his staff connect with the historical profession and a number of other professional associations. But early archivists, at the U.S. federal level especially, were very busy dealing with the volume of records that

existed and then which increased dramatically during the war years. To respond to this situation, some archivists pioneered the new field of records management. Yet our profession received, and continues to receive, the benefits of our first advocates who established the National Historical Publications Commission (NHPC) within the legislation for the U. S. National Archives in 1934. Additionally, Solon Buck and Ernst Posner diligently worked at professional development, especially through American University. Buck, with others, did yeoman work with other groups internationally. Posner thought the National Archives' microfilm publication program was a "democratization of the archival reference service." The NHPC's Philip Hamer stated in the introduction to his 1961 publication, *A Guide to the Archives and Manuscripts in the United States*, the need for a conveniently sized volume to assist researchers in finding desired materials, and his guide helped fill a void. Margaret Cross Norton in Illinois mentored her associates with a strategy for working collaboratively with agency heads in her state in order to advance her operation.[86]

SAA, however, did not develop any real critical mass until it was more than a quarter century in age. Membership figures did not surpass the one-thousand mark until 1971.[87] Yet the archival enterprise began to burgeon in the 1960s and continued in the 1970s, especially with the rapid expansion of academic repositories across the United States and Canada. This was soon followed by an expansion on the part of religious and corporate archives. The rapid growth created stresses and tensions within the profession, but it also led in 1974 to the employment of the Society's first Executive Director, and then staff. This growth enabled the Society to undertake more tasks, such as developing a series of basic manuals. Along with this expansion of SAA's membership and operations, which Frank Cook has termed the "professionalization of the society,"[88] two other changes also helped bring the profession closer to Main Street. One of these changes was the growth of the regional groups, which has led to educational and awards programs that have fostered the archival enterprise at a local level. The second change was the expanded mission in the United States on the part of the NHPC to the National Historical Publications and Records

[86] Donald R. McCoy, *The National Archives: America's Ministry of Documents, 1934–1968* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1978): 70–71, 87–89; *U.S. Statutes at Large*, (48: 1928–1934): 1122–1124; McCoy, *The National Archives*, 99–102, 171–189; Ernst Posner, "The National Archives and the Archival Theorist," *American Archivist* 18 (July 1955): 211; The article is reprinted in Ken Munden, ed., *Archives and the Public Interest: Selected Essays by Ernst Posner* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 2006 reprint edition): 131–140; Philip M. Hamer, ed., *A Guide to Archives and Manuscripts in the United States* (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1961): ii; Thornton W. Mitchell, ed., *Norton on Archives: The Writings of Margaret Cross Norton on Archival and Records Management* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1975): 51–52.

[87] Frank Cook, "The Blessings of Providence on an Association of Archivists," *American Archivist* 46 (Fall 1983), 395.

[88] Frank Cook, "The Blessings of Providence on an Association of Archivists," *American Archivist* 46 (Fall 1983): 389.

Commission or NHPRC, which led to the states developing records advisory boards and helped create a pipeline for grant funds to be used for records projects.[89] This maturation has strengthened the profession and has given it platforms for increased activity and connections.

Activity related to outreach, and the development of an intellectual framework for outreach, came to the foreground during the mid-1970s to the late 1980s. This is not to claim that there was a causal relation between greater numbers and increased activity related to outreach; however the newer archivists certainly had a stake in becoming more well-known and identifying the ways to do this. Neither outreach nor "public programs" appeared in Frank Evans' glossary of terms published in 1975.[90] But eventually the term did emerge, and with the establishment of SAA's sections around 1980, one of the functional sections created was for "reference, access, and outreach." Also, in the subtitle of an article on user education programs at the U.S. National Archives published in 1978, Elsie Freeman examined "outreach as an administrative function." Outreach was now administratively on a par with the more traditional functions of acquisition and description! And one of the publications in the first series of basic manuals, by Ann Pederson and Gail Farr Casterline, was on exhibits and public programs.[91]

As the 1970s gave way to the 1980s, there was a significant ferment about the profession's purpose and role in society, and the planning needed to engender a better posture for archivists. This discussion, which transpired over a half-decade or so, resulted in the publication in 1986 of the report by the Task Force on Goals and Priorities entitled *Planning for the Archival Profession.* Leaders of the task force included Gerald Ham, Larry Hackman, Helen Samuels, and John Fleckner. The task force's report is vitally important to our discussion here. Its authors not only gave prominent play to outreach by outlining a range of activities relating to this in the third goal, "The Availability and Use of Records of Enduring Value," but the report also identified other goals and priorities for which outreach stratagems needed to be included to accomplish objectives and

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[89] For background information on the development of the NHPRC, see Frank G. Burke, "The Beginnings of the NHPRC Records Program," *American Archivist* 63 (Spring/Summer 2000): 18–42.

[90] Frank B. Evans, Donald F. Harrison and Edwin A. Thompson, compilers; William F. Rofes, ed., "A Basic Glossary for Archivists, Manuscript Curators, and Records Managers," *American Archivist* 37 (July 1974): 415–518.

[91] Elsie Freeman Freivogel [Finch], "Educational Programs: Outreach as an Administrative Function," *American Archivist* 41 (April 1978): 147–153; Ann E. Pederson and Gail Casterline Farr, *Archives and Manuscripts, Public Programs* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1982).

activities for those goals. In my view, Hackman's work on the committee proved to be an important seed bed for his recent publication, *Many Happy Returns.*[92]

As a measure of where the profession was then and as it has grappled with new thought patterns, let me take a moment to quote the first two steps under Objective A of Goal III, which was to "Develop Educational and Promotional Programs to Encourage Use of Archival Records."

1) Examine assumptions and attitudes of archivists concerning outreach and evaluate and publicize programs designed to increase use.

2) Educate archivists about outreach and its importance to the overall success of their programs.[93]

In my reading of this report today, I see this as a group still adjusting its comfort zone on outreach.

Yet the advances continued. There were other parts of this fruitful ferment that carried through the mid-1980s. First, the NHPRC-sponsored assessment report grants had an outreach element contained within them. Secondly, one of the parts of President David Gracy's "archives and society" program was the publication of the Levy Report on *The Image of Archivists.* Professor Levy's study examined the perceptions of archivists from the perspective of our "resource allocators" and found that we are generally very likeable but perhaps relatively ineffectual. This revelation made many archivists wince, to say the least, but Levy added that it was we who had to meet the challenge of the obstacles laid out before us.[94] Third, the first half of the 1980s was also the time of the successful campaign for independence for the U.S. National Archives. An important aspect of this campaign was a new form of collaboration that consisted of working with an advocacy organization. For Archivist of the United States Robert Warner, the work of Page Putnam Miller of the National Coordinating Committee for the Promotion of History (now the National Coalition for History) rendered

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[92] Task Force on Goals and Priorities, *Planning for the Archival Profession: A Report of the SAA Task Force on Goals and Priorities* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1986) Available online: http://babel .hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=mdp.39015024110663; Larry J. Hackman, *Many Happy Returns: Advocacy and the Development of Archives* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 2010). Frank Burke's "The Beginnings of the NHPRC Records Program," *op. cit.*, 28–42, also provides insights into the work (and thinking) Hackman was doing from the mid-1970s to the early 1980s, the years he was with the NHPRC.

[93] *Planning for the Archival Profession*, 22–23.

[94] Sidney J. Levy and Albert G. Roebles, *The Image of Archivists: Resource Allocators' Perceptions* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1984) especially iv. Online at: www2.archivists.org/sites/all/files/ Image-of-Archivists-Levy1984.pdf. The Levy report begs the question of power, which is beyond the scope of this paper, but Randall C. Jimerson's *Archives Power: Memory, Accountability and Social Justice* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 2009) is a very useful extended treatment of the topic.

assistance that was especially crucial.[95] Finally, the culmination of the development of the intellectual underpinnings for outreach came in 1989 with the establishment of SAA's J. Franklin Jameson Archival Advocacy Award.[96]

Outreach on the part of the archival profession has continued in varying fashion over the last two decades. One of the more significant developments has been the Archives Week, now mostly Archives Month, programs primarily in the United States. After its start in New York in the late 1980s, these programs gradually developed from a few states to a large majority of states. The Council of State Archivists (CoSA) has served for a decade as a clearinghouse for annual activity, and more recently SAA's staff has promoted American Archives Month. One of the most effective of these programs, for me, has been that of the Archival Round Table of Metropolitan New York. A primary achievement for Archives Month has been the growing body of attractive poster art that has been created. Sadly, however, the number of repositories which take advantage of these programs for exhibits, open houses, and lectures has been and remains a very small percentage. Still, experimentation and tinkering continues; SAA announced in August 2011 a second year of the *I Found It In The Archives* competition which ties in with its American Archives Month observance.

Another element which helps to explain "who we are" and "what we do" that has developed over the past two decades has been the increased promotion of the work archivists perform. While archivists have been actively supporting strong candidates for the position of Archivist of the United States, in my estimation, this work has gained sophistication over time. Our efforts of advocacy for our work have expanded through actions including, but not limited to, past SAA presidents Tom Hickerson, Bill Maher and Steve Hensen submitting testimony before Congressional committees or writing op-ed articles in leading national newspapers such as *The Washington Post* and *The New York Times* over the past fifteen years.[97]

Turning northward, archival sources were included in the "history moment" public service announcements on national television in the early 1990s. Canadian rock stars and other celebrities posed questions then provided answers

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[95] Robert M. Warner, *Diary of a Dream: A History of the National Archives Independence Movement, 1980–1985* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1995). See index for numerous references on Miller. In previous decades the American Historical Association (AHA) had traditionally worked with SAA, and the Council of Library Resources (CLR) had frequently served as a funding party for SAA projects; the NCCPH (of which the AHA was a member) was a new development, a group seeking political objectives in a more direct fashion.

[96] The Winter 1990–91 issue of *Archivaria* (No. 31) includes a supplemental section on "Public Programming in Archives" of five articles that capture various perspectives at the time; the articles were by Ian Wilson, Gabrielle Blais and David Enns, Timothy L. Ericson, Terry Cook, and Barbara Lazenby Craig. Available online at: http://journals.sfu.ca/archivar/index.php/archivaria/issue/view/390 /showToc.

[97] The SAA website includes a chronology of "Position Statements and Resolutions" http://www2 .archivists.org/statements that is detailed from the mid-1990s onward.

on topics that drew upon archival materials; this continues more recently with the "Historica Minute" programming there.[98] In the United States, SAA has significantly increased its membership base by effectively attracting graduate students to become members early on through its structure of student chapters; in turn, these fledgling members add both content and vibrancy to the profession, especially through posters at the annual meeting and through journal articles. Also American archivists are reaching out in various ways to enhance the diversity of the profession's membership through programs such as SAA's Harold T. Pinkett travel award and, now more substantive awards for graduate study, including the Midwest Archives Conference's Archie Motley scholarship and SAA's Mosaic Scholarship program.

Additionally, members of the profession in the United States have provided support over the years for NHPRC for its continuing authorization and for funding. The grants the Commission provides have been vital, even though the total amounts available have been relatively small. In the last few years the profession has embarked upon an ambitious quest for a more significant grant funding base through the Preserving the American Historical Record (PAHR) bill.[99] If this bill should pass, it would provide more substantial programmatic funds for each state. Given the current political climate, however, it may require a sustained commitment that could rival the length of time it took to create the U.S. National Archives.

This will require the archival profession to become adept advocates for this goal. Advocacy is a more recent addition to our parlance. Although the term advocacy was used in the GAP report, Richard Cox's consideration of the profession's need for advocacy in 1990 (in the context of national information policy) was rare at the time. The SAA strategic plan adopted in 1993 called for the organization to expand its advocacy efforts "to reach legislators and government officials . . . and to improve public awareness of the value of archives and archival work." Significant usage of the term came a few years later in Elsie Finch's manual on public relations, *Advocating Archives.* By 1999 the Academy of Certified Archivists had updated its fifth domain to the current "Outreach, Advocacy and Promotion." Still the term "advocacy" did not appear in the most recent glossary by Richard Pearce-Moses published in 2005. Yet SAA's strategic plan developed that same year made "public awareness and advocacy" one of

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[98] Some of the "history moments" so described were shown in a presentation by David Enns at an SAA conference in the early 1990s. Historica Minutes may be viewed at http://www.histori.ca/minutes/section.do?className=ca.histori.minutes.entity.ClassicMinute.

[99] For information on the PAHR bill see the Society of American Archivists' website http://www2.archivists.org/initiatives/preserving-the-american-historical-record.

three goals and set out a number of specific action steps to be taken.[100] And now Larry Hackman has contributed mightily to making it a more meaningful part of our vocabulary with his new book, *Many Happy Returns*, and its numerous case studies of successful advocacy campaigns, which include effective outreach measures that provide lessons and strategies for us all.

Of groups within SAA that have reached out well to related groups, I am most aware of the work the Congressional Papers Roundtable has done with the historical offices of the U.S. Senate and House of Representatives. Another example I can cite is the recent activity on the part of the Reference, Access and Outreach Section, of which I have long been a member. The RAO Section has for a few years had a National History Day (NHD) Committee that works to create a connection between archivists, National History Day staff, and the teachers and students who participate in this outstanding educational program. The section unveiled a wiki site on archivists and NHD in August 2011.[101] This is, in my estimation, the section's most ambitious project to date. But it is important to remember that this comes after a full thirty years of existence!

This has been one archivist's view of the growth and development of archival outreach over the past seven-plus decades. How should it be characterized overall? To me, it is the story of a concept that has a ways to go, but one that has gained significant amounts of traction. Let me elaborate with one example: note my mention of the RAO Section's NHD project; may its members soon undertake more such initiatives on outreach. Looking more broadly, archivists have yet to get PAHR passed in Congress, but this effort should remain an important, albeit challenging, goal even in the current political climate. However, it is evident from reading authors such as Larry Hackman that we are learning lessons on how to be strong advocates for our professional community. We, as archivists, have taken advantage of some opportunities and have encountered some challenges in our efforts to "tell who we are" and "what we do." But there are and will be additional opportunities and challenges out there, whether they come next month or next year. May we use well both our energy and our imagination to keep our outreach track on an upward slope.

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[100] Richard J. Cox, *American Archival Analysis: The Recent Development of the Archival Profession in the United States* (Metuchen, NJ: Scarecrow Press, 1990): 304–328 and 337–338; *Leadership and Service in the 1990s: A Strategic Plan for the Society of American Archivists* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 1993): 3; Elsie Freeman Finch, ed., *Advocating Archives: An Introduction to Public Relations for Archivists* (Metuchen, NJ: Society of American Archivists and Scarecrow Press, 1994); E-mail communication from ACA president Brenda Gunn, September 14, 2011; Richard Pearce-Moses, *A Glossary of Archives and Records Terminology* (Chicago: Society of American Archivists, 2005); see the SAA website http://www2 .archivists.org/governance/strategic-priorities for information on the 2005 Strategic Plan and a chronology of subsequent developments. Actually, Hackman's *Many Happy Returns* grew from an action step in the Strategic Plan.

[101] See the toolkit at http://nhdarchives.pbworks.com accessed on September 14, 2011.

About the authors:

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Since his retirement from full-time work in 2007, **John Fleckner** has been senior archivist at the Smithsonian's National Museum of American History and an adjunct faculty member in the George Washington University-Smithsonian collaboration in museum studies. He is a Fellow and past president of the Society of American Archivists.

Kathy Marquis is the public services librarian at the Albany County Public Library in Laramie, Wyoming. From 1975 to 2002 she worked as a reference archivist at the Schlesinger Library at Radcliffe College, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Minnesota Historical Society, and the Bentley Historical Library at the University of Michigan. She has taught reference workshops for SAA and several regionals as well as presenting and writing on archival reference and the public image of archivists. She has directed SAA groups on the status of women, public relations, education, the program committee, and most recently the SAA Annual Meeting Task Force.

Mary Jo Pugh is a Fellow of the Society of American Archivists and has served as editor of the *American Archivist* (2006 to 2011), editor of the seven-volume Archival Fundamentals Series (1989 to 1993), and author of two editions of *Providing Reference Services for Archives and Manuscripts* (1992 and 2005), the latter of which received the Waldo Gifford Leland Award for writing of superior excellence. Her seminal article, "The Illusion of Omniscience: Subject Access and the Reference Archivist," received SAA's Fellows' Ernst Posner Award for an outstanding essay published in volume 45 of the *American Archivist.* A former supervisory archivist at San Francisco Maritime National Historical Park and reference archivist at the Bentley Historical Library at the University of Michigan, she has taught archival administration at the University of Michigan, University of California-Berkeley, and Emporia State University.