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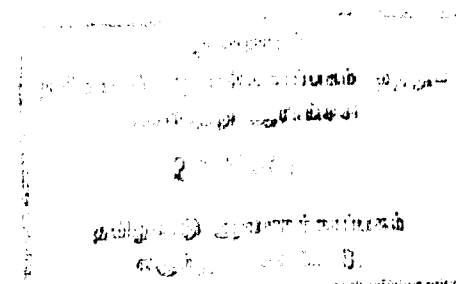
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Vol. XXX**



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and Documentation Centres**

**II. General Index of Archivum
Vol. I to XXX**

**I. Archives, Bibliothèques, Musées
et Centres de Documentation**

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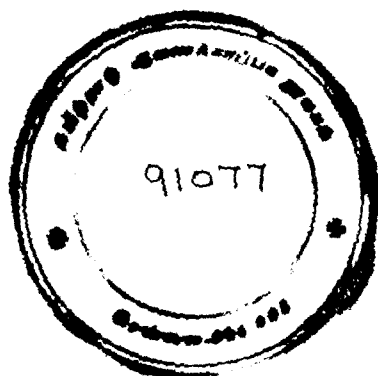
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FOREWORD

This thirtieth volume of *Archivum* comprises two parts.

The first part is dedicated to inter-professional reflections on a theme whose topicality is emphasized by the accelerated growth in information science: "Archives, Libraries, Museums and Documentation Centres". What are their respective fields, their boundaries, the methodologies appropriate to each of these four elements of the memory of mankind? What are their inter-relationships, sometimes their conflicts, more often their areas of cooperation? These are the questions which were simultaneously put to specialists in the field of libraries, museums and documentation and from which Mr Oscar Gauye, Director of the Federal Archives of Switzerland and former President of the International Council on Archives has drawn conclusions from the archival point of view.

The second part of the volume is an index to the thirty volumes so far published. The abundance of subjects dealt with or raised within the pages of our periodical, which covers the whole field of archival activity over the past thirty four years, prohibits the drawing up of a detailed analytical index which, by itself, would fill more than 500 pages, especially bearing in mind the necessary bilingual nature (English and French) of its subject index.

Thus an abbreviated and condensed form has been adopted which, it is thought, will allow users to find those subjects in which they are interested:

- (1) a complete list of articles, reports, interventions, etc., published in the thirty volumes, in alphabetical order of author or title;
- (2) an index by countries, referring to the numbers in the alphabetical list.
- (3) a subject index (in two versions: English and French), also referring to the numbers in the alphabetical list. Each index is preceded by an explanatory note.

English translations are by Mr. Peter Walne; German translations, by Dr. Eckhart Franz; Spanish translations by D. Federico Udina Martorell. Many thanks to them.

Michel Duchein
Editor in Chief

INTRODUCTION

Ce trentième volume d'*Archivum* comporte deux parties.

La première est consacrée à une réflexion inter-professionnelle sur un thème dont l'évolution accélérée des sciences de l'information souligne l'actualité: "Archives, Bibliothèques, Musées et Centres de documentation". Quels sont les domaines respectifs, les frontières, les méthodes propres de ces quatre éléments de la mémoire humaine; quelles sont leurs relations, parfois leurs conflits, plus souvent leurs champs de coopération; telles sont les questions que nous avons posées simultanément à des spécialistes des bibliothèques, des musées et de la documentation, et dont M. Oscar Gauye, Directeur des Archives fédérales suisses et ancien Président du Conseil international des Archives, a tiré les conclusions du point de vue des Archives.

La deuxième partie du volume est un index général des trente volumes publiés à ce jour. L'abondance des matières traitées ou évoquées dans les pages de notre revue, qui couvre tout le champ de l'activité archivistique depuis trente-quatre ans, interdisait de réaliser un index analytique détaillé qui eût à lui seul empli plus de 500 pages, surtout en tenant compte du nécessaire bilinguisme (anglais et français) de l'index-matières.

Nous avons donc adopté une formule abrégée et condensée qui, nous le pensons, permettra aux utilisateurs de retrouver les sujets qui les intéressent:

- 1° une liste complète des articles, rapports, interventions, etc., publiés dans les trente volumes, par ordre alphabétique d'auteur ou de titre;
- 2° un index par pays, renvoyant aux numéros de la liste alphabétique;
- 3° un index-matières (en deux versions: anglais et français) renvoyant également aux numéros de la liste alphabétique.

Chacun des index est précédé d'une note explicative.

Les traductions anglaises sont l'oeuvre de Mr. Peter Walne; les traductions allemandes, du Dr. Eckhart Franz; les traductions espagnoles, de D. Federico Udina Martorell. Qu'ils en soient vivement remerciés.

Michel Duchein
Rédacteur en chef

PART I / 1ère PARTIE

ARCHIVES, LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS,
AND DOCUMENTATION CENTRES

ARCHIVES, BIBLIOTHÈQUES, MUSÉES
ET CENTRES DE DOCUMENTATION

SPÉCIFICITÉ DES ARCHIVES ET CONVERGENCE AVEC LES BIBLIOTHÈQUES LES MUSÉES ET LES CENTRES DE DOCUMENTATION

Centres collecteurs des témoignages de l'activité humaine, organismes chargés d'assurer la conservation de ces témoignages et la diffusion de l'information, les Archives, les Bibliothèques, les Musées et les Centres de documentation sont à la fois des institutions spécifiques et complémentaires. Spécifiques? Chacune de ces institutions possède un champ d'activité, une conception de son rôle dans la société et une pratique qui lui sont propres. Ces différents paramètres ont d'ailleurs évolué au cours du temps, à tel point que les théories et les usages dépendent profondément des traditions de chaque pays. Néanmoins, liée à une finalité commune, cette spécificité institutionnelle ne peut se concevoir que dans une perspective de complémentarité, tant il est vrai que la notion même de culture implique une volonté de reconstitution globale de l'histoire de l'homme.

Dès lors, cette communication n'a aucunement la prétention d'épuiser le sujet, d'évoquer toutes les particularités, toutes les zones d'interférence qui concernent directement les relations entre les divers organismes, mais simplement de situer sommairement quelques-uns des points de convergence qui devraient aider à une meilleure compréhension de l'activité de l'autre, à une prise de conscience d'une certaine similitude. Il nous semble, en effet, que dans la mesure où cette prise de conscience se renforce, les services rendus à la conservation de la mémoire de l'homme permettent de répondre aux exigences scientifiques et culturelles de notre temps.

1. Spécificité des Archives

Le domaine des Archives s'est limité longtemps à la prise en charge des documents, à leur conservation et à leur mise en valeur par l'élaboration d'instruments de travail destinés à une élite intellectuelle. La prolifération des masses documentaires et le besoin de l'homme de notre époque d'agrandir le champ de ses connaissances ont contraint peu à peu les Archives à étendre leur domaine, en amont, par l'instauration d'un véritable contrôle des archives en formation et par la création de centres de préarchivage, en aval, par une politique culturelle toujours plus affirmée. A ces éléments, est venue s'ajouter la nécessité du recours à une méthodologie nouvelle et à des techniques de pointe, en matière de tri des documents, d'inventoriage, de communication de l'information.

Pour bien saisir la spécificité des Archives, il ne suffit pas de connaître leur domaine; il importe aussi de savoir ce que sont les archives, en tant que documents, ce que l'on entend par fonds d'archives et quelles sont les caractéristiques fondamentales de la fonction archivistique.

Les archives sont l'ensemble des documents de toute nature produits ou reçus par une personne physique ou morale, un organisme public ou privé, dans l'exercice de leur activité. Lorsque des documents procédant de l'activité d'une même institution ou d'une même personne sont réunis organiquement, ils constituent un fonds d'archives.

Que signifient les expressions «documents de toute nature», et «documents réunis organiquement»? Dans le premier cas, il s'agit de documents considérés indépendamment de leur forme, de leur support matériel, comprenant aussi bien les photographies, les enregistrements sonores, les microfilms, les microfiches, les bandes informatiques ou encore les dessins, les cartes et les plans, que les documents textuels. Dans le second cas, il ne s'agit pas du résultat d'une réunion d'éléments de provenances diverses pouvant former une collection, mais au contraire d'éléments n'ayant pas d'existence indépendante, «intégrés dans une structure globale de documentation qui est essentielle pour comprendre leur signification»¹. En d'autres termes, pour reprendre la formule de Robert-Henri Bautier, un document «n'acquiert toute sa valeur que si on le considère dans le contexte des autres documents parmi lesquels il a pris place»². Cette relation entre l'individualité du document et l'ensemble où il se situe génétiquement est à la base précisément de la notion de fonds d'archives.

Le caractère essentiellement organique des archives a logiquement entraîné la reconnaissance par la communauté archivistique mondiale du principe de provenance ou principe du respect des fonds, qui veut que chaque document soit «placé dans le fonds d'archives dont il provient et, dans ce fonds, à sa place d'origine»³. De ce principe, découlent toute une série de conséquences qui affectent directement la totalité de la fonction archivistique, de la naissance du document à la communication de l'information. En particulier, ce principe a contraint les archivistes à renoncer à tout système de classement des documents par matières, système qui reposait sur une réunion subjective de pièces, en fonction d'un thème, d'un ordre chronologique, méthodique ou géographique. Cette réunion s'apparentait à une collection fondée sur un cadre de classement souvent dérivé de la pratique des bibliothécaires. Elle avait en quelque sorte une fonction de documentation, dans la mesure où le rapprochement d'un ensemble de pièces traitant d'une question pouvait, à première vue, informer plus directement le chercheur qui avait besoin d'un document ou d'un renseignement bien précis ou qui s'intéressait au premier chef à la valeur documentaire des sources considérées. A l'expérience, cependant, cette pratique révéla plus d'inconvénients que d'avantages, car la dispersion des documents et des dossiers hors de l'ensemble dont ils étaient issus, tendait à obscurcir le contexte institutionnel nécessaire à une appréhension globale de la perspective historique. Tout se passait comme si le document produit était considéré comme le seul objet d'intérêt, occultant le contexte et la raison de sa création, absorbant en quelque sorte son auteur dont l'identité perdait toute son importance. Avec le respect du fonds, en revanche, les documents conservent leur identité collective en fonction de leur provenance; c'est dire que le classement reste «étroitement lié aux structures et aux procédures administratives ainsi qu'aux systèmes de classement des dossiers courants propres aux organismes dont ils émanent»⁴. Il y a plus: l'intérêt accordé à la provenance

du document et les conséquences qui en découlent permettent d'appréhender les caractéristiques fondamentales de la fonction archivistique, telle qu'elle est actuellement comprise et pratiquée, en particulier:

- Les archives constituent la mémoire de l'organisme ou de la personne qui les produit; dans le cas des archives publiques, la mémoire de l'Etat dont elles sont la propriété imprescriptible⁵. D'autre part, l'Etat étant l'instrument de la Nation constituée et, par définition, le collecteur des informations nécessaires à la gestion de la vie collective de la population résidant sur son territoire, ses archives sont, par nature, un élément important du patrimoine national. Dans ce sens, l'existence des dépôts d'archives publiques est en elle-même un témoignage de l'identité culturelle des Etats, des Nations et, dans une certaine mesure, des populations;
- Les archives sont évidemment une source directe et fondamentale non seulement dans la recherche historique, mais aussi dans des disciplines telles que la sociologie, l'anthropologie, la psychologie collective, l'économie ou la géographie, dans les sciences humaines en général, voire dans d'autres domaines. Avec raison, on a dit que les archives étaient un matériau de la science et les institutions d'archives des établissements de science et de culture.

2. La conservation des témoignages

La définition de la spécificité des Archives et la présentation de la pratique archivistique communément admise à l'heure actuelle permettent de situer le rôle des Archives dans le concert des diverses institutions dont la finalité est aussi de conserver des témoignages et de divulguer une information.

Très schématiquement, on peut dire aujourd'hui que ce n'est pas tant la nature matérielle de l'objet conservé que la méthode de conservation et d'information qui distingue les Archives des Bibliothèques, des Musées et des Centres de documentation. Par exemple, l'accroissement du volume de la production documentaire dans les services publics a contraint les Archives à créer des dépôts intermédiaires, assurant le lien entre l'«âge administratif» des documents et leur «âge historique». Dans une perspective archivistique, le but premier de cette gestion intermédiaire des documents se limite en général au tri et à l'élimination des pièces non retenues. Or, cette gestion a conduit les archivistes à une collaboration plus étroite avec les services administratifs en vue d'un traitement de l'information. Ainsi, aux Etats-Unis, «à mesure que les gestionnaires de documents et les archivistes se familiarisaient avec la technologie sans cesse changeante du traitement de l'information, ils promouvaient l'utilisation de la microcopie et de l'électronique. Ils furent ainsi aux avant-postes de la révolution de l'information. . . Certains d'entre eux sont maintenant devenus davantage des techniciens de l'information que des gestionnaires de documents à proprement parler»⁶. A partir de ce constat, on perçoit d'emblée le rapprochement possible entre archivistes et documentalistes, dans leur fonction commune d'étude des techniques de la gestion des documents. Il faut néanmoins prendre conscience du fait que cette expérience commune reste encore une exception. En effet, les possibilités d'assurer un véritable traitement de l'information sont soumises à de nombreuses variables: elles dépendent de l'équipement informatique des administrations et des Archives, des moyens financiers mis à disposition, du nombre de personnes

¹ RIEGER, Morris: «Nature, buts et principes de l'archivistique», in *Les Archives*, Extrait de «ALA World Encyclopedia of Library and Information Services», 1980, traduction française par Michel Duchein. Paris, Conseil International des Archives, 1982, p. 6.

² BAUTIER, Robert-Henri: «Définitions générales et problèmes juridiques des archives», in *Manuel d'archivistique. Théorie et pratique des Archives publiques en France*. Ouvrage élaboré par l'Association des archivistes français. Paris, Direction des Archives de France, 1970, p. 23.

³ *Elsevier's Lexicon of Archive terminology*. Compiled and arranged on a systematic basis by a Committee of the International Council on Archives. Elsevier Publishing Company, Amsterdam-London-New York, 1964, p. 35, n° 100.

⁴ EVANS, Frank B.: «Le classement et les instruments de recherche», in *Les Archives*, op. cit., p. 15.

⁵ SCHELLENBERG, Th.: «Programme pour l'établissement d'un service d'archives publiques», in *Manuel d'archivistique tropicale*, publié sous la direction de Yves Pérotin. Paris-La Haye, Mouton & Co., 1966, p. 20.

⁶ FISHBEIN, Meyer H.: «La gestion des documents et le tri», in *Les Archives*, op. cit., p. 12.

employées dans les services d'archives, de leur formation, et, par dessus toute autre considération, de l'immensité de la masse documentaire à traiter. Néanmoins, il est légitime de prévoir, dans un avenir plus ou moins rapproché, une intensification de la collaboration entre archivistes et documentalistes, dans la mesure où le traitement informatisé des données tend à s'imposer comme un phénomène irréversible. Dans tous les cas, les Archives devront rester constituées suivant les principes qui leur sont propres.

Si l'on admet, aujourd'hui, que les Archives publiques ne conservent pas uniquement des documents issus d'organismes officiels, mais également des archives privées, on pourrait percevoir dans cette pratique une concurrence directe entre Archives, Bibliothèques et Musées. Il est vrai que pendant fort longtemps les Archives ont été peu disposées à recevoir ou à solliciter des dons, des legs, des dépôts d'archives privées ou à procéder à l'achat de tels fonds.⁷ A l'heure actuelle encore, certains pays demeurent généralement fidèles à l'idée que cette catégorie de documents est plutôt du ressort des Bibliothèques que des Archives. La plupart, cependant, considèrent de plus en plus que les archives privées relèvent aussi du domaine des Archives en tant que partie du capital historique de la Nation. Cette évolution est particulièrement marquée en France où le législateur, sans remettre en question le droit des Bibliothèques et des Musées de prendre en charge des archives privées, a clairement défini le rôle de l'administration des archives en la matière. Alors que jusqu'à une époque récente la sauvegarde des archives privées tenait peu de place dans la législation archivistique de ce pays, la loi sur les archives du 3 janvier 1979 a consacré seize articles à cette catégorie de documents.⁸ En fait, sur le plan pratique, la tradition régionale doublée d'une politique d'entente entre les institutions concernées semble l'emporter sur la définition de critères rigoureux touchant au lieu de la conservation. En Suisse, par exemple, la Bibliothèque nationale conserve en premier lieu les *manuscripts* de date récente dus à la plume des élites littéraires, politiques et militaires de la Suisse, laissant aux bibliothèques cantonales, municipales ou conventuelles le soin de rassembler les codex du Moyen Age. Certains fonds ont assez d'importance pour former de véritables archives.⁹ Parallèlement, les Archives fédérales conservent des fonds pouvant servir à l'histoire de la Suisse depuis 1798, qu'il s'agisse de fonds déposés, donnés, légués ou acquis d'une autre manière.¹⁰

Les politiques d'acquisition et les pratiques de classement varient énormément suivant les institutions; au reste, ces variations n'existent pas seulement entre Archives, Bibliothèques, Musées et autres centres de recherche¹¹ concernés par l'acquisition des fonds privés, mais également au sein de chaque catégorie, suivant les pays. Le problème se complique encore du fait de la dépendance des institutions face aux donateurs, légataires ou déposants. De la sorte, la codification de principes objectifs se révèle extrêmement difficile.¹² Un minimum de doctrine commune paraît toutefois nécessaire; d'ailleurs, les bibliothécaires et les archivistes s'entendent généralement pour définir un fonds manuscrit comme un tout organique. Dans cette optique, «l'archivistique des manuscrits, c'est donc la discipline qui a pour objet la reconstitution idéale ou matérielle des fonds de manuscrits dispersés, ou la conservation des fonds ayant échappé au

démembrement. Elle doit permettre à l'historien d'étudier non plus des manuscrits isolés, mais des «ensembles» de manuscrits ayant une origine ou une histoire commune, s'expliquant les uns par les autres».¹³ De façon générale, il reste encore un effort à accomplir de la part de toutes les institutions concernées pour qu'elles renoncent à se faire concurrence, de manière à éviter la dispersion de documents émanant d'une même personne, physique ou morale.

La conservation des publications officielles peut constituer un autre élément de concurrence possible entre les divers centres collecteurs. S'agit-il d'objets de bibliothèque ou d'archives imprimées? Pour l'archiviste, elles sont des archives imprimées. En effet, «elles présentent la face visible de ce monde administratif qui reste d'ailleurs dans l'ombre. Elles ont le public pour destinataire; mais (...) elles reflètent les activités d'où procèdent toutes les archives. . . Que les unes relèvent d'un circuit fermé — celui des échanges de bureau à bureau —; qu'elles soient réservées à l'usage interne et ne soient pas dans le commerce; que les autres, au contraire, soient en vente et qu'elles soient, avec les affiches, l'instrument dont dispose le gouvernement pour entrer en contact avec les citoyens: cela ne touche en rien à leur identité de nature. Les Archives et les Bibliothèques en traitent donc avec des titres égaux. Leur dualité de destination ne fait pas argument pour délimiter des compétences antagonistes. Là où les archivistes recueillent des archives, les bibliothécaires recueillent des imprimés. Toute cette documentation se consulte aussi bien chez les uns que chez les autres. . . Et il y a des bienfaits à escompter d'une telle concurrence».¹⁴

Dans les relations des Archives avec les Bibliothèques et les Musées notamment, d'autres problèmes de conservation peuvent être évoqués: collections numismatiques, documents iconographiques, sonores, films, collections de journaux, documents d'archives liés à des fonds muséographiques ou inversement.¹⁵ Comme dans le cas des fonds d'archives privées, les pratiques diffèrent suivant la tradition historique et parfois suivant l'opportunité. Là encore, une politique de compréhension, fondée sur le respect du traitement des témoignages en fonction de leur nature, devrait l'emporter sur des conceptions dogmatiques et unilatérales.

3. L'information, la recherche et le public

Quelle que soit la spécificité des différentes institutions évoquées, elles appartiennent toutes à la même fonction de l'activité humaine: la conservation des témoignages et la diffusion de l'information.¹⁶ Les transformations techniques du XXe siècle, en particulier la révolution des moyens de communication, ont produit deux effets majeurs qui affectent directement les centres collecteurs de témoignages:

- la nécessité d'améliorer la circulation d'une information devenue de plus en plus abondante et de plus en plus complexe;
- le besoin ressenti par les groupes humains de préserver leur identité culturelle.

⁷ Sur cette question, cf. notamment BAUTIER, Robert-Henri: «Les Archives», in *L'histoire et ses méthodes*, publié sous la direction de Charles Samaran. Paris, Gallimard, Encyclopédie de la Pléiade, 1961, p. 1145-1153.

⁸ *Nouveaux textes relatifs aux Archives* (Deuxième édition). Paris, Archives nationales, 1982, p. 7-9.

⁹ *Guide de la Bibliothèque nationale suisse*. Berne, édition française, s.d.

¹⁰ *Règlement pour les Archives fédérales du 15 juillet 1966* (état au 1er octobre 1974), article premier, al. 2, litt. a.

¹¹ Par exemple, les musées-bibliothèques, qui tendent aujourd'hui à se multiplier, agissent de plus en plus comme collecteurs de fonds d'archives.

¹² Sur cette question, voir notamment DACHS, Karl: „Erschließung von Nachlässen unter Verwendung bibliothekarischer und archivischer Methoden“, in *Bibliotheks-Forum Bayern*, Herausgegeben von der Generaldirektion der Bayerischen Staatlichen Bibliotheken. München, K. G. Saur, 1982, Jahrgang 10, I, S. 3-24.

¹³ OUY, Gilbert: «Les Bibliothèques», in *L'histoire et ses méthodes*, op. cit., p. 1091-1092.

¹⁴ GERAUDEL, Pierre: «Les archives imprimées», in *Manuel d'archivistique*, op. cit., p. 503.

¹⁵ La septième Conférence internationale de la Table ronde des Archives a été consacrée aux Archives et à leurs relations avec l'Administration, la Documentation, les Bibliothèques et les Musées. Cf. *Le concept d'archives et les frontières de l'archivistique*. Paris, imprimerie nationale, 1963.

¹⁶ Sur cette question, voir notamment ROGALLA von BIEBERSTEIN, Johannes: *Archiv, Bibliothek und Museum als Dokumentationsbereiche*. Pullach bei München, Verlag Dokumentation, Bibliothekspraxis, Band 16, 1975.

Ces deux effets de la grande mutation de notre siècle ont entraîné l'ensemble des institutions à but culturel et scientifique à repenser leur rôle dans la société. Souvent comparés à des nécropoles ou à des temples de la culture, les offices conservateurs des éléments les plus divers du savoir sont amenés à réagir pour répondre aux sollicitations dont ils font l'objet. Une des réponses perceptibles à l'heure actuelle consiste pour chaque institution à développer une conception expansive de l'activité qui lui est propre.

Les Musées se sont multipliés et diversifiés;¹⁷ ils ne se limitent plus à une présentation classique des grandes oeuvres artistiques et scientifiques; ils sont sortis de leur gant, allant à la rencontre de témoignages de toute nature. Cette volonté d'ouverture les entraîne souvent à devenir de véritables centres culturels, joignant la présentation de leurs collections à une mission éducative, replaçant les objets dans leur contexte historique, suscitant souvent une animation nécessaire à l'accomplissement de leur fonction.

De même, confrontées à une inflation vertigineuse du nombre des publications dans tous les domaines du savoir, les Bibliothèques sont mises à contribution à tous les niveaux, que ce soit par des chercheurs très spécialisés ou, au contraire, par un public de plus en plus diversifié. Pour elles, il s'agit de mettre le livre à portée de tout le monde, en décentralisant les offices de prêt et, surtout, en informatisant les instruments de recherche, de façon à être en mesure de regrouper les données et de les communiquer dans les plus brefs délais possibles.

Tout comme les Bibliothèques, les Archives sont aux prises avec une croissance géométrique de la production documentaire, avec une demande accrue de la part du public et avec la nécessité de répondre à des besoins nouveaux. Sur le plan de la communication, elles tendent également à répondre à ce «défi»¹⁸, par le développement de leurs fonctions scientifiques, culturelles, voire didactiques et éducatives, ainsi par une politique active de publications (instruments de travail, sources, études), par la réalisation d'expositions, par l'organisation de colloques ou de séminaires de recherche.

En ce qui touche à l'information directe des chercheurs, les Archives sont placées devant deux types d'exigences apparemment contradictoires. D'une part, la conception du document d'archives s'est élargie; elle implique désormais de nouvelles lectures, de nouvelles interrogations des documents écrits traditionnels, ainsi qu'une extension des sources au domaine non écrit. «Au document rare, unique et «curieux» qui occupait naguère le sommet d'une hiérarchie implicite, se sont substituées des sources massives, portées au pouvoir par la révolution économique et sociale».¹⁹ Sous l'empire de la nécessité imposée par l'offre et la demande documentaires, il s'est révélé indispensable de prendre en considération de façon globale des ensembles de documents, en créant des instruments de travail favorisant le général aux dépens de l'individuel et la série face à la pièce unique. D'autre part, on sait que les fonds d'archives sont susceptibles de contenir des pièces les plus diverses, dont la potentialité informative est liée à un traitement adéquat exigé par des supports documentaires variés. Mêlée à des ensembles gigantesques et complexes, cette information risque, dans une très large mesure, d'échapper à la connaissance de l'archiviste et, a fortiori, à celle du chercheur. Actuellement, il n'est possible de faire face à ce type de défi qu'en faisant recours à l'informatique, recours qui se révèle toutefois très difficile à pratiquer sur des ensembles de documents dont le nombre

tend vers l'infini. Pour bénéficier de l'appui de l'informatique, il faut au préalable être en mesure de maîtriser tous les problèmes relevant de la réception, du tri et du classement des fonds.

Ces constatations conduisent logiquement à une conclusion impérieuse: la nécessité de la collaboration. Cette nécessité s'impose tout d'abord à chaque profession. Dans toutes les branches, des associations existent aux niveaux régional, national et international. Désormais, la collaboration doit s'étendre à l'ensemble des activités évoquées. Puisqu'il existe de nombreux types de témoignages conservés aussi bien dans les Archives, dans les Bibliothèques, dans les Musées et dans les Centres de documentation, il paraît évident que le personnel de ces institutions doit être en mesure de les traiter. Il peut également participer à des expériences communes, par exemple lors de la réalisation d'expositions. Sous l'égide de l'UNESCO et des différentes organisations internationales non gouvernementales (CIA, IFLA, FID, ICOM), l'idée d'une formation commune aux professionnels des diverses institutions prend corps. En 1974 déjà, la Conférence intergouvernementale des infrastructures nationales en matière de documentation, de bibliothèques et d'archives évoquait la nécessité d'un «tronc commun», permettant aux étudiants se destinant à l'une des activités d'acquérir des connaissances de base minimales dans les autres spécialités.²⁰ La réunion de la FID, du CIA et de l'IFLA tenue à Bellagio, en mai 1980, a également évoqué cette nécessité, dont une des dominantes est le besoin commun aux différentes activités de développer l'utilisation de l'informatique. En elles-mêmes, des réunions de travail comme celle de Bellagio témoignent d'un rapprochement entre les divers réseaux d'information, permettant de prendre conscience de l'existence de plusieurs problèmes communs: entre autres, le traitement du matériel audio-visuel, des archives privées, des microformes, des techniques de reprographie et de restauration, de questions relevant de la gestion, de la terminologie, voire du droit.²¹

Dans l'intérêt général, il est à souhaiter que cet esprit de collaboration se développe. Il permettra à chacun de bénéficier de l'expérience de l'autre; il servira à affaiblir les barrières psychologiques encore trop répandues entre les corps professionnels; il contribuera à répondre aux exigences du public, ce qui est en définitive le but premier des institutions chargées d'assurer la conservation des témoignages et de diffuser l'information.

Oscar GAUYE
Directeur des Archives fédérales suisses
Ancien Président du Conseil international
des Archives

¹⁷ Voir dans ce volume d'*Archivum*, la communication de BOYLAN, Patrick J.: "Museums and Archives in the contemporary world".

¹⁸ «Le défi aux Archives: responsabilités accrues et ressources limitées» est le thème du dixième Congrès international des Archives qui se tiendra à Bonn en septembre 1984.

¹⁹ HILDESHEIMER, Françoise: «Inventaires d'archives et recherche historique», in *La Gazette des Archives*, 2e et 3e trimestres 1982, p. 71.

²⁰ Cf. *Document de travail*. Paris, Unesco, 1974, pp. 46-48.

²¹ Cf. FID/ICA/IFLA: *Report on joint policy meeting held at the Rockefeller Study and Conference Centre, villa Serbelloni, Bellagio, Italy, 6-9 May 1980*, dactyl.

ENGLISH ABSTRACT

The specificity of Archives and their convergence with Libraries, Museums, and Documentation Centres

Collecting centres of the evidence of human activity, organisations responsible for the preservation of this evidence and the dissemination of information, archives, libraries, museums and documentation centres are at one and the same time specific yet complementary institutions. Specific? Each of these institutions has a field of activity, a conception of its rôle in society and its own practices. Nevertheless, linked to a common objective, this institutional specificity can only be understood against a perspective of complementarity, so true is it that the very idea of culture implies a comprehensive reconstruction of the history of mankind.

This contribution does not aim at exhausting the subject, at dealing with it in detail nor at considering all those areas of interaction which directly affect relations between the organisations concerned. In the first part, it defines the scope of archives, the nature of documents, commonly accepted archival practices and the basic characteristics of archival operations. The second part deals with the archival approach to the preservation of evidence as compared to the other three types of institution. It is particularly evident that it is not so much the physical characteristics of the objects preserved as the method of preservation of their informational content which distinguishes archives, libraries, museums and documentation centres. Indeed, if the traditions of each profession allied to a policy of agreement between these institutions seems to prevail over the definition of strict criteria as to the place of conservation of evidence, this is less evident, on the other hand, in so far as the processing of this evidence is concerned. On this point, however, dogmatic unilateral conceptions ought equally to give way to a policy of comprehension based on respect for the processing of evidence based upon its nature.

The third part of the article shows that archives, libraries, museums and documentation centres have better things to do than to raise barriers between each other. Indeed, at the present time, the necessity of improving the dissemination of information, becoming more and more abundant and complex, is being forced upon them. It is also essential that they satisfy the need felt by many groups to preserve their cultural heritage.

These two major results of the great changes of our century have compelled all cultural and academic institutions to re-think their rôle in society. One of the clearly discernible contemporary reactions is the tendency for each institution to develop a broader conception of its proper function. The conception, moreover, demands close collaboration within each profession and between them all. UNESCO has already underlined this need. The meeting between FID, ICA and IFLA held in Bellagio in 1980 echoed this view. Working meetings such as that at Bellagio make it possible for the institutions involved to become aware of common problems: amongst others, use of electronic data processing, processing of audio-visual materials, private archives, microforms, techniques of reprography and restoration, management problems, terminology, law even.

In the general interest, it is to be hoped that this spirit of collaboration grows. It will allow each to benefit from the experience of the other; it will serve to weaken the already too prevalent psychological barriers between professional bodies; it will contribute to meeting public demand, which finally is the aim of institutions responsible for the preservation of evidence and the dissemination of information.

DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Die Eigentümlichkeit der Archive und ihr Zusammenwirken mit den Bibliotheken, Museen und Dokumentationszentren

Als Aufbewahrungsorte der Zeugnisse menschlicher Tätigkeit, als Institutionen zur Sicherung, Erschließung und Verbreitung solcher Zeugnisse und Informationen sind Archive, Bibliotheken, Museen und Dokumentationsstellen spezifische und zugleich einander ergänzende Einrichtungen. Inwiefern spezifisch? Jede dieser Institutionen hat ihr Tätigkeitsfeld, ihr Selbstverständnis als gesellschaftliche Einrichtung und ihre eigene Praxis. Im Hinblick auf die gemeinsame Zielsetzung müssen aber diese Besonderheiten aus der Perspektive der gegenseitigen Ergänzung verstanden werden, umso mehr, als schon nur der Begriff der Kultur den Willen zu einer Dokumentation und Rekonstruktion der Menschheitsgeschichte impliziert.

Dieser Aufsatz beabsichtigt weder eine erschöpfende Behandlung des Gegenstandes noch eine Aufzählung aller Besonderheiten und Überschneidungen, welche direkt die Beziehungen zwischen den genannten Institutionen betreffen. In einem ersten Teil definiert er den Aufgabenbereich und die wichtigsten Funktionen der Archive sowie die archivischen Quellen und die allgemein anerkannten Grundsätze archivarischer Tätigkeit. Ein zweiter Teil grenzt das Archiv in bezug auf die Aufbewahrung historischer Zeugnisse und Quellen von den drei andern Institutionen ab. Dabei kommt insbesondere zum Ausdruck, daß es nicht so sehr der materielle Charakter der aufbewahrten Objekte, sondern vielmehr die Methode der Informations-Aufbewahrung und -Verarbeitung ist, welche die Archive von Bibliotheken, Museen und Dokumentationsstellen unterscheidet. Während in bezug auf den Aufbewahrungsort regionale Traditionen und Vereinbarungen zwischen den genannten Institutionen wichtiger zu sein scheinen als rigorose Begriffskriterien, ist dies für die Behandlung der Quellen und Zeugnisse offensichtlich weniger der Fall. Auch in dieser Hinsicht sollten jedoch einseitige und dogmatische Konzeptionen einer Politik der Verständigung Platz machen, die berücksichtigt, daß die Verarbeitung der Quellen gemäß deren Eigenschaften erfolgt.

Der dritte Teil des Aufsatzes zeigt, daß die Archive, Bibliotheken, Museen und Dokumentationsstellen Wichtigeres zu tun haben als Barrieren zwischen sich aufzurichten. Mehr denn je besteht heute die Notwendigkeit, die Kommunikation immer umfangreicherer und immer komplexerer Informationen zu verbessern. Auch obliegt den genannten Institutionen die Verpflichtung, die Bedürfnisse der menschlichen Gruppen und Gemeinschaften nach Bewahrung ihrer kulturellen Identität zu erfüllen. Diese beiden Folgen der tiefgreifenden Veränderungen unseres Jahrhunderts haben die Gesamtheit der kulturell und wissenschaftlich ausgerichteten Institutionen veranlaßt, ihre Rolle in der Gesellschaft zu überdenken. Eine der heute wahrnehmbaren Antworten besteht darin, daß jede Institution eine Konzeption zur Ausdehnung ihrer eigenständigen Tätigkeit entwickelt. Diese Konzeption erfordert jedoch eine enge Zusammenarbeit innerhalb und zwischen den Berufsgattungen.

Die UNESCO hat diese Notwendigkeit bereits betont. Die 1980 in Bellagio versammelten Vertreter der FID, des CIA und der IFLA haben sich im gleichen Sinne ausgesprochen. Arbeitstagungen wie diejenige von Bellagio erlauben es den betroffenen Institutionen, gemeinsame Probleme zu erkennen und anzupacken: zum Beispiel die Anwendung der Elektronischen Datenverarbeitung, die Behandlung des audio-visuellen Materials, der Privatnachsätze und der Mikroformen, die verschiedenen Techniken der Reprographie und Restauration, Fragen der Verwaltung, der Terminologie und des Rechts.

Es ist im allgemeinen Interesse zu wünschen, daß sich dieser Geist der Zusammenarbeit weiterentwickelt. Er wird nicht nur die immer noch zu weit verbreiteten psychologischen Barrieren zwischen den Berufsgruppen abzubauen helfen, sondern auch jedem Einzelnen erlauben, von der Erfahrung des andern zu profitieren. Er wird dazu beitragen, den Anforderungen der Öffentlichkeit gerecht zu werden, was ja wohl letztlich das Ziel aller Institutionen ist, die mit der Aufbewahrung und Verbreitung von Informationen beauftragt sind.

RESUMEN ESPAÑOL

La especificidad de los Archivos y su convergencia con las Bibliotecas, los Museos y los Centros de Documentación

Centros que recojan testimonios de la actividad humana, organismos encargados de asegurar la conservación de estos testimonios y la difusión de la información, los Archivos, las Bibliotecas, los Museos y los Centros de Documentación son, a la vez, instituciones específicas y complementarias. ¿Específicas?. Cada una de estas instituciones posee un campo de actividades, una concepción de su papel en la sociedad y un desarrollo de la práctica que les son propias. Al menos, con una finalidad común, esta función específica institucional no se puede concebir más que dentro de una perspectiva de complementariedad, y esto es tan cierto que la misma noción de cultura implica una voluntad de reconstitución global de la historia del hombre.

Esta comunicación no intenta agotar el objetivo, ni evocar todas las particularidades, todas las zonas de la interferencia que atañen directamente a las relaciones entre los organismos de qué tratamos. En una primera parte es preciso hablar del dominio de los Archivos, de la naturaleza de los documentos, de la práctica archivística comunmente admitida y de las características fundamentales de la función archivística. En una segunda parte se coloca a los Archivos en relación con las otras tres grandes instituciones en lo que afecta a la conservación de testimonios. Está claro que esto no afecta tanto a la naturaleza material del objeto conservado, como al método de conservación de las informaciones que distingue a los archivos de las Bibliotecas, de los Museos y de los Centros de Documentación. En efecto, si la tradición regional doblada de una política de buenas relaciones entre estas instituciones parece que predomina sobre la definición de criterios rigurosos con respecto al lugar de la conservación de testimonios, ésto es menos evidente, por el contrario, en lo que se refiere al tratamiento de estos testimonios. Sobre este punto, sin embargo, las concepciones dogmáticas y unilaterales deberán igualmente dar lugar a una política de comprensión, fundada en el respeto al trato de los testimonios en función de su naturaleza.

La tercera parte del artículo muestra que los Archivos, las Bibliotecas, los Museos y los Centros de Documentación, tienen mucho más que hacer que poner barreras entre ellos. En el momento actual, en efecto, se impone la necesidad de mejorar entre ellos la circulación de una información cada vez más abundante y compleja. Les importa, asimismo, satisfacer la necesidad sentida por grupos humanos con el fin de conservar su identidad cultural. Estas dos consecuencias, tan importantes de la gran mutación de nuestro siglo, han arrastrado el conjunto de instituciones con fines culturales y científicos para plantear de nuevo su papel en la sociedad. Una de las respuestas perceptibles a la

hora actual consiste, para cada institución, en desarrollar una concepción expansiva de la actividad que le es propia. Esta concepción exige, sin embargo, una colaboración estrecha en el seno de cada profesión y entre ellas. La UNESCO, ya ha subrayado esta necesidad.

La reunión de la FID, del CIA, y de la IFLA, que tuvo lugar en Bellagio en el año 1980, se manifestó en el mismo sentido. Las reuniones de trabajo como la de Bellagio permiten a las instituciones correspondientes tomar consciencia de los problemas comunes: entre otros, la utilización de la informática, el tratamiento del material audiovisual de los archivos privados, de los microfilmes, de las técnicas de reprografía y de restauración, de cuestiones relativas a la gestión, de la terminología, incluso del derecho.

Con carácter general, debe desearse que este espíritu de colaboración se desarrolle. Ello permitirá a cada uno de los beneficiarse de la experiencia del otro; servirá para desvanecer las barreras psicológicas, aún demasiado extendidas, entre los cuerpos profesionales; contribuirá a responder a las exigencias del público: lo que es en definitiva la finalidad de las instituciones encargadas de asegurar la conservación de testimonios y de difundir la información.

RELATIONS BETWEEN ARCHIVES AND LIBRARIES

"*relation*: . . . that feature or attribute of things which is involved in considering them in comparison or context with each other . . . any connexion, correspondence, or association which can be considered as existing naturally between things . . . kinship . . . the various modes in which one country, state, etc. is brought into contact with another by political or commercial interests" (*Shorter Oxford dictionary* . . . revised and edited by C.T. Onions. Oxford, Clarendon press, 1935, 2 vols.)

No one reading the title of this paper will expect to encounter new facts or discoveries. Owing to ignorance this article is mainly based on Anglo-Saxon sources and experience and the author apologises in advance to readers for the lack of time which has meant that he has not been able to consult all relevant printed sources. The general territory is well mapped — although perhaps little explored — so that it is more profitable to pursue a review of the main issues, rather than a detailed explication of any one¹.

The fact that, in the period before the introduction of printing by moveable or other types, archives are of greater antiquity than libraries is common ground. Archives consisting of clay tablets, metal plates, paper, papyrus and other durable materials embody the records of national, tribal, religious, chronological, administrative, regal and other proceedings. Such archives are almost always of an official character, although ancient commercial archives are not unknown. With the spread of literacy and the diversity of writing materials and implements libraries were also established. Relationships between archives and libraries in classical times were close, literary and philosophical texts frequently being shelved and kept together, sharing common custody and available to the same readership.

Similarly in mediaeval Europe examination of religious and monastic libraries and archives leads to a similar conclusion until the Renaissance, when the growth of literacy and scholarship outside the clerical classes and the rise of reading for pleasure as well as utility encourages a division between the official archives of states, religious and business concerns and the libraries of literary, philosophical and historical texts meant for scholarly endeavour. This division is accentuated by the invention of printing and the increased availability of paper as a cheap medium for the printing press. The older archives continue to contain the accruing records of official business in the institutions they serve, but libraries whether official or private serve a more diffuse and multifarious set of purposes. The archivist tends to be a member of the secretariat of the institution, whereas the librarian, from the seventeenth century onwards, is generally assumed to be a poor scholar.

¹ The most recent review is contained in *Archive-library relations*, edited by Robert L. Clark (New York, R.R. Bowker, 1976) which has an excellent annotated bibliography, p. 199-212. A few more references can be gleaned from M. Duchéin's "Basic international bibliography of archive administration" *Archivum*, XXV (1978), and *The history of archives administration: a select bibliography*, by F.B. Evans (Paris, UNESCO, 1979), p. 32-3.

The advent of the industrial revolution at the beginning of the nineteenth century demanded the creation of a literate working population and led to the foundation of western national education systems and the establishment of numerous popular public libraries which in turn demanded the services of skilled, trained librarians, a development marked by the foundation of the American Library Association in 1876 and the (British) Library Association the following year. Associations of practising librarians were found in many countries and the numbers of qualified librarians grew rapidly. Archivists continued meanwhile as before and it is only with the growth of modern administrations, both official and unofficial, that the increasing volume of paper has demanded and seen practising archivists recognised as a separate category of employment.

Following French initiatives in the systematic study of palaeography, diplomatic and archives at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the foundations of modern archival studies and practice can be said to have been systematically propagated by Sir Hilary Jenkinson in the period following the first World War, culminating in the foundation of a course of systematic training and lectures at University College, University of London, in 1926. The avalanche of paper produced by modern governments ensured a demand for trained, practising archivists from the archives which proliferated following World War II. But professional associations for archivists were slow in arriving and although the first, the Vereeniging van Archivarissen was founded in 1881², the Society of American Archivists did not exist until 1936 and the Society of Archivists until 1946.

Both librarians and archivists like to consider themselves as members of "professional" occupations, but a sociological comparison of characteristics with the generally recognised professions such as law, medicine, and the church shows that in certain traits they are not positively identified as *true professionals*; eg. both lack a secure core of professional theory and ethical teaching; both lack control of entry to the job; both lack control over the training for and content of the professional curriculum; and both are characterised in the eyes of the general public and users by low status and low financial rewards for employment; and each, consequently, is sometimes seen to be jealous of the other's role and protective towards his own³. (The popular image of the librarian as a spinster lady in spectacles perpetually saying "Hush!", and of the dusty, ivy-covered archivist in his ivy-covered walls are both remarkably long-lasting, even if exceptions prove the rule). J.L. Borges's modern parable on the library with its perceptive interpretation of the librarian's role is equally applicable to that of the archivist.

Thus far as preamble. Let us now turn to consider the different roles of archives and libraries and their relationship to each other. Archives are the records or documents accumulated by natural process of administration or conduct of affairs of any kind, official or non-official, and preserved for subsequent reference by the persons responsible or their successors — to adapt a definition proposed by Jenkinson. The cultural role in society of the archives is by this definition of less significance than the creation and preservation of the records, but clearly the survival of archives and records is a factor of

² And produced the first modern systematic treatise on archive administration *Handleiding voor het Ordenen en Beschrijven van Archieven*, by S. Muller, J.A. Feith and R. Fruin (1898).

³ Almost all western developed countries have endured these disagreements. In the United Kingdom there is an example in the editorial "Too many repositories", *Archives*, VII (1966), 133-4 and ensuing correspondence; in Australia Phyllis Mander Jones rehearses some past history in "Archivists and the Association", *Australian library journal*, I (April 1952), 76-81; and W.F. Birdsall does the same in his "Archivists, libraries and issues during the pioneering era of the American archival movement", *Journal of library history*, XIV (Fall 1979), 457-79. The most violent recent outbreak of such issues seems to be in Canada, but the most serious examination of such issues is perhaps F.W. Ratcliffe's "Archival responsibilities of university libraries" *Journal of librarianship*, XII (1980), 71-83, and R.F. Dell's "Dear Librarian: a letter from an archivist", *S.L.A. News*, 150 (March 1979), 267-70, the most amusing.

immense cultural and historical significance. (Unless of course, the archives are closed, lost, or otherwise not available). The mission of such accumulations will be to provide, through the aid of trained professional archivists, factual information, historical precedent, and negative guidance for future courses of action, i.e. what not to do since it has already been tried and failed. There is also a covert educational function to train administrators, staff, scholars and others in the use of archivally stored information.

The role of libraries is perhaps less easy to define but they exist to store recorded information, organise it and make it available to those able and authorised to use it. The role of the librarian is succinctly expressed by Ranganathan as "To every reader his book; to every book its reader"; a matching or catalytic function. There is also again the unexpressed function to educate and train users in the use of the information stored in libraries. Expressed in this fashion the similarities between the two are more notable than the differences: both store, record and make available information; both archivists and librarians share an intermediary as well as custodial role; and both have a training function for users. The general public will have difficulty in distinguishing any difference between the two, and it is probably worth pointing out that a brief analysis of the mission of museums will demonstrate a similar cognate role in society. Obviously a number of aspects of the cultural mission of archives, libraries and museums are common, and all share a positive educational role vis-à-vis potential users.

Constitutional basis

The constitutional or jurisdictional basis of most archives is by definition simple: they 'belong' to and accrue from government, central, local or city or other official bodies. Non-official archives, such as those of religious bodies, commercial archives such as those of large corporations and businesses, just as clearly belong to those bodies and all are governed and ruled by the statutes or guidance provided by the parent body. The position in regard to libraries is often less straightforward as their establishment may be the result of official action, but the growth, use and maintenance of the collections are usually matters of conscious direction and subsequent policy laid down either by the parent institution itself, by the managing authority or the librarian curators. Again the points of similarity are obvious and a national archive responsible for the custody, care and making available of the records of governmental administration will have much in common with a national library entitled to legal deposit and responsible for the custody, care and making available of a country's national printed record. It is also perhaps worth noting that these similarities of responsibility, jurisdictional and constitutional basis have frequently led governments to place these national institutions under the same ministry or government department⁴. (However the legal responsibilities of the national archives often result in its being assigned to a constitutional or legal department of state, and the libraries to a cultural or educational ministry). Assignment to different ministries in a governmental structure usually impedes communication and co-operation between national archives and national library, and although the tasks of each are unique there is a degree of overlap both in material to be collected, listed, preserved and made available, and also not least in readership. The principal users of an archive will be the servants of the institution whose records it preserves, but once records lose their active life or the institution itself is superseded or abolished, then they become the preserve of

⁴ B.G. Alegbeleye argues briefly and not very convincingly for this in "The role of archivists and librarians", *Archives and manuscripts*, VII (1978), 110-14.

scholarship and above all of historians who normally form one of the largest sections of the patrons of national libraries. In any consideration of the role and mission of archives and libraries it is important to consider the patrons' point of view.

Theoretical differences between libraries and archives have been considered and expressed by Jenkinson and Schellenberg⁵, but such definitions need continual re-examination and assessment, for in the age of the data bank held in binary form on magnetic tape there is, in practice, little difference for the reader, the archivist or the librarian in what happens when an institution stores and makes available, for example, the data gleaned from the US Census which is only available in that form. Now that devolved computer networks exist which can amend on-line data stored in a unique location archival principles need to be constantly taken out, dusted and measured up against new tasks and responsibilities. Computerised data storage has already destroyed most librarians' ideas of subject classification, and cataloguing codes — the foundation of much library method — are under strain in dealing with the idea of multiple access to data in place of the Anglo-American concept of unique author entry.

Materials

Archives and libraries share common problems in the materials they deal with and both are only now beginning fully to realise the formidable tasks ahead. Both deal with paper, parchment, leather, cloth, and other organic materials; and the increasingly rapid growth of data processing faces both with problems of preserving new inorganic materials, in addition to the older gold, silver and copper plates. Preservation, including conservation, is a problem linking both disciplines but since archivists have traditionally led the way in this field, for librarians the relationship will often be one of dependence.

Archival concepts of records management, increasingly important in coping with the paper flood of modern administrative processes⁶, impose on archivists (since they discard irrevocably some documents) a heavy burden of responsibility for the preservation in perpetuity of the selected residue. Librarians dealing as they usually do with replicated printed texts have traditionally adopted a more cavalier attitude to the use and survival of any one particular item. However the self-destructive nature of much modern paper has jolted librarians into facing a problem archivists are better prepared to face. Users also are being brought sharply against it when they are refused access to documents, records or books 'for conservation reasons', and such cases will increase in the future.

In dealing with materials before 1800, the problems encountered by archivists and librarians become increasingly similar as library collections of books prior to this date gradually become more archival in character and studied not for what they contain but for what they are (cf. the recent growth in the study of library history). In dealing with very modern materials stored in archives and libraries (eg. magnetic tape, chromium tape, audio tape, photographic materials, and videodiscs) both archivists and librarians need each other's help in investigating, understanding and, if possible, standardizing the physical properties of storage media so that they will survive to hand on the knowledge contained in and on them to future generations.

⁵ Sir Hilary Jenkinson, "The English archivist: a new profession" in *Selected writings* . . . (Gloucester, Alan Sutton, 1980), p. 236-59; T.R. Schellenberg, *Modern archives* . . . (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1956), p. 17-25.

⁶ Although M. Doyle, "Peut-on croire sérieusement à l'interdépendance des archives et de la gestion des documents en Amérique du Nord?" *Archives* (Quebec), XII (Mars 1981), 77-82, believes that the two are separate disciplines.

Methodology

Traditionally archivists have organised materials in their care by administrative units, arranging the records by historical accretion rather like building a pearl round a grain of sand in an oyster. Such a system permits the comprehension of the organic growth and history of each administrative unit, but does not usually facilitate ready access to individual units of information or recorded fact stored within the records. Handlists and indexes usually exist to help users over this difficulty.

Librarians in the last 150 years arranged the books in their care by some form of subject classification on the shelf. (From ancient times up to the nineteenth century books were generally shelved by size. Large books generally dealt with serious subjects, eg. theology printed in folio, and small books topics of lighter scholarly worth and imaginative literature. Similarly the physical form of mediaeval archives often reflected the importance of the records or transactions contained in them.) Modern libraries which house not only books, but pamphlets, graphic, audio and other materials have found subject arrangement on the shelf difficult and for many readers unusable. The recent exponential growth in the size of library collections has also brought with it a retreat from the doctrine of 'open access' for patrons, and a growing interest in the techniques and methods of computerised subject indexing.

Both archivists and librarians are tending to look towards the computer to solve these cognate problems, which require philosophical knowledge and technical expertise in the construction of so-called 'thesauri', or guides for building stores of recorded knowledge within artificial machine intelligences. Those so far devised are crude in the extreme, even when compared with a sophisticated system of subject headings for library use, but they offer the possibility of multiple points of access for users. Both archivists and librarians have relations to this developing field of information engineering and co-operation will without doubt be mutually profitable.

Modern professional literature for archivists and librarians has tended to emphasise the differences in methodology between the two, partly to lay stress on the unique character and value each contributes, but this emphasis on difference is not shared by patrons who tend to regard both archivists and librarians as Janus-faces of the same trade. UNESCO with its *General Information Programme* (GIP) lays stress on this approach, treating both libraries and archives as facets of the general store of information to be preserved and made available for public benefit.

Personnel

It is in the field of personnel that relations between archives and libraries can be said to be closest. Recruitment tends to draw on the same sources, although there is not perhaps sufficient spread of recruits from engineers, physicists and the like. The preconceived image of both archivists and librarians tends to ensure a self-replacing flow of historians, litterateurs and scholars from the humanities. This can be dangerous and every senior archivist and librarian will be familiar with the approach from the university colleague saying about a candidate for a post "Unfortunately he failed to get a very good degree, but he is very quiet and agreeable and will make a firstclass archivist/librarian". Unfortunately in today's hurly-burly world of PPBS, computer technology, trade union and man management, with the emphasis on the so-called higher management techniques, failed characters from academe are even more likely to fail in modern archives and

libraries. Successful practitioners need to be well-educated, adaptable, persevering, the possessors of a smattering of management and computer knowledge, great sympathy with current trends of academic research, plus a good deal of tact and low cunning. (Librarians have usually proved to be better at organising lobbies to support their proposals and this is something archivists need to acquire).

Formal relations between professional bodies of archivists and libraries are not common. The American Library Association formed its Committee on Archive/Library Relations in 1937 and it did good work up to the entry of the USA in World War II⁷. In the United Kingdom there has been a Joint Committee of the Library Association, the Society of Archivists, ASLIB, the Standing Conference of National and University Libraries (SCONUL), and the Institute of Information Scientists for some time past but it has not been overly productive, and when it tried recently to approve a joint statement on archives and manuscripts there was a disagreement between the Society of Archivists and SCONUL on whether university libraries were fitting repositories for archives and whether libraries should actively seek to attract and acquire archival resources without proper accommodation and facilities⁸. Such disagreements are essentially unprofitable and do no good for the image of archivists or librarians, the general public regarding such as domestic or kitchen quarrels. This particular instance being an echo of the 'custody' or 'quality' question in relation to archives.

Training and education

Relations between archives and libraries seem to touch their nadir when it comes to questions of education and training and similar topics in the field of professional development. Contributions dealing with these questions, particularly in the North American literature and especially in Canada⁹, are full of vehement opinion, mainly on the topic of whether training for archivists should be carried out in schools of librarianship or elsewhere. It seems reasonably clear that the training for each discipline should be distinct and carried out by professional teachers in each field. Nevertheless there are overlapping areas of concern as have already been indicated previously in this article: both will need to deal with problems of conservation and preservation, including the proper housing and storage of materials; both should have some introduction to management and computing techniques; the operation of public services; and it may be that certain specialist techniques, subject indexing and palaeography for example, might be offered equally as an option to both trainee librarians and archivists. Both, when qualified and practising, will be part of the national infrastructure of information storage and provision, and since this is so a single school of archive, library and information studies within a university faculty seems the most appropriate vehicle for initial training, accompanied or followed by a period of practical in-service experience under qualified supervision. Specialist teaching in subjects like administrative or other history can always

⁷ American Library Association, Committee on Archives and Libraries. *Archives and libraries . . . Papers presented at the 1937 Conference . . .* ed. by A.F. Kuhlmann (Chicago, ALA, 1937) with similar volumes for the two following years 1938 and 1939.

⁸ The joint committee produced a previous agreed statement "The place of archives and manuscripts in the field of librarianship" in 1969, *Library Association Record*, LXXI (January 1969), 15, and *Archives*, IX (1969), 40-1. The issue of the revised statement caused dissension and is commented on by F.W. Ratcliffe *op.cit.*

⁹ I.C. Ross. "Library-archive relations: the question of education", *Canadian Library Journal*, XXXVII (February 1980), 39-44 describes an exemplary case.

The future

be offered in conjunction with another appropriate department. That having been said it is clear that there have been difficulties in establishing such schools in North America. However it seems that gradually some library schools are coming round to this view and the University of London School of Librarianship and Archives was re-named School of Library, Archive and Information Studies, while similar name changes have taken place at Sheffield University and the Drexel Institute. The *UNESCO bulletin for libraries* has been comprehensively re-named and the general trend seems to be toward convergence in information studies rather than an insistence on the separateness of the individual disciplines and tasks. (It may well be anyway that different models are appropriate for different countries in various stages of development and it would be quite wrong to assume that western models of library, archive and information work are to be blindly followed in all situations)¹⁰.

Each discipline has to identify a core curriculum of studies necessary for the education of all entrants and this has proved more difficult than at first sight might have seemed likely. Modern developments have assumed undue prominence in the curricula of certain schools to the detriment of basic training. (Librarians are notoriously gadget-happy and embrace with more enthusiasm than balance modern mechanical marvels). Archival training has also had to accommodate the rapid rise in importance of the concept of 'records management', a concept of little significance for archivists prior to the World War II, but which now assumes almost overriding importance. Practising archivists and librarians of reputation and experience have a duty continually to reflect on their responsibilities towards the materials they keep and make available, and towards the patrons they serve. Constant re-evaluation and reflection will be necessary to produce a body of doctrine, ethics and practice which will denote true professional status. And they can do it better in consultation with each other than sitting in separate councils and acting alone. One particular aspect of the work of archivists and librarians appears to have been neglected and that is the active development of work with users and the general public. It has previously been assumed that the general public and political administrations will continue to regard both libraries and archives as worthwhile, beneficent cultural bodies, for which financial support should unquestioningly be provided. This no longer applies and it behoves both to study a more overt educational role in society. Librarians have traditionally undertaken extra-mural educational functions, archivists may find it more difficult since they have usually adopted a more passive role in relations to their authorised users. Some emphasis on this expanded role in preparing new entrants to both professions will be prudent during their initial training.

The practitioners' associations in both professions must take a more active and positive part in regulating the education of entrants to their ranks. This can be done in association with the universities or colleges that mount the actual training courses by participation on curriculum or examination boards; by the sponsorship of week-end or short training courses for exchange-of-experience seminars or refresher training; by programmes of active professional discussion; and by generally assuming a supervisory and consultative role on all developments in connection with professional education for archivists and librarians. Liaison between archive and library professional associations on matters of training in each country and internationally is equally important. Active professional associations in every country should always be associated with the validation of professional qualifications and in questions involving the rights of properly qualified entrants to practice their trade. Training and education provide one of the cornerstones to proper professional practice and recognition in any profession.

¹⁰ In this context see Abdul Aziz bin Shaik Mydin, "Archives-library relationships and their educational implications with a note on implications for Southeast Asia", *Southeast Asian Archives*, IV (July 1971), 44-55.

I have already indicated that it is important in my view for both archives and libraries to work together more closely in the future since they share a similar cultural mission which is likely to become more important¹¹. Certain areas of concern overlap and in a number of instances methods and practices will almost certainly appear identical (eg. in storage and access policies in regard to information stored by automatic data processes). When considering the materials both house, store and make available there is ground for co-operation, and in considering public services, access policies, management methods and extra-mural educational work among patrons both have much to learn from each other. In preservation and conservation work the archivists can teach the librarians, and the librarians are now willing to learn.

Both professions need continually to keep under discussion and active review their standards of professional ethics and conduct: first, in relation to the materials for which they are responsible and have to preserve for future generations; and second, in relation to their fellow-citizens and society as custodians of knowledge with a duty to make it available to others for mutual benefit. (Recent discussion in the west has tended to concentrate on freedom of information and the debate has been characteristically political and heated. Previous generations, particularly of librarians, have usually been pre-occupied with questions of censorship, which led librarians acting as book-selection staff to arrive at a definition of their attitudes, in searching for ideal books to add to libraries, as "No politics, no religion, no sex". Is this still a viable creed for professional archivists and librarians?) We are the keepers of our own professional consciences and must continually be questioning them in relation to our duties and responsibilities.

Lastly, it is necessary to establish in each country, where it does not already exist, a formal committee or machinery to co-ordinate the individual roles of archives, libraries and, ideally, museums and other bodies, in the storage and provision of information. UNESCO, with its General Information Programme has already given the lead internationally, but individual countries have often been slow to follow up its initiative, and this can only be a matter for regret. However the increasing cost of such services and, in a depressed economy, the importance of information storage and services for economic health should soon see to it that laggard countries quickly realise the importance of the matter. Good relations and co-operation between archives and libraries at all levels will bring about the foundation of such national councils much more speedily and effectively. If libraries and archives do not co-operate and co-ordinate their peculiar roles in the future storage and provision of information authorities and users of all kinds will not lightly forgive the archivists and librarians responsible for administering these immensely important cultural institutions.

B.C. BLOOMFIELD

Director of the India Office Library and Records
Keeper of the Department of Oriental Printed
Books and Manuscripts, British Library

¹¹ Similar views are expressed by H.J. Barrington Nevitt, "Archivist and comprehensivist", *Argus*, X (May/June-July 1981), 65, 67-8, 70; J. von Biberstein, "Informationsversorgung am Ort: Bibliothek und Archiv", *Mitteilungsblatt Verband der Bibliotheken des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen*, XXVI (March 1976), 21-31; L.Q. Mumford, "Archivists and libraries: time for a new look", *American Archivist*, XXXIII (July 1970), 269-74; N.E. Pearce and N.F. Chudacoff, "Archivists and librarians: a common mission, a common education", *American Archivist*, XLII (October 1979), 456-62; A. Petrucci, "Archives and libraries: possibilities for co-operation", *Unesco bulletin for libraries*, XX (March/April 1966), 65-70; and F. Ranger, "The common pursuit", *Archives* IX (1970), 121-9.

RÉSUMÉ FRANÇAIS

Relations entre Bibliothèques et Archives

Cet article tente tout d'abord d'expliquer brièvement l'arrière-plan historique de la croissance des archives et des bibliothèques modernes et des personnels spécialisés employés dans leur fonctionnement, en commençant par l'antiquité, le moyen âge et les débuts de l'ère moderne, jusqu'à la révolution industrielle qui a rendu nécessaire un personnel intelligent et apte à faire face aux besoins de l'éducation populaire, provoquant ainsi les débuts de la spécialisation professionnelle des archivistes et des bibliothécaires.

Suit une discussion des différences et des relations entre archives et bibliothèques, avec une réflexion sur leur rôle respectif dans la société moderne et une brève discussion de leur nature juridique et constitutionnelle, ainsi qu'un examen des matériaux dont elles s'occupent et de leurs méthodologies propres. Ces différences de méthodologie s'atténuent à mesure que les archives et les bibliothèques ont à s'occuper des matériaux modernes, par exemple les données binaires sur bande magnétique. La difficulté de traiter ces documents nouveaux pose des problèmes aux méthodologies traditionnelles, aussi bien dans les archives que dans les bibliothèques.

Une étude plus approfondie des méthodologies tend à démontrer que, lorsqu'il s'agit de matériaux anciens, archivistes et bibliothécaires emploient des disciplines très similaires; les techniques de la conservation et de la restauration sont communes aux deux professions, les archivistes étant en tête. En revanche, les principes archivistiques du classement par organisme de provenance sont mis à rude épreuve par le flux croissant des papiers administratifs modernes, de même que les principes bibliothéconomiques de classement par sujet sont incapables de faire face aux besoins actuels de l'indexage informatique et de l'accès aléatoire aux mémoires magnétiques. La littérature professionnelle moderne a eu tendance à insister sur les différences entre les techniques de l'archivistique et de la bibliothéconomie, mais ces différences ne sont pas perceptibles pour les usagers qui considèrent archivistes et bibliothécaires comme faisant partie d'un même système de conservation et de communication de l'information.

L'auteur discute ensuite de la nécessité d'une formation professionnelle spécialisée pour les bibliothécaires et les archivistes et également d'une initiation adéquate pour le grand public et les utilisateurs des données documentaires.

L'article se termine par un essai de définition des priorités pour une action et une coopération futures.

DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Beziehungen zwischen Bibliotheken und Archiven

Der Aufsatz versucht zunächst eine kurze Darstellung des historischen Weges bis zum Ausbau moderner Archive und Bibliotheken und des zu ihrer Verwaltung eingesetzten, auf verschiedenen Ebenen fachlich vorgebildeten Personals. Dies führt vom klassischen Altertum über Mittelalter und frühe Neuzeit bis zur industriellen Revolution, in der man zunehmend intelligente und ausgebildete Arbeitskräfte brauchte. Einbezogen sind die Ausgestaltung des Erziehungswesens und die Anfänge beruflicher Spezialisierung für Archivare und Bibliothekare.

Es folgt eine Erörterung der Unterschiede und der Verbindungen zwischen Archiven und Bibliotheken mit kurzen Betrachtungen über die jeweilige Rolle in der modernen Gesellschaft, einer Umschreibung der rechtlich-verfassungsmäßigen Stellung, an die sich eine Sichtung der Materialien, mit denen es beide zu tun haben, und eine Gegenüberstellung der angewandten Methoden anschließen. Die methodischen Divergenzen treten zurück, wenn beide, Archive und Bibliotheken, sich mit modernen Dokumentationsformen wie binären Daten oder Magnetbändern befassen müssen.

Ein genaueres Eingehen auf die Fragen der Methodik versucht zu zeigen, daß Archive und Bibliotheken auch im Umgang mit älteren Materialien sehr ähnliche Techniken anwenden. Beiden gemeinsam ist die wichtige Arbeit auf den Gebieten der Restaurierung und Konservierung, in der die Bibliothekare von den Archivaren lernen können. Die archivische Ordnung nach Behördenprovenienzen kommt im Umgang mit der modernen Inflation des Verwaltungsschriftguts in Schwierigkeiten. Entsprechend tut sich auch die bibliothekarische Sach-Klassifikation gegenüber den neusten Anforderungen nach computerisierter Sachindizierung und direktem Zugriff zu gespeicherten Informationen schwer. Die moderne Fachliteratur neigt zur Herausarbeitung der methodischen Unterschiede zwischen archivischer und bibliothekarischer Arbeit, doch der Benutzer sieht Archivare und Bibliothekare, unabhängig von solchen Unterschieden, vor allem als Teile eines umfassenden Systems zur Speicherung und Bereitstellung von Informationen.

Eine Erörterung der Notwendigkeit für die spezialisierte Ausbildung von Bibliothekaren und Archivaren schließt sich an, wobei hier nicht nur an die Ausbildung der Fachkräfte sondern auch die von den Fachkräften durchzuführende Bildung der breiten Öffentlichkeit und anderer Benutzer der gespeicherten Quellen zu denken ist.

Der Aufsatz endet mit dem Versuch, Prioritäten für künftige Arbeit und Zusammenarbeit festzulegen.

RESUMEN ESPAÑOL

Las relaciones entre Bibliotecas y Archivos

El artículo trata brevemente, primero de explicar los precedentes históricos del crecimiento de las bibliotecas y archivos modernos, y también de las categorías de personas especialmente instruidas empleadas en administrarlos y dirigirlos, extendiéndose en el tiempo, desde el clásico a través del medieval y principio del moderno hasta la revolución industrial la cual requirió una inteligente y educada fuerza de trabajo incluyendo el crecimiento de la educación popular y el comienzo de la especialización profesional para archiveros y bibliotecarios.

Sigue una discusión de las relaciones y diferencias entre archivos y bibliotecas con breves reflexiones sobre el papel de ambos en la sociedad moderna, con algunas discusiones sobre el aspecto y constitucional y constitucional de ambas seguido por un examen de los materiales con los cuales ellos tratan y alguna estimación de las metodologías que cada uno emplea.

Las metodologías divergentes se acercan más cuando ambos, archivos y bibliotecas, tratan con materiales modernos por ejemplo "Datos dinarios en cinta magnética". Las dificultades que surgen cuando se tienen contactos con tales materiales modernos están causando problemas a las metodologías tradicionales en las disciplinas de archivos y biblioteca.

Un más detallado examen de las metodologías pretende demostrar que tratando con materiales más antiguos, ambos, archivos y bibliotecas, emplean técnicas muy similares; y comunes a ambos son las disciplinas de preservación o conservación necesarias donde los archiveros guían a los bibliotecarios. Las técnicas archivísticas de organización por unidades administrativas están sometidas a un esfuerzo para competir con la moderna abundancia del papel burocrático; similarmente, la organización bibliotecaria por clasificación de materias está fallando en competir con las demandas modernas para hacer el índice de materias de la computadora y para acceder al azar a las memorias almacenadas. La literatura moderna profesional ha tendido a acentuar las diferencias entre técnicas y metodologías de biblioteca y de archivo, pero estas diferencias no son percibidas por los patronos, los cuales consideran a los archivistas y bibliotecarios como parte de un mismo sistema de almacenaje y suministro de información.

Una discusión sobre la necesidad de instrucción y educación especializada para archiveros y bibliotecarios sigue a continuación, instrucción no sólo para profesionales sino a cargo de profesionales para el público en general y otros usuarios de los recursos almacenados.

El artículo termina tratando de señalar las prioridades para una futura acción y cooperación.

MUSEUMS AND ARCHIVES IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD

Museums have not exactly been blessed with a "good press". In the British House of Commons in 1896, John Burns M.P. denounced the museums of the Science and Art Department as "a nest of nepotism and a jungle of jobbery", and a dozen or so years later one of the founders of Italian Futurism, Marinetti, called on artists to destroy both libraries and museums and to start afresh, rejecting all tradition. He continued by denouncing museums as identical to cemeteries "... in the sinister promiscuousness of so many objects unknown to each other. Public dormitories, where one is forever slumbering beside hated and unknown beings".

Indeed, death and decay metaphors seem to be liberally sprinkled through 20th century comments on museums and galleries, as in the distinguished archaeologist's description of the great western archaeological museums as "charnel houses of murdered history". Even Jenny Lee, the nearest thing to a Continental-style Minister of Culture that Britain has ever had, seemed to base her mid-1960s policies on an implied distinction between museums and galleries on the one hand and what she termed the "Live Arts" on the other — a distinction which survives today in British government policy on arts funding.

And yet, at a conservative estimate, at least 1,000 million people a year visit the world's 30,000 or more recognisable museums, and an enormous number — certainly some hundreds of thousands — must be actively involved in the museum movement on a voluntary basis, assisting as "Friends" or volunteers with the professionally staffed museums, or helping to organise and run the tens of thousands of mainly small, local, voluntary museums and preservation projects that are springing up at an astonishing rate (certainly several per day) throughout the world. To give only two examples, in the U.K. the Museums Association, which has in membership virtually every professionally-staffed museum, has around 520 institutional members, yet a recent survey by the Association of Independent Museums has identified over 1,400 museums in the country run by voluntary organisations and individuals, of which less than a hundred are members of the Museums Association. Even more remarkable is the position in the Soviet Union, where the number of local, voluntary, community museums run by local groups attached to schools, factories, collective farms, trade union branches, etc. is now thought to exceed 10,000, compared with a total of around 1,400 "official" state museums.

However, the explosive growth in museum provision is very much a 20th century phenomenon (though, in Europe and eastern North America, it clearly had its origins in the 19th century), although a small proportion of the world's museums has a much longer history. The original Museum at Alexandria, founded in the third century B.C., was destroyed in the third century A.D., and none of the other Greek or Roman forerunners of the present-day museum survive. The oldest recognisable museum foundation surviving today is almost certainly that of the great Todaiji Temple at Nara — the ancient imperial capital of Japan near Kyoto, founded as a treasury of religious art and relics in the 8th century A.D.

In the Christian world, the building up of collections of religious objects began in the Middle Ages, although it was not until the mid-18th century that these, led by the Vatican in around 1750, began to develop into recognisable museums, accessible to the public. Great private collections were also made available on a limited basis to the public, as in Florence, where the Medici treasures of the Uffizi were accessible from the late 16th century, although it is arguable whether it could be classed as a museum as early as that.

The earliest scientific museums arose in the late 17th century out of the growing interest in the study of nature, with a University Museum opening at Basel in 1671. Six years later, Elias Ashmole bequeathed his collection to the University of Oxford, and a museum building was specially designed to house this and earlier accumulations of collections, the new building being formally inaugurated by a Royal visit in May 1683. (Although the Ashmolean Museum itself has long since moved to a new building nearby, the original purpose-built building in Broad Street, just by the Sheldonian Theatre, still survives as a University Museum, and now houses the Museum of the History of Science.)

Basel and Oxford were of course the forerunners of many thousands of University museums all over the world. The British Museum is the world's oldest national museum (excluding the special case of the Vatican Museum), and opened in 1753. Its origins and early history, however, perhaps typify the ambivalent attitude that most governments have taken to the development of museums in the United Kingdom. Under his will, Sir Hans Sloane instructed his executors to give the Government the first option to purchase his outstanding collection (mainly of natural history material) to form the basis of a national museum. Eventually, Parliament reluctantly agreed to accept the collection, but only on condition that the cost of purchasing it should be met from the proceeds of a public lottery! Once established, the British Museum remained, for many years, a national disgrace in terms of the lack of care and sheer disorder of the collections, and was almost totally inaccessible to the general public. It was open for only a few hours a week, and then only to persons presenting a letter of introduction from the Chamberlain to the Royal Household, the Archbishop of Canterbury (as an *ex officio* Trustee of the Museum), a Peer of the Realm, a Member of Parliament or someone of similar standing! It was not until the Museum moved into its present Bloomsbury building in the 1820s that any serious consideration was given to the possible interest of the ordinary citizen.

A far more systematic approach to the establishment of a national museum was taken by revolutionary France. Whilst Parliamentary England, the previous century, had seized the great art collection of King Charles I in order to sell it, revolutionary France seized the collections of the Royal Family and the nobility in order to create a museum that would not only bring art and history to the ordinary citizens, but would be a proud statement of "*la gloire*". The Palais du Louvre was similarly appropriated and used to house the sequestered collections which were pouring into Paris from every part of France, and the Louvre was opened as a museum in 1793. Not content with a merely national role for the new Museum, Napoleon later used his military conquests to internationalize the collection — bringing back treasures from as far afield as Egypt.

In a number of European countries from the mid-18th century and particularly during the 19th century a network of local museums was established in the major provincial cities and towns. Often these were originally established and run by local scientific or historical societies formed by the newly emerging urban middle classes. These new societies and their museums followed to a considerable extent the fashions of the day, and this inevitably led them into the world of natural history and — especially — geology, which were the key sciences of the period, at least in terms of both amateur practice and public controversy. Both as individuals and as societies, therefore, those involved in this new movement began to build up collections of geological and natural history material both for reference purposes (particularly in terms of identifying new finds of rocks, minerals, fossils, etc.)

and in order to develop general public awareness of the science. Soon, there was a demand for these collections to be developed into working museums, first for the benefit of the members of the Society, and soon for the edification and interest of the population at large.

Most of these voluntary societies have long since found the burden of maintaining an adequate (and inevitably expanding) public museum too great a burden, and in most cases responsibility for their museums has now passed to municipal or other government authorities. However, some notably early examples of voluntary museums are still run by their founding body, for example the very important Teyler's Museum, in Haarlem, Netherlands.

The major colonial expansion of the 19th century also had a substantial effect on the development of museums in at least two ways. First, large numbers of items of all kinds, particularly of ethnography and natural history collected by travellers and those working in the various colonial administrations overseas, were taken back to both the national and local museums of the various colonial powers. Second, in a small number of cases, embryo museums were established in the colony itself as part of the overall transfer of European educational and cultural traditions to colonial capitals, and in such cases the museum has formed the natural nucleus of a post-independence national museum, as with, for example, the world-famous Egyptian Museum in Cairo, or the colonial period museums of Delhi, India.

However, there is no doubt at all that in numerical terms museums are very much a 20th century phenomenon, taking a world-wide view. Although exact statistics are not available it seems clear that at least 90 %, and probably more than 95 %, of the present-day museums of the world have been established in the present century, and probably more than half have been established since the Second World War.

Perhaps the most spectacular growth in terms of public museums has been in the USSR which had no more than a dozen or so significant public museums at the time of the Revolution, but now has over 1400, including major international museums such as the State Hermitage Museum in the former Winter Palace in Leningrad, as well as many historical museums dealing with different aspects of the development of the country, and large numbers of substantial new regional museums.

The USA has seen a comparable growth in voluntary museums, which include some major "national" institutions such as the Metropolitan Museum of Art and the American Museum of Natural History facing each other across Central Park, New York.

The enormous expansion in museum provision of the past 40 years or so has been so diverse in terms of geographical distribution, size or type of museum that it is very difficult indeed to summarise or even characterise in any useful way. New developments have included such diverse projects as the great aeronautical and space collections of Washington and Moscow, the outstanding National Anthropological Museum in Mexico, at least 40 new national museums in newly-independent states in all parts of the world, through to innumerable preserved and restored historic house museums, and tiny community museums.

One particularly important development, pioneered in such projects as the restoration of 18th century Colonial Williamsburg, in the USA, from the 1920s onwards, has been the growing interest in *on-site preservation and interpretation*. This has been one of the most exciting new developments of recent years for which the distinguished museologist Georges-Henri Rivière has coined the term "*ecomuseum*" — a museum project that attempts to conserve and interpret the complete natural or human ecology of an area, as in the Ironbridge Gorge Museum in England, or Rivière's own project, the Museum of the Camargue in France.

However, a mere summary of the development of the world's museums over the past two centuries or more, (which is in any case far too generalized), throws comparatively little light on the motivation of their original founders and present-day supporters, and even less on their purpose and objectives.

In both professional and popular parlance, the word "museum" is used to cover such a wide range of wildly different institutions and organisations, that one frequently wonders whether it is possible to define the basic meaning of the word, let alone identify a common purpose and objective behind the tens of thousands of museums that now exist. The 1970s in particular seems to have been a period of serious self-doubt, coupled with a more positive searching for renewal and identity, amongst the museum movement of the world.

The International Council of Museums (ICOM), the sister body to the International Council on Archives, is the official UNESCO non-governmental organisation for museums and related areas. In opening its triennial General Conference in France in 1971, the host Minister of Culture suggested that museums were facing serious difficulties in three areas: sociological, particularly in relation to youth; technological, particularly in relation to the development in audio-visual and related techniques; and cultural, in relation to the need to communicate¹. Later in the same meeting, the director of an unconventional, black neighbourhood museum in Washington, D.C., which has been extremely successful in involving the local community in its work, argued that the basic problem is that "museums resist progress"². A similar line was taken by the Netherlands Minister of Cultural Affairs, Recreation and Social Welfare in presenting the Netherlands Government's new policy for museums in 1977: "Museums have got out of step with the realities of the present, and the demands of the future. They have been exclusively devoted to collecting and conserving cultural goods from the past. A kind of cult of the past has developed with museums as temples"³.

These are harsh words indeed, but are they fair reflection of the majority of the world's museums? And, if so, why do governments and individuals around the world continue to fund museums and galleries and enlarge their collections, and why does the world's public flock to them in ever increasing numbers? Is it really a demonstration that "Nostalgia Rules O.K.!"? Or are museum directors really in the same boat as the apocryphal foreign tenor appearing for the first time in the San Carlo Opera House in Naples, who was euphoric when the notoriously demanding audience demanded a third encore of his first aria, until the prompter explained that the audience had every intention of insisting on him singing encore after encore until he managed to sing it right!?

At its 1971 Conference, the International Council of Museums (ICOM) turned its attention to the definition of a museum, partly in the context of a review of its own constitution, and following widespread consultations around the world an agreed definition was adopted at its next General Conference, held in Copenhagen in 1974, as follows: "A museum is a non-profit making, permanent institution, in the service of society and of its development, and open to the public, which acquires, conserves,

researches, communicates and exhibits, for the purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of man and his environment"⁴.

A moment's reflection will confirm that the introspective stereotype portrayed by the Dutch Cultural Minister or by the use of the word "museum" in a perjorative sense, bears little or no resemblance to the ICOM-UNESCO definition which has now been widely adopted at a national level as well. (It is now the working definition used by the Museums Association in the UK, and is incorporated in the Association's *Code of Practice for Museum Authorities*⁵ which it commends to its Institutional Members, i.e. museum governing bodies of all kinds). But the definition repays examination and analysis in much more detail since it encapsulates most if not all of progressive museum policy and thinking.

The first factor that the ICOM definition emphasises is that museums (including art galleries in English terminology) are permanent institutions, not mere temporary exhibitions, world fairs, festivals, etc. The issue of "permanence" is of special importance in relation to the collections.

The first thing that people donating their treasures to a museum want to be sure about is that, once accepted into the collections, they will be held in trust for present and future generations of potential museum users and visitors, and that the survival of the collection will not depend on the whims of transient boards of trustees, directors, etc., nor will the town council be able to sell the museum collections in order to repair the swimming bath roof. Similarly, potential benefactors want to be sure that the institution is a charitable institution (non-profit in North American parlance).

The second phrase of the ICOM definition, asserting that the museum is "in the service of society and its development" confronts head-on the old argument, rarely heard today, that the essential purpose of a museum or gallery is the building-up of a collection merely for the purposes of connoisseurship. Instead, museums are exhorted to find a direct role of service to the public and to the advancement of its community. Of course, very many institutions in a complex modern society have a similar fundamental objective: for example schools, universities, libraries, health services, etc. The two things that distinguish museums from these are (1) the subject matter, comprising the original (not, in normal circumstances, reproduction or replica) three-dimensional objects which are evidence of man's development or the environment in which he lives (whether a Rembrandt painting or a microscopic fossil), and (2) the kind of techniques used by the museum in order to achieve its objectives, and, in particular, acquisition, conservation, research and communication. In these factors, of course, there is the closest possible professional and ethical correspondence between museums and archives.

Except for a small number of specialised museums where the collection is "closed" for historic reasons (e.g. because it is the reflection of one man's activity and taste), all museums are, to some extent, involved in the development of their collections through acquisitions. Although most of the press publicity in relation to museum acquisitions seems to be focused on spectacular purchases of expensive, European paintings in the great auction houses of the world, this is a very distorted picture indeed.

For many museums, particularly those concentrating on natural history or local history and archaeology, much the greatest part of the growth in the collections may well derive from the Museum's own planned programme of field research and collecting, whether of biological or geological material from the locality, or as a result of systematic

¹ Jacques Duhamel, "Allocution du Ministre des Affaires Culturelles", 9-17 in ICOM, *The Museum in the service of man: today and tomorrow. The papers from the Ninth General Conference of ICOM, Grenoble — Paris, 1971*. Paris, International Council of Museums, 1972.

² John Kinard, "Intermediaries between the museum and the community", p. 151-156 in ICOM... *Ninth General Conference*... (see reference n° 1 above).

³ J.W.M. van Spanndork, *Towards a New Museum Policy*. The Hague, Netherlands Government Printing Office, 1977.

⁴ International Council of Museums. *ICOM Statutes Adopted by the Eleventh General Assembly of ICOM, Copenhagen, 14th June 1974*. Paris, ICOM, no date.

⁵ Patrick J. Boylan, "Museum ethics: Museums Association policies". *Museums Journal*, vol. 77 (3) 1977, p. 106-111.

archaeological investigation organised by, or in close consultation with, the museum. The larger UK provincial museums are frequently involved these days in systematic survey work for geological, biological and archaeological databanks which are then used in the evaluation of areas of potential environmental or historic interest for planning purposes, and a major programme of such fieldwork may well result in a substantial addition to the collections of the museum. For example, from 1977 to 1980, my own Service in Leicestershire, England, was heavily involved in both environmental and historical survey and assessment of the National Coal Board's massive Vale of Belvoir mining proposals, and, in addition to many thousands of field observations, this programme of work resulted in almost 10,000 specimens of smaller items, difficult to identify in the field, collected for identification and reference purposes.

Once an object has been added to the collections of the museum, for good or ill, it has to be conserved, in the broadest sense. Conservation has been one of the more spectacular growth industries within the museum world of post-war years in particular. New scientific techniques for investigating virtually every kind of museum material have led to a far better understanding of the causes and nature of both natural and artificially-induced deterioration, and, over the same period, a wide range of new materials (particularly synthetic polymer chemicals — especially adhesives) have transformed the range of laboratory techniques available for both preserving and restoring works of art and museum objects. Faced with an almost bewildering range of new techniques for arresting decay and restoring material, it was, perhaps, natural that the greatest emphasis should first be put on the restoration of already-damaged material, rather than on preventative conservation, which has, as its basic objective, the prevention, or, at the very least, substantial slowing down, of the natural deterioration in the first place.

And yet, perhaps 90 % or more of preventative conservation consists of one, apparently simple, thing: the provision of suitable environmental conditions in which to house the object at risk. Indeed, there is a good deal of evidence to show that the parallel development of modern display techniques, carelessly used, have had a very serious effect on some kinds of collections. The three "killers" are (1) relative humidity outside the range that can safely be tolerated by the material from which the museum or art gallery object is made; (2) substantial rapid, short-term, fluctuations in relative humidity (and, to a lesser extent, temperature), even within the "acceptable" range for the material in question, and (3) excess lighting, especially when the natural or artificial light source includes a significant ultra-violet component. Whilst I would be the last to argue against the provision of first-class laboratory services and staff in order to carry out conservation and restoration work, there is really no point in restoring specimens or works of art if they are simply going to be returned to the conditions which caused the damage in the first place. The trouble is that there is no glamour and very little to show for expenditure on preventative conservation, as compared with a new display, an expensive object purchased, a temporary exhibition or even an expensive piece of equipment for the conservation laboratory. Yet, were a generous benefactor to offer a one-off grant equivalent to, say, 10 % of the current annual budget, I am sure that the vast majority of museums of the world would be best advised to spend it on improvements to the storage of the study and reference collections. It is these collections, not the museum buildings, which form the real bricks and mortar out of which the displays, temporary exhibitions and educational programmes of the museum or gallery are derived.

Again, the museum and archive professions share a common ground, and conservation problems all too familiar to archivists are in many cases paralleled directly in the museum field.

The ICOM basic definition of a museum also stresses that it has a research role as a fundamental characteristic and responsibility.

At its most basic level, the museum's obligation to carry out research may extend no further than the investigation of new acquisitions in order to identify and catalogue them fully. At the other extreme, the world's major natural history museums, such as the British Museum (Natural History), or the US National Museum of Natural History within the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, are, nowadays, just about the only places where large-scale fundamental research on the classification and identification of animals, etc. is carried out, and much of this work is of great economic importance, for example, in relation to insect pests. Similarly, the work of the geology departments of the major natural history museums is of fundamental importance in relation to the identification of the fossil sequence, and, hence, to much of economic geology.

But, even more modest and local museums may have a substantial research role in relation to not merely its own collections but also its own environment. To use a United Kingdom example again, for forty years or more, the major provincial archaeological museums have been involved in the recording of local archaeological sites and monuments, and the development and maintenance of biological and geological databanks for research and public information (particularly in relation to the planning process) is now regarded as a high priority by many UK provincial museums. As the County Council's statement of policy and objectives for my own Leicestershire Service puts it: "The Service is responsible for the provision and co-ordination of archaeological, historic, biological and geological recording, research and advisory services within the County", and, already, more than 10,000 localities of archaeological, biological or geological interest have been identified and recorded. Although extensive survey programmes are still in progress, concrete benefits for the general public, in the form of popular museum publications on the county are already available.

Nationally and internationally, however, in the field of museum research (as, indeed, in virtually every other area of museum policy), every institution ploughs its own furrow and decides for itself (subject, of course, to the concurrence of its governing body) what its policies and priorities should be in relation to research. The best that can be said is that the museum profession as a whole, and the numbers involved in particular specialisations within museums in particular, are really so small that wasteful overlapping and duplication of effort is generally avoided because most people in a particular field are aware of each other's areas of specialisation.

The final element of the ICOM definition is the declaration that the museum communicates and exhibits its collections "for the purpose of study, education and enjoyment". One may, perhaps, be forgiven for thinking that it has taken a long time to reach the self-evident "front-of-house" function of museums and galleries, but, in a fully developed museum, the public facilities are the tip of the iceberg. To carry this old metaphor further, it is the largely unseen fundamental base of adequate, properly conserved and fully researched, collections relevant to the museum or gallery's functions and responsibilities, that makes possible and gives stability to the public function.

The most obvious way in which a traditional museum or gallery communicates with the public is through its display galleries. In the vast majority of cases, only a small selection from the collection will be on display at any one time. There are, however, exceptions to this: the National Gallery, London, manages to show in either the primary galleries or in an area of the basement freely open to the public, the whole of its collection except for items on loan elsewhere or requiring or undergoing conservation treatment. Such an arrangement is practicable when dealing with a collection of only a little over 2,000 paintings, and some small local folk museums also manage to have virtually the whole of their collections on public display. At the other extreme, the world's major natural history museums may have in excess of 50 million individual items each, most of which would

be meaningless to the ordinary nonspecialist visitor unless interpreted in some way, and in many cases of microscopic size. A display of a couple of hundred thousand small tubes containing fleas preserved in alcohol might bring home to the public the fact that the museum is involved in some odd areas of research, but would hardly be an exciting entertainment or educational experience! The great majority of museums, therefore, have to be selective in terms of what they display, and, even more important, must attempt to interpret the material to the visitor.

As soon as one talks about 'the museum visitor', the curator (and the designer, if, as is increasingly the case, there is a professional design input to the planning and execution of the display or exhibition) runs headlong into the first major problem. Unlike a teacher planning an activity for a group of eight year old children of known ability and attainment, or a playwright working on a script for a late evening TV drama production, there is rarely, if ever, a clear and unequivocally identifiable customer for a particular museum display. (The only examples that come to mind of such a clearly identifiable and homogenous museum user group are all in specialised museums that have a very restricted access, for example, a teaching museum within a University Hospital, which is open only to medical students and doctors, and can have specialised displays which have been planned specifically for a medical audience.) The great majority of museums are, in theory at least, totally indiscriminate in terms of the audience that they attract, and, consciously or unconsciously, have to make assumptions (or, in many cases, positive policy decisions) about the target audience of their permanent displays and temporary exhibitions.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in North America in particular, but also in the UK, in museum visitor research, using, in broad terms, opinion poll techniques, and, in the great majority of cases, such surveys have shown a very substantial over-representation of the white, physically-fit, middle class amongst museum users, with a corresponding underrepresentation of the socially, economically and physically disadvantaged. There is no one, simple, explanation of this bias. Partly, it is a reflection of the cultural tradition within the urban middle class that was largely responsible, as society members, local councillors or benefactors, for the creation of our western museum heritage in the Victorian period. Partly, too, it is a reflection of differences in educational attainment.

So far as the disabled and frail (including the very elderly) are concerned, the monumental nature of most 19th and earlier 20th century museum buildings frequently makes access and circulation within the building virtually impossible (a problem that is, of course, by no means unique to museums amongst public buildings of those periods). Moreover, one can argue that the very scale of museum buildings of that period (particularly the traditional, imposing cathedral-like entrance hall!) can be a serious psychological barrier which keeps out a high proportion of the population. There is a lot of evidence to show that this pseudo-ecclesiastical atmosphere was deliberately sought by 19th and early 20th century museum governors, curators and architects, and this is reflected in contemporary descriptions of museums in terms such as "a temple of knowledge." Certainly in the case of the larger museums able to have special staff for the purpose, a museum education service can play a vital role in broadening the population base from which future generations of museum users will be drawn, quite apart from the direct benefit that children and teachers can derive from using museums and galleries in a purposeful way.

Formal educational facilities for organised school party groups visiting museums began to be offered by a few pioneering institutions a century ago and in such cases many teachers at schools within easy reach of museums quickly recognised the benefit of organised school visits to children on a number of counts: first, in amplifying or illustrating particular areas of the school curriculum; second, in broadening in general

terms the experience of the children; and, third, in introducing children from families who were not museum users to museums in general, and their local museum in particular.

In the case of the large museums, it soon became clear that special facilities needed to be provided for the growing number of organised school parties, and, before the end of the century, a number of major museums had arrangements under which qualified teachers were seconded to work with visiting groups within the museum on a regular basis. As early as 1872, the City Museum in Liverpool, England, began to experiment with the idea of lending original museum specimens to schools for use by teachers within their own classrooms, and by the end of the century special "Children's Museums" were under development in the USA.

The majority of museum education services around the world still see their primary task as the provision of specialist support to teachers wishing to use the facilities and resources of the museum, whether by bringing the children to the museum in an organised group, or the use of a loans service (where one is in operation). However, the old emphasis on "guide-lecturing" parties of schoolchildren around the public galleries has all but gone. Activity rooms and other special teaching facilities are used, where these are available, and there is considerable emphasis on the handling and using of specimens or of exact replicas, where the original is too fragile or too precious to be used, in order to deepen the experience.

Programmes and activities can be tailored to the exact requirements and interests of a particular group, and there is a growing emphasis on formal and informal training courses for teachers to enable them to use the museum facilities themselves with their own students, as an integral part of their normal teaching, rather than "take the children to the museum for a talk". In many of the larger museums the numbers of educational parties is so great that the direct teaching by museum education staff of all the parties visiting the museum would be totally impossible. Instead, the teacher can obtain from the Education Section a wide range of resources, materials and suggestions, including "worksheets" which he or she can use with his own group. Many museums also make extensive use of specially trained volunteers (often termed "docents" in North America) to assist in the educational and guiding work of the museum.

The work of the archivist and the museum curator are very closely related in terms of their basic responsibilities of acquiring relevant material, conserving and caring for this, documenting and researching it, and making both the original material and the information that can be deduced from it by the professional staff available to those wishing to make use of it. In particular, they share a common professional and ethical concern for original material evidence, often unique, and it is this emphasis on the original object, rather than a multiple production or reproduction, that distinguishes archivists and curators on the one hand from other information-based professions such as librarians on the other.

Within this common concern for unique, original objects the dividing line between the realm of the archivist and the museum curator can, in theory at least, be easily distinguished. The primary concern of the archivist is the original written document in whatever form this occurs, whether on paper or some form of parchment or (increasingly as modern technology advances) in some modern equivalent of this, such as microform, audio or perhaps magnetic tape computer output. The curator is concerned with all non-paper (or equivalent) evidence of possible significance for the interpretation of cultural history or the environment, plus the special case of original works of art on paper, such as drawings, watercolours or limited edition prints.

However, in practice, the dividing line cannot be drawn as easily as might be possible in theory: in particular the integrity of a coherent collection ought to be respected, if at

all practicable. Consequently, major archive centres may well find themselves responsible for considerable collections of "museum" material acquired as an integral part of an important archive collection.

Also, where an archive centre has a substantial public exhibition and education role it may well need collections of three-dimensional historical objects to illustrate and amplify its exhibitions of original documents or the teaching programmes of its education staff. Thus, in the north-eastern USA the State Archives in Boston holds and exhibits archaeological material found in excavations investigating the 18th and 19th century history of the City, whilst the Shomburg Institute in New York has substantial collections of African and Afro-American artefacts and works of art, which are used to amplify the manuscript and library resources on the history of black peoples.

Although archive centres often have a small amount of "museum" material in their collections, the converse is far more common. Virtually every museum has, of course, some archive material relating to its own origins, history and administration, in common with all other public institutions. However, the growing numbers of research workers interested in the history of museums frequently complain about the poor state of the internal historic and administrative archives of many large and important museums, and of the great majority of small museums. Certainly, standards of care of such material all too often falls short of that insisted upon by the same museums for their primary collections and the documentation relating to these. The English proverb that "the cobbler's child is often the worst shod" frequently seems to apply to the curatorship of the museum's own archives, suggesting an important area for direct cooperation between the museum and its local Record Office or other archives centre⁶.

Two special categories of museum overlap much more directly with archive centres in terms of their collections: biographical/memorial museums, and literature museums (plus the overlapping category of theatre/musical museums). Most if not all of these see as one of their primary tasks the acquisition and deployment of original manuscript material of the person or persons commemorated, whether a single individual at the one extreme, or all writers of a nation at the other. Such museums need to employ professional archivists to curate their manuscript collections.

The index to a major world directory of museums identifies well over two hundred museums in these categories, and many more general national or regional museums collect original archives relating to major national figures of historic, artistic or scientific significance. For example, in Leningrad alone there are at least twenty museums collecting and caring for major manuscript collections in the various state museums, which include two museums each devoted to the Great October Socialist Revolution, V.I. Lenin, the scientist Pavlov, and the writer Pushkin. The USSR has altogether at least fifteen Lenin Museums in various parts of the country, all under the guidance of the Central Lenin Museum in Moscow. In India there are Gandhi Museums, all with biographical and literary material of all kinds, in Ahmedabad, Bauranagar, Madurai, New Delhi, Parganas, Patna and Sevagram.

Such biographical and literature museums are rapidly being established in many parts of the world, although in numerical terms they are certainly most common in Europe. To give just three examples, Rouen, France, has museums devoted to Corneille and Flaubert; Dusseldorf, FRG, to both Goethe and Heine; whilst the London area has at least seventeen museums with substantial biographical archive material, including specialised museums dedicated to Dickens, Keats and Charles Darwin.

⁶ Elizabeth Berry and John Thompson, "Records Management", *Museums Journal*, vol. 77 (1), 1977, p. 7-8.
— C. Schwartz, R.W. Rydell, M.L. Aldrich, A. Brin, P. Nanert, "Keeping our Own House in Order: the Importance of Museum Records", *Museum News*, vol. 61 (4), 1983, p. 38-49.

Clearly in such cases there is a potential overlap and conflict between museums and archives, as is also the case in the increasingly important fields of historic photograph collections, where a Record Office and a local history museum may well find themselves in competition for collections (or single valuable items), and with industrial records, which may be of special interest to a local or national technology or industrial history museum.

Of course, in some countries no problem exists, at least in theory because of a unified national policy on such matters incorporated in national or local laws and managed through a single administrative structure, which enables potential conflicts to be resolved. However, even under such administrative arrangements, it is most desirable that there should be the closest possible cooperation between archivists and curators in all matters of common interest, not merely (somewhat negatively) to resolve "territorial" or "boundary" disputes between the two kindred professions.

In cases where there is no such legal framework, and where perhaps public and private institutions exist side by side, with the private institutions largely if not wholly free from legal constraints, such cooperation is absolutely vital. In the United Kingdom the Museums Association and the Society of Archivists set up a joint Working Party under my chairmanship in 1976, to explore the common ground and scope for co-operation both nationally and locally between the two professions, and this was subsequently widened in scope to include representatives of the Library Association as well. The report of this Working Party⁷ offered practical guidance and advice to all institutions on areas such as the legal position of archive collections in museums and libraries, collecting responsibilities, special collections (particularly photographs and other visual topographical material, and industrial and commercial archives), disposal of collections, and records management arrangements for the proper care of the administrative etc. archives of museums. The Working Party also commended archivists, curators and librarians to develop close collaboration and liaison arrangements, especially at a local level, in areas of common interest, particularly in relation to educational facilities and advisory services in the field of local studies. It also drew attention to the possibility of co-operation in the common use of specialised facilities and equipment (including conservation facilities, and audiovisual, microfilm and copying equipment) and in joint publications and exhibition programmes. At the national level, the Working Party suggested that there might be scope for a joint approach to computer-based documentation systems, and for close links in the training of paper conservation, education and design staff.

Of course, the Working Party was charged with exploring the common ground between archivists, curators and librarians at a practical level specifically within the British system, and the detailed recommendations will not necessarily transfer directly to another part of the world with what may well be a very different legal and administrative framework. However, I am sure that despite the apparent differences of national law, language and even local professional terminology, our experience has a much wider application in relation to the potential for cooperation between museums and archives elsewhere in the world.

I trust that the brief outline of the origins, purpose and objectives of museums in this paper, together with the comments on the concerns and problems of curators, will strike a sympathetic and familiar chord amongst archivists, and will emphasise the common professional and ethical basis of the curator and the archivist. Although the two

⁷ Museums Association/Society of Archivists/Library Association. "Statement of Policy Relating to Archives". *Museums Journal*, vol. 81 (3), 1981, p. 165-169.

professions are distinct, and will, I am sure, remain so, they are complementary, not rivals or competitors, and should have the closest possible professional relationships at all levels, local, national and international, not least because so much of their underlying philosophy and purpose is held in common.

Patrick J. BOYLAN
Director of the Leicestershire
County Council's Museums,
Art Galleries and Records Service

RÉSUMÉ FRANCAIS

Musées et Archives dans le monde contemporain

Au moins un milliard de gens visitent chaque année les quelques 30 000 musées du monde. La croissance explosive du nombre de musées et de leurs visiteurs est essentiellement un phénomène du XX^e siècle, bien qu'un petit nombre de musées, y compris des plus célèbres, aient une histoire remontant beaucoup plus haut.

Le mot «musée» s'emploie pour désigner des institutions très variées, créées dans des buts si différenciés que la définition d'une fonction commune, susceptible de s'appliquer à tous les grands musées, semble à première vue très difficile.

Le Conseil international des Musées (ICOM), organisation nongouvernementale sœur du Conseil international des Archives au sein de l'UNESCO, définit le musée comme «une institution permanente, sans but lucratif, au service de la société et de son développement, ouverte au public, et qui fait des recherches concernant les témoins matériels de l'homme et de son environnement, acquiert ceux-là, les conserve, les communique et notamment les expose à des fins d'études d'éducation et de délectation».

Après un résumé des buts, des origines et des fonctions des musées, le présent article examine en détail les implications de cette définition de l'ICOM, phrase par phrase.

Le conservateur de musée et l'archiviste ont en commun leur intérêt pour des objets originaux et uniques, pour leur collecte, leur conservation et leur utilisation dans des cadres éthiques et professionnels étroitement apparentés. Bien que, à strictement parler, les domaines des deux professions soient distincts (l'archiviste étant prioritairement responsable des documents écrits, tandis que le conservateur de musée est responsable des objets non écrits, naturels ou fabriqués de main d'homme), il y a évidemment des chevauchements, par exemple dans le cas des musées consacrés à la biographie ou à la littérature, de sorte qu'une étroite coopération entre les deux professions est particulièrement importante.

Les deux professions, chacune dans son domaine propre, ne sont ni rivales, ni compétitives, mais complémentaires; elles devraient avoir les plus étroites relations possibles à tous les niveaux, local, national et international, ne serait-ce que parce qu'elles partagent en grande partie une philosophie de base et une fonction commune.

DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Museen und Archive in der Welt von heute

Mehr als 1 Milliarde Menschen besuchen in jedem Jahr die wohl über 30.000 erfaßten Museen in aller Welt. Das explosionsartige Anwachsen der Zahlen von Museen und Museumsbesuchern ist ein ausgesprochenes Phänomen des 20. Jahrhunderts, obwohl ein kleiner Teil der Museen in der Welt, darunter einige der berühmtesten, eine sehr viel weiter zurückreichende Geschichte aufweisen.

Die Anwendung des Begriffs „Museum“ auf eine große Vielfalt von Institutionen mit weit divergierenden Zielsetzungen macht es auf den ersten Blick sehr schwer, Zweck und Ziel des Museums schlechthin zu umschreiben.

Der Internationale Museumsrat (ICOM), als nichtstaatliche UNESCO-Organisation ein Schwesterverband des Internationalen Archivrats, definiert Museum als „eine nicht gewinnbringende, dauernde Einrichtung im Dienst der Gesellschaft und ihrer Entwicklung, offen für die Allgemeinheit, die zu Studien-, Bildungs- und Erholungszwecken materielle Zeugnisse des Menschen und seiner Entwicklung erwirbt, bewahrt, erforscht, erschließt und ausstellt“.

Nach der Beleuchtung von Zweck, Ursprüngen und Zielen der Museen versucht der Aufsatz eine ins Einzelne gehende Erörterung der ICOM-Definition, die Satz für Satz überprüft wird.

Museums-Kustoden und Archivare sind verbunden durch das beiden gemeinsame Interesse an einmaligen Original-Objekten, die sie im Rahmen eines durchaus vergleichbaren ethisch-fachlichen Bezugfeldes sammeln, konservieren und für Benutzer oder Betrachter bereitstellen. Trotz der groben Abgrenzung der Verantwortlichkeit beider Berufssparten, die dem Archivar vorrangig geschriebenes Material, dem Museumskustos die materiellen Zeugnisse natürlicher oder menschlicher Herkunft in nicht-schriftlicher Form zuweist, gibt es zwangsläufig Überschneidungen, zum Beispiel im Bereich biographischer oder literarischer Museen; hier ist eine enge Zusammenarbeit zwischen beiden Berufen besonders wichtig.

Die beiden Berufe sind verschieden und werden dies bleiben. Sie sollten sich jedoch ergänzen und nicht als Rivalen gegeneinander arbeiten. Sie sollten auf allen Ebenen, örtlich, national und international, die engstmöglichen fachlichen Beziehungen pflegen, nicht zuletzt, weil ihnen Grundlagen und Ziele ihrer Arbeit doch in beträchtlichem Umfang gemeinsam sind.

RESUMEN ESPAÑOL

Museos y Archivos en el mundo de hoy

Por lo menos un billón de personas visitan cada año los 30.000 más Museos Reconocidos del mundo. El crecimiento explosivo del número de Museos y de sus visitantes es un fenómeno muy del siglo XX, aunque una pequeña proporción de los Museos del mundo, incluyendo algunos de los más famosos, tiene una historia mucho más larga.

La palabra «Museo» se usa para cubrir tal amplia variedad de instituciones, creadas para tan diversos objetivos, que una definición de un propósito y objetivo común que cubra todos los Museos parece muy difícil a primera vista.



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De todas maneras, el Consejo Internacional de Museos (ICOM), la organización no gubernamental de UNESCO hermana del Consejo Internacional de Archivos, define el Museo como «una institución permanente, no lucrativa, al servicio de la sociedad y de su desarrollo, abierta al público, que adquiere, conserva, investiga, comunica y principalmente exhibe los testimonios materiales del hombre y su medio ambiente, con propósitos de estudio, educación y deleite».

Después de revisar el propósito, los orígenes y las metas de los Museos, este artículo a continuación examina en detalle las implicaciones de la definición de Museo por ICOM., frase por frase.

El director de un Museo y el «archivero» comparten un interés común hacia objetos únicos y originales y su colección, conservación y despliegue, dentro de un marco ético y profesional estrechamente comparable.

Aunque en términos amplios os camps de responsabilidades de ambas profesiones son distintos, siendo el «archivero» responsable principalmente de material escrito, mientras que el director de un Museo es responsable de testimonios materiales, ya sean naturales o hechos por el hombre, en formas no escritas, hay inevitablemente algunos casos en los que coinciden por ejemplo con referencia a Museos biográficos o literarios y en estos casos es especialmente importante una estrecha cooperación entre las dos profesiones.

Aunque las dos profesiones son y permanecerán distintas, son complementarias, no rivales ni competidoras y deberían tener relaciones profesionales lo más estrechas posible a todos los niveles, local, nacional, e internacional no menos porque tanto de su filosofía base y sus propósitos son comunes.

ARCHIVES AND DOCUMENTATION

The relation between archives and documentation has always shown unusual aspects. In the world of archivists, the approach of documentalists primarily directed to a refined accessibility of the contents of archives has been observed in a suspicious and passive way for a long time. In the world of documentalists, few documentalists consider archival documents to be a source of information in the same way as publications are.

What could be the reason for this? We will try to find the answer to this question from the points of view of the archivist and the documentalist.

1. The view of the archivist on documentation

In the definition of the concept "archives", as it appears in the now outdated *Elsevier Lexicon of Archive Terminology* (1964) prepared by a committee of ICA: "Les archives sont l'ensemble des documents reçus ou élaborés par une personne physique ou morale, publique ou privée et destinés par leur nature à être conservés par cette personne même", the concept of "documentation" is not mentioned. The only, vague, indication in that direction is the word "documents".

In the definition only the words "par leur nature" are specific for the archives, distinguishing them from any other kind of collection of documents. When those words are left out, the definition will cover any collection of documents.

Do the words "par leur nature" indeed refer to the essence of archival documents? What is meant by them? The definition does not give any indication of the nature of documents. In fact, we must come to the conclusion that the most essential element of the definition is too vague.

If we compare archives with other collections of documents, such as a library or a collection of patent papers, we will find that the most important characteristic of archives is that they are not intentionally formed, like a library or any other collection, but that archives spontaneously come into existence as the involuntary consequence of the activities of a governmental or private entity or an individual. Every entity performs activities in exercising its functions and, without being preconceived, records come into existence forming together archives.

In fact those records, those archives are, as long as they exist, the only lasting material evidence of the being and activity, now or in the past, of an entity or person.

In this unbreakable link between the entity and its activities (being the particular nature of records), we find the reason by which they are "destinés à être conservés par cette personne même". The vague term "par leur nature" refers to the specific nature of archival documents, to originate spontaneously as a consequence of the activities of a collectivity or person.

We consider it necessary, to mention this in so many words in the definition of the archives, instead of the vague term "par leur nature". The definition might then be: "Les archives sont l'ensemble des documents, reçus ou élaborés par une personne physique ou morale, publique ou privée, par voie de conséquence spontanée de ses activités et comme telle destinés à être conservés par cette personne même".

For the archivist, it is nothing new that the identity of archives is linked with their origin. In the Dutch *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives*¹, an important part is dedicated to the principle of origin, the principle of "respect des fonds" and the principle of restoration of original order. These principles arise from the valeur attached to the origin of archives and the consequences for their maintenance, structure and control.

The archivist so firmly adheres to the view that archives are evidence that he cannot disengage himself of that view, even when he regards them as a source of information. Jean Favier² for instance says: "Le document ou la donnée élémentaire qu'il contient n'a pas seulement l'importance et l'intérêt que lui confèrent les informations dont il est chargé. Le document tire sa valeur de la série dans laquelle il a sa place naturelle, au sein d'un fonds d'archives".

The thesis, that archives only fulfil a function primarily by their existence as evidence of the activity of an entity, is important for the relation between archives and documentation.

It gives archives a specific identity, which libraries or other documentary collections do not have. The latter are always a source of information, more precisely of documentary information.

Nevertheless archives, especially during the last decade, often are considered to be sources for documentation (even in the world of archivists) may be proved by many cases in which the definition of archives, we may say is amplified in that direction by provisions in archival laws or other official regulations of coercive nature, such as: "Records are defined as written material or any other material which conveys information"³; "Archival documents shall include records which in view of their historical, political, economic or cultural importance, possess an enduring documentary value"⁴; "In Erfüllung (seiner) Aufgaben unterstützt das Staatliche Archivwesen durch Bereitstellung von Informationen die Organen. Die Leiter der Staatsorgane und Einrichtungen denen Archiven unterstehen haben insbesondere zu gewährleisten Koordinierung der Aufgaben und Archiven mit den Einrichtungen des Informationswesens"⁵; "Archivalien können benutzt werden für Forschungen die der Wissenschaft dienen sollen"⁶; "(La Direction des Archives) assure la mise en place et la promotion d'un système d'informations scientifiques, la mise au point et l'application de systèmes mécanisés et automatisés de recherche d'informations contenue dans les documents du Fonds d'archives d'Etat de l'URSS"⁷.

¹ Arthur A Leavitt, *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives*, New York, 1940 (Transl. from the Dutch).

² Jean Favier, "Les archives et les nouvelles tendances de l'histoire", *International Journal of Archives*, vol. 1 (1980), n° 1, p. 7.

³ Denmark, 20-2-1976: Government Order concerning the Archives of State Institutions, art. 2.

⁴ Czechoslovakia, 17-10-1974: Law n° 97 of the Czech National Council concerning Archives, section 2.

⁵ Deutsche Demokratische Republik, 11-3-1976: Verordnung über das Staatliche Archivwesen, par 6 (2), par 10 (1).

⁶ Land Nordrhein-Westfalen, 17-3-1980: Bekanntmachung des Kulturministers, Benutzungsordnung für die staatliche Archive, par 4.

⁷ URSS, 4-4-1980: Arrêté n° 274 du Conseil des Ministres de l'URSS; règlement relatif à la Direction Générale des Archives, art 5 (f).

Apart from such legal definitions, which connect archives more closely to documentation, archivists are increasingly drawing attention to the role of archives in the information field of the near future.

Dr. James B Rhoads⁸ mentions some developments, which will lead to new techniques for archives: "the adaptation of the concept of the databank to the field of archives; the use of the computer as a finding aid capable of providing the subject matter information on archival holdings and the radical liberalisation of scholarly access to archives, already achieved to a considerable extent by the proliferation of microfilm techniques for documentary reproduction in general and specially for documentary publications".

During the 20th Conference of the International Round Table on Archives held in Oslo in 1981, it became clear that the emergence of a new kind of research worker with totally new techniques of research requires new types of finding aids. He wants more extensive and more detailed finding aids than the usual archival inventory and these should be automated. There will be a need to supply all kinds of documents. Archivists will have to give attention to the types of finding aids which are needed by the new users of archives and by scientific institutions for their own information. It may be necessary to adapt archive laws to this. A decision must be made about the priority of the classical inventory or of new types of finding aid⁹.

Herschler and Slany¹⁰ remark: "If archivists continue to adhere solely to traditional forms of appraisal, description and reference services, before long they will no longer be capable of meeting their archival responsibilities. Archivists must recognise and accept the vast potential of computer technology in the field of information management and archival research" and Berner states: "If archivists in particular do not pursue an active role in information management, they must inevitably perform the role of 'refile' clerks".

As to traditional archives, we may conclude that although archives are primarily seen as sources of historical evidence, during the last decade amplifying legal regulations and progressive archivists as well as users of archives are paying attention to the importance of governmental archives as a source of documentary information in a wider sense.

2. The influence of record management and filing (the "Registratur")

In addition to the situation inside the world of traditional archives, attention should be paid to influences from outside which make that world evolve.

When we take the world of archives in a wider sense, it includes the period in which records have not yet been transferred from the administration to the archival repository. In that prearchival period, records management and filing are essential.

The Joint Committee on Records Management of the International Council on Archives (ICA) and the International Records Management Federation (IRMF) defines records management as: "The control of records from their origin until their final destruction or their transfer to the archives for lasting storage".

⁸ Introduction to the Report on New Archival Techniques, Proceedings of the VIIth International Congress on Archives, Moscow, 1972. *Archivum*, vol. XXIV (1974), p. 77.

⁹ J.N.F. Albada in *Nederlands Archiefblad*, jrg 86, mei 1982, afl 1, p. 76.

¹⁰ David H Herschler and William Z Slany, "The Paperless Office. A case study of the State Department's Foreign Affairs Information System", *American Archivist*, vol. 45 (1982), n° 2, p. 142. See also Richard C Berner, "Toward National Archival Priorities: a suggested basis for discussion", *American Archivist*, vol. 45 (1982), n° 2, p. 164.

We consider it necessary, to mention this in so many words in the definition of the archives, instead of the vague term "par leur nature". The definition might then be: "Les archives sont l'ensemble des documents, reçus ou élaborés par une personne physique ou morale, publique ou privée, par voie de conséquence spontanée de ses activités et comme tels destinés à être conservés par cette personne même".

For the archivist, it is nothing new that the identity of archives is linked with their origin. In the Dutch *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives*¹, an important part is dedicated to the principle of origin, the principle of "respect des fonds" and the principle of restoration of original order. These principles arise from the value attached to the origin of archives and the consequences for their maintenance, structure and control.

The archivist so firmly adheres to the view that archives are evidence that he cannot disengage himself of that view, even when he regards them as a source of information. Jean Favier² for instance says: "Le document ou la donnée élémentaire qu'il contient n'a pas seulement l'importance et l'intérêt que lui confèrent les informations dont il est chargé. Le document tire sa valeur de la série dans laquelle il a sa place naturelle, au sein d'un fonds d'archives".

The thesis, that archives only fulfil a function primarily by their existence as evidence of the activity of an entity, is important for the relation between archives and documentation.

It gives archives a specific identity, which libraries or other documentary collections do not have. The latter are always a source of information, more precisely of documentary information.

Nevertheless archives, especially during the last decade, often are considered to be sources for documentation (even in the world of archivists) may be proved by many cases in which the definition of archives, we may say is amplified in that direction by provisions in archival laws or other official regulations of coercive nature, such as: "Records are defined as written material or any other material which conveys information"³; "Archival documents shall include records which in view of their historical, political, economic or cultural importance, possess an enduring documentary value"⁴; "In Erfüllung (seiner) Aufgaben unterstützt das Staatliche Archivwesen durch Bereitstellung von Informationen die Organen. Die Leiter der Staatsorgane und Einrichtungen denen Archiven unterstehen haben insbesondere zu gewährleisten Koordinierung der Aufgaben und Archiven mit den Einrichtungen des Informationswesens"⁵; "Archivalien können benutzt werden für Forschungen die der Wissenschaft dienen sollen"⁶; "(La Direction des Archives) assure la mise en place et la promotion d'un système d'informations scientifiques, la mise au point et l'application de systèmes mécanisés et automatisés de recherche d'informations contenue dans les documents du Fonds d'archives d'Etat de l'URSS"⁷.

¹ Arthur A Leavitt, *Manual for the Arrangement and Description of Archives*, New York, 1940 (Transl. from the Dutch).

² Jean Favier, "Les archives et les nouvelles tendances de l'histoire", *International Journal of Archives*, vol. 1 (1980), n° 1, p. 7.

³ Denmark, 20-2-1976: Government Order concerning the Archives of State Institutions, art. 2.

⁴ Czechoslovakia, 17-10-1974: Law n° 97 of the Czech National Council concerning Archives, section 2.

⁵ Deutsche Demokratische Republik, 11-3-1976: Verordnung über das Staatliche Archivwesen, par 6 (2), par 10 (1).

⁶ Land Nordrhein-Westfalen, 17-3-1980: Bekanntmachung des Kulturministers, Benutzungsordnung für die staatliche Archive, par 4.

⁷ URSS, 4-4-1980: Arrêté n° 274 du Conseil des Ministres de l'URSS; règlement relatif à la Direction Générale des Archives, art 5 (f).

Apart from such legal definitions, which connect archives more closely to documentation, archivists are increasingly drawing attention to the role of archives in the information field of the near future.

Dr. James B Rhoads⁸ mentions some developments, which will lead to new techniques for archives: "the adaptation of the concept of the databank to the field of archives; the use of the computer as a finding aid capable of providing the subject matter information on archival holdings and the radical liberalisation of scholarly access to archives, already achieved to a considerable extent by the proliferation of microfilm techniques for documentary reproduction in general and specially for documentary publications".

During the 20th Conference of the International Round Table on Archives held in Oslo in 1981, it became clear that the emergence of a new kind of research worker with totally new techniques of research requires new types of finding aids. He wants more extensive and more detailed finding aids than the usual archival inventory and these should be automated. There will be a need to supply all kinds of documents. Archivists will have to give attention to the types of finding aids which are needed by the new users of archives and by scientific institutions for their own information. It may be necessary to adapt archive laws to this. A decision must be made about the priority of the classical inventory or of new types of finding aid⁹.

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We are of the opinion that this definition does not completely cover the responsibilities of the records manager. Records management includes more than "control of records"; it is a management function in the full sense of the word. The responsibilities of the records manager extend beyond records control: system management, organisation and coordination are important functions of the records manager. We find the given definition more suitable to filing ("Registratur") and preparing archives. It is the "Registratur" which is restricted to receiving, filing and registering records during the period in which they are received or produced and in which archival fonds are formed. This is the period, in which the administration needs the records to react on their contents or to support the decisions in other cases.

An important and clear difference between records management and filing is that records management takes care of the ageing records when they begin to assume their archival status, whereas filing ends with the transfer of the records to the archivist. In many private enterprises there is a records manager, only a few of them are assisted by an archivist to control the older records, the archives. Working with records instead of archival fonds as the archivist does, records management and filing act in close relation to the administration and its need for information, because in the period of frequent use of the records, that use is more directed towards obtaining information than obtaining evidence. The function of obtaining evidence from archives becomes more important in a later phase. Finding aids to the contents of the records and the dossiers are needed especially by the records management and they are made in that period. Those finding aids should be coordinated preferably with the indexes of publications in the library.

The influence of automation is felt in the first place by the records management. We will return to this point later.

The archivist has long detached himself from the situation in which the records were used by the administration. The consequence was that he received inexpertly formed fonds in chaotic order. In many countries, the law gives the archivist authoritative influence on the "Registratur", in order to prepare already in that period properly organised archives. This may be appreciated by the archivist, but in many cases it meant that in the period of the "Registratur" the documentary function of the records did not get the necessary attention with the result that that function did not show to its full advantage.

In the situation in which records management is practised, the opposite may happen. Records management does not know a clearly marked moment, a sharp distinction between the end of records management and the beginning of the archival period. Records grow older, are used less frequently by the administration and it is more efficient to store them in a cheaper way, in a central store, where they are controlled as archives. In the pre-archival period, the records manager has often given so high a priority to the documentary function of the records, that he has lost sight of the archival aspect, with the consequence that in the later archival phase there is no opportunity to repair that omission and the archives must be stored as a documentary collection, lacking any archival structure. For such "archives", it is very difficult to reflect by their structure any evidence about the entity they belong to.

It is necessary to give full advantage to both the documentary and the archival aspect of the records. If an archivist has an eye for the documentary needs of the administration and the role of the records in connection to this, he will support a "Registratur" which gives full attention to the archival and documentary aspects. A records manager, on the other hand, who exercises a responsible and integrated records management system, will take into account archival needs, without derogating from the documentary function of the records.

The appearance of administrative (management) documentation in the years 1930/1940 and the recognition of archives as important sources for that kind of information, led in

the Netherlands to an archives management system in which the records were controlled and made accessible exclusively as documentary sources. Archival principles were neglected until the moment when archivists, alarmed by this development, blamed documentalists for it. Since 1950, in the education of records managers, attention has been paid to both aspects of the records in a well-balanced proportion. Besides classification and indexing for documentary purposes, archival systems of arrangement based on the principle of provenance and inventory-building are taught. On the other hand, teaching about documentary finding aids has only recently been introduced in the school for archivists in the form of an experiment.

When in general we see the relation between archives and documentation from the point of view of archivists, we may say that cooperation between archival control and filing or records management preceding or including well-organised archival control, leads to a situation in which it may be expected that both the archival and documentary interests are being looked after.

3. What is the picture seen from the point of view of the documentalist?

The original definition of the FID for the concept of "documentation" was: "Documenter, c'est réunir, classer et distribuer des documents de tout genre dans tous les domaines de l'activité humaine".

This definition clearly shows a connection to the document and as it says "de tout genre", that means without excluding the kind of documents which is referred to in the definition of archives. The two definitions are closely connected; they were in one line: the definition of archives identified a collection of documents being archives, and the definition of documentation was directed to activities with documents. The definition of documentation did not comprise any indication of the way in which those activities should be carried out or about the purpose of those activities, so the activities of the "Registratur" and even the activities of the archivist could be seen as falling within the definition of documentation, without injuring their archival nature.

In 1960 the FID drew up another definition of "documentation": "Documentation is the collection and storage, classification and selection, dissemination and utilisation of all types of information." In this definition the link with documents is indicated.

It is remarkable that in *Grundlagen der praktischen Information und Dokumentation* with regard to the original FID definition is said: ". . . das sowohl die Tätigkeit als auch der Wissenschaftliche Gegenstandsbereich nicht mehr auf 'Dokumente' allein gerichtet und nicht an sie gebunden ist. Das Ziel war von jeher weiter gesteckt als er in den seitherigen Definitionen zum Ausdruck kam. Es ging nicht nur um Dokumente, um Literatur". The restriction in the last part, stating that "Literatur" is a synonym for "Dokument" is typical for the view of many documentalists with regard to the field of activities of documentation. We will return to this point later on.

In the new FID definition information is the core of it, instead of the document. In our opinion the specific identity of the concept of documentation is lost in this way. It is true that documentation is directed to information, but this relation (and this is typical for the concept of documentation) is always connected to the document in any form as being the conveyor of information.

Information (which is: knowledge available to other persons), not connected to a document, occurs in many forms, audible as well as visual. The development of electronic data processing and its influence on information is so extensive and encroaches so deeply on the information process, that important aspects of that process are excluded from

documentation, although they are covered by the definition of it. The specific identity of the concept of documentation is reflected by the word itself: documentation is tied to the document as conveyor of information. The object of documentation is the documentary information. In our opinion, it is an omission in the new FID definition, that the connection with documents is not mentioned. It is not realistic to state that documentation is directed to the aspects, summed up in the definition, of information in general, without any restriction. Documentation finds its limitation in the documentary information, in the information conveyed by documents. A document in this context is any object whose purpose is to convey the information of which it is the bearer.

The modification of the FID definition of documentation has been important for the relation between archives and documentation: before 1960 the definitions of both archives and of documentation contained the word document: archives are "l'ensemble des documents . . ." and documentation was said to be "réunir, classer et distribuer des documents". It is clear that a tangential plane could be found between archives and documentation. After having left out the word "document", an indication of any connection is no longer found in the definitions. This has widened the distance between archives and documentation; it supports the misunderstanding that documentation, directed to information as its objective, will find its source only in publications, such as books and periodicals collected by and stored in libraries. It may be said that the specific characteristics of a publication are to give information in contrast with archives with evidence as their primary purpose.

When we state that information is the object of documentation, publications and documents are linked together without any reference to archival records. The result is that for instance in the authoritative book of Laisiepen *et al*¹¹, with regard to archives is sufficed with the remark: "Archiv-, Bibliotheks- und Dokumentationswesen sind miteinander verknüpft. Es gibt sowohl Archive wie Bibliotheken die dokumentarische Methoden anwenden und Aufgaben erfüllen, wie auch Dokumentationsstelle, die ohne Anwendung bibliothekarischer und z.T. auch archivalischer Methoden kaum arbeitsfähig sind." The voluminous work does not give any further attention to archives. This is characteristic of the entire professional literature on documentation: the average documentalist does not consider archives and internal records to be documentary sources, documents or conveyors of information.

In the Netherlands, there is a favourable exception to that situation, owing to the fact that one of the pioneers of the development of documentation lived in the Netherlands. Frits Donker Duyvis, Secretary General of FID, mentioned as early as 1938 the importance of documentation for governmental and private management, by using internal documents (archives or in an earlier stage the dossiers of the "Registratur") as sources of information. He introduced the concept "administrative documentation" (Dutch "beheersdocumentatie"), a term in which we recognize without doubt the modern "management information".

Donker Duyvis and others promoted "administrative documentation" with great enthusiasm and taught that arranging and indexing of internal records just like other collections, such as articles from journals, had to be done according to the subjects of their contents with the aid of the Universal Decimal Classification (UDC). Subject-files, containing internal records as well as publications would, it was held, be the most suitable sources of information. They lost sight of the fact that such arrangement clashed with archival principles. Archivists protested against that situation with the result that since

then Dutch records managers in industry follow the principle of provenance for the physical arrangement of records, including an index to the contents of the records by keywords or codification.

The arguments of Donker Duyvis and others in favour of "administrative documentation" did not have the success expected. After 1940, there was a break-through in the library world of the importance of documentation and the rôle of the library in it. That new development diverted the attention of documentalists from archives and records as documentary sources. After having neglected documentation for many years the library embraced it so warmly, that documentalists, overwhelmed by that attention and mesmerized by the enormous field of information covered by publications in their different forms, nowadays only remember that there are also records when the reduced numbers of followers of Donker Duyvis raise their voices to claim attention for records and archives as sources of information. There are many examples in which documentalists assiduously but vainly searched for information in publications, at the cost of many man-hours and much money, whereas the needed information was within reach in internal records, which were forgotten. That it is no good to generalize appears from the words of Shuchman¹²: "Three-quarters of all engineers use in-house reports in their work. After the engineer has exhausted his immediate informal sources of information (supervisors, colleagues and key persons) he looks for answers in internal technical reports".

There is a tendency in the world of documentation to differentiate between documentation for science, study or research on the one hand and documentation for governmental or private management on the other. This goes so far that the first kind of documentation, in which above all, publications are consulted, is regarded as the true form of documentation, whereas management-documentation (with internal records as main sources) is seen as a special kind of documentation. In the professional literature about documentation, the word "documentation" without any further specification, almost always refers to "literature-documentation" for research; documentation for management needs a special indication as "management information", "industrial documentation". This is discrimination against documentation from internal sources. Like any discrimination, it is incorrect and may lead to damage. The research worker or manager who needs information does not know where to find it. To him, it is not of primary interest from what source the information derives. In the first place he wants to enrich his knowledge; the source of information is of secondary importance, what is important is to evaluate the information. When records are not used as sources of information, the results of research may suffer the consequence of that omission.

The most satisfactory situation for documentation exists when there is a good co-ordinated and well-balanced ratio between the use of external and internal sources of information. Experience proves that when documentation has organised its connection only with a library, that situation is not reached. In such cases, there will be, at best, an informal, incidental, unco-ordinated contact between documentation service and records management, filing department or archives. When an all-round records manager is in charge, there will probably be a more favourable situation: he will *qualitate qua* be interested in the records of the library and documentation service; from that point of view he will be acquainted with the similarity of the finding aids to publications as well as to internal documents and he will promote co-ordination between them in his management.

From the point of view of the documentalist, we may state as a conclusion, that as a result of modification of the definition of the concept of documentation in 1960, the

¹¹ Klaus Laisiepen, Ernst Lutterbeck, Karl-Heinrich Meyer-Uhlenreid, *Grundlagen der praktischen Information und Dokumentation. Eine Einführung*. Verlag Dokumentation, München, 1972, p. 9.

¹² Hedvah L. Shuchman, "Information technology and the technology and the technologist: a Report on a national study of American engineers", *International Forum on Information and Documentation*, vol. 7, n° 1, Jan. 1982.

world of documentalists does not consider archives, files and records to be natural sources of documentation. Documentation from internal documents is seen as a special kind of documentation. It would be wise if archivists, records managers and FID took joint action to rectify this situation. Perhaps the Joint Committee on Records Management of ICA and IRMC could co-operate with the FID in this matter.

4. Integration or cooperation?

What are the consequences of admitting that archives, files and records are documentary sources? Does it mean that the archivist and the records manager are documentalists and that documentation service, archives, filing service and records management may be regarded as being identical? We do not think so. They all have their specific function, which determines their nature and activities. We do not follow Boberach¹³ in his conclusions "dass eine zeitgeschichtliche Dokumentation zu den Aufgaben der Archive gehört" and "Wenn es den staatlichen Archiven gelingt in noch stärkeren Maße als bisher Dokumentation zu betreiben werden sie nach dem Vorbild der modernen Wirtschaftsarchiven zur doppelten Zwecksetzung des alten Archivwesens zurückkehren".

The fact that governmental archives and public records, as well as private files and records, are documentary sources, does not mean that their controlling organization is a documentation service.

The search and retrieval or registration of records or archival fonds, which according to the principle of provenance belong to certain archives but are stored elsewhere, are not to be regarded as documentary activities. They are an integral part of archival management, because they have to be undertaken to fill a deficiency of the archives. The search, retrieval and/or registration of documents solely for the purpose of obtaining available information from their contents, is the objective of documentation. We do not regard that as a function of the archivist.

Brenneke-Leesch¹⁴ say it clearly: "Dass Archive nur dasjenige sammeln sollen, was zur Ergänzung und besseren Erschließung der Archivalien dient, auf deren Aufnahme sie Anspruch haben." Nevertheless, they agree that archives collect documents such as posters, programmes and press-cuttings but they admit "Hier handelt es sich nicht mehr um Archivgut ausserhalb der dem Archiv zukommenden Registraturen, sondern im wesentlichen um Bibliotheks- und Museumsgut." In our opinion, archivists, by collecting such documents, are passing the border between archives and documentation. Other entities may be in a similar position: when, for instance, an accounting department collects vouchers and other financial records as an integral part of its book-keeping function. It is not so, that in so doing that department has a double task: accounting and documentation.

If we agree that documentation is a specific function, important, even necessary, for the management of governmental and private institutions and for scientific, historical, social, technical and economic development, we must admit that that function should be organized in any form, as the responsibility of one person, or decentralised, if several persons are responsible for the documentation in their field of activity. In the last situation, those persons have the responsibility together with their other function(s). It

never becomes an integral part of other functions. They are not in charge of that specific kind of documentation as a consequence of their primary task; they have to manage documentation activities as the consequence of the resolution to decentralise the fulfilment of the documentation function.

When there is a documentation service, that service is responsible for the entire documentation function in the organization of which it forms a part. In that case specific parts of the documentation function may be delegated to other services or departments (for instance, historical documentation to the archives or to the historian and economic documentation to the economics department) but such sharing of responsibility does not reduce the responsibility of the documentation service for the entire documentation function.

If there is no documentation service, department or person in charge of the documentation as a whole, each unit of the organization will have to take care of the documentary information for its own benefit and in its specific field of activities but those units must realise that in such a situation, they are using their time partly for activities which are not an integral part of their function.

On the other hand, a documentation service has to pay attention to the possibility of acting as an archives service by keeping archives as a documentary collection. This, of course, is not the right situation either. A documentation service can do its work with reproductions or abstracts of original documents. If those are archives, a note giving information about the place where the original is stored may be sufficient to complete the value of the document used. A documentation service does not need to collect internal records which are sources of documentary information. Those records are to be kept in files or archives. Modern reproduction techniques or use of electronic aids make it possible to have their contents within the documentary system, without disturbing the archival function.

When we put the question "integration or cooperation?", the answer must be "cooperation", to guarantee a situation in which the documentary function, even when there is no unit in charge of it as a whole, will be recognised.

A number of laws on archives and other official archival regulations have been quoted, which refer to the documentary value of archives and they are appreciated as such. Nevertheless those articles or paragraphs confuse the clear view of the difference between archives and documentation. In fact, archival laws should not refer to documentary value or purpose of archives and records because documentary information should not be their basic principle: not information, but evidence has to be the justification for the existence of archives and the considerations of archival laws and regulations must be found in the need for evidence instead of information.

5. How will the relation between archives and documentation develop?

We are living in a period of time in which all information evolves under the influence of the use of electronics. We have seen how, by applying the computer to literature documentation, the electronic processing of data and the use of terminals for the consultation of information stored in world centres gained ground, taking the place of the distribution of publications such as abstract reviews. Many documentation centres have been able to cut down their number of descriptions of publications, by the possibility to have a dialogue with voluminous literature reference centres, which offer them almost instantaneously the relevant information from literature. Intercontinental transmission networks and specialised data banks are already frequently used. By the development of

¹³ Heinz Boberach, "Dokumentation im Archiv", *Der Archivar*, 1961, p. 209/210.

¹⁴ Adolf Brenneke and Wolfgang Leesch, *Archivkunde. Ein Beitrag zur Theorie und Geschichte des europäischen Archivwesens*. Leipzig, 1953.

cheaper equipment, this trend will continue at greater speed. Collections of publications in governmental and private entities will decrease when electronic data transmission enters administrations. Finally, the use of electronics will be the normal procedure in literature documentation.

It is obvious that records management, filing and, as an inevitable consequence, archives, will experience a similar evolution within a measurable amount of time. Many filing services already use electronic aids for the registration of their records. Store-keeping by computer is found everywhere and will be usable for storing archives without difficulties. The breakthrough of the application of electronics in administrative communication will have revolutionary consequences. The use of word-processors will be very important for records management, filing and archives and will reduce the difference between documentation from internal records and from literature. Herschler and Slany¹⁵ mention this too in their article about "The Paperless Office".

One of the causes of the difference between documentation from literature and from internal records is the difference in procedure, which difference has grown by the use of modern aids: in literature documentation, electronic-readable information is available with electronic aids and is used on-line; internal records are nowadays still on paper, they are stored in files in a particular order, they are physically transportable and have finding aids in the form of card index systems. The use of these different kinds of documentary sources, publications and records requires two quite different media: terminal and screen on the one hand, card index system and dossier on the other. Using literature and archives or files as sources of documentation at the same time, means working in two quite different spheres.

With the entrance of the word-processor into the modern office (including the governmental administration) and by the increasing use of the telephone as a transmission channel (under the influence of the more and more expensive costs of transport of documents), the product of management (the traditional record) takes on another appearance. The typed text will be readable on the word-processor screen in the office of the sender and will be transmitted, after being corrected, via the telephone to the receiver, where another word-processor records the signals on an electronic-readable medium. That medium is read at a convenient moment, so that the text appears on the screen of the receiver, who may react as he did before after receiving a letter by post. Sender and receiver both have the opportunity to put the text from their word-processors into their computers, with archival data (as date of receipt, description of the archival fonds the text belongs to, and/or numbers of dossier, file or series) and with indexes to the subjects of the text, such as keywords or codifications.

Don't think this is science fiction; nowadays there are already many administrations communicating in this way. For the relation between archives and documentation, this development is important because it influences deeply that relation as the difference between documentation from literature and from records disappears. Publications as well as internal records will both be electronically readable and available by indexes to their contents. Their management will be by one integrated system of documentary information. Their user will be directed to relevant texts by those entries on both internally generated and/or published information. The texts will be readable, as a whole or as an abstract and, if necessary, be printed as hard copy instantly. If anybody wishes to have internal generated text in their archival connection, then this will be possible by using the fonds-, dossier-, file-series number as an entry, if necessary with access limitation to a certain period.

¹⁵ See note 10 above.

We may expect that automation of administrative communication will be a fact before the end of the next decade. Then there will be no reason for an article about the relation between archives and documentation any more. Other problems of documentalists and archivists will need attention but, by that time, the difference between documentation from published or non-published texts will be an obsolete distinction.

The information manager will be responsible for information as a whole, which is recognised as one of the primary conditions for good management, governmental as well as private. Moreover, records and publications, archives and libraries will be regarded and used as equivalent sources of documentary information "bien étonnés de se trouver ensemble"

M.J. DREESE

Advisor in Documentary Information
Zoetermeer, The Netherlands

RÉSUMÉ FRANÇAIS

Archives et documentation

La relation entre les archives et la documentation a toujours présenté des aspects assez particuliers. Pour analyser les causes de cette situation, il faut comparer les définitions des mots «archives», «gestion des documents» et «documentation».

Dans la définition des archives du Lexique Elsevier de 1964, le terme «par leur nature» était trop vague pour caractériser l'identité propre des archives. Il faudrait ajouter à cette définition le fait que la caractéristique essentielle des documents d'archives est qu'ils sont le produit spontané des activités d'une collectivité ou d'une personne.

Les archives sont des moyens d'information et leur rôle premier est de constituer des preuves; les lois sur les archives qui font référence à la «fonction documentaire» des archives sont, à cet égard, source de confusion (exemples donnés dans l'article). Ce rôle des archives comme élément de documentation est de plus en plus reconnu par les archivistes. Les «gestionnaires de documents» (=spécialistes de la gestion des dossiers courants dans les entreprises et les administrations) ont même tendance à donner à cette fonction documentaire des archives une priorité si marquée qu'ils en viennent à perdre de vue leur aspect historique.

Dans la définition originelle de la documentation, le mot «documents» établissait la liaison avec les archives; mais dans la nouvelle définition officielle de 1960, ce mot a disparu, de sorte qu'il n'existe plus aucun terme commun entre les archives et la documentation.

C'est là le résultat d'une omission, car la documentation est essentiellement l'information fournie par les documents.

Une majorité de documentalistes ne considèrent pas les archives proprement dites comme une source d'information. Trop souvent, ils ne considèrent la documentation que comme fournie par les publications.

Le fait de reconnaître que les archives sont des sources documentaires ne doit cependant pas conduire à confondre archives et documentation. Il doit exister entre ces deux domaines distincts une coopération bien organisée. Mais, sous l'influence des techniques informatiques, le traitement des archives et des publications deviendra dans l'avenir un système unique dans lequel les différences entre documentation, publications et archives disparaîtront.

DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Archiv und Dokumentation

In der Beziehung zwischen Archiv und Dokumentation gab es immer gewisse Probleme. Um dem auf den Grund zu kommen, werden die gängigen Definitionen von „Archiv“, „Schriftgutverwaltung“ oder „Records Management“ und „Dokumentation“ gegenübergestellt. In der älteren Archiv-Definition (Elsevier Lexicon of Archive Terminology, 1964) ist die Festlegung „ihrer Natur nach“ sicher zu unscharf, um die Besonderheit des Archivguts zu umschreiben. Man sollte in einer Archiv-Definition feststellen, daß eigentliches Characteristicum von Archivdokumentation ihre Entstehung als nicht systematisch geplanter Niederschlag der Tätigkeiten von Personenmehrheiten oder Einzelpersonen ist. Archive sind jedoch auch Informations-Quellen, die primär Beweiszwecken dienen. Archivgesetze, die von der Dokumentations-Funktion der Archive sprechen (Belege werden angeführt) sind irreführend. Die Rolle der Archive als Dokumentations-Quelle findet auch bei den Archivaren zunehmend Beachtung. Der Schriftgutverwalter hat die Dokumentations-Funktion seines Schriftguts oft so stark in den Vordergrund gerückt, daß er den Archiv-Aspekt aus dem Auge verloren hat. In der ursprünglichen Definition der „Dokumentation“ schlug der Begriff „Dokumente“ eine Brücke zum Archivar. In der Neufassung dieser Definition im Jahr 1960 wurde der Begriff „Dokumente“ gestrichen. Damit entfällt die Verknüpfung von Archiv und Dokumentation in ihren Definitionen. Es ist sicher ein Versäumnis der neuen Definition der „Dokumentation“, daß sie nicht mehr auf die „Dokumente“ Bezug nimmt. Dokumentation beschränkt sich auf in Dokumenten vermittelte Information. Die Mehrzahl der Dokumentare betrachtet internes Schriftgut nicht als Informations-Quelle. Zu oft wird der Begriff „Dokumentation“ auf Publikationen beschränkt. Das Zugeständnis, daß Archive Dokumentations-Quellen sind, muß keineswegs zu einer Verschmelzung von Archiv und Dokumentation führen. Es muß eine gut organisierte Zusammenarbeit geben. Unter dem Einfluß elektronischer Hilfsmittel wird die Verarbeitung von Schriftgut und Publikationen zunehmend zu einem Gesamt-System, in den die Unterschiede zwischen Dokumentation, Publikationen und internem Schriftgut irrelevant werden.

RESUMEN ESPAÑOL

Los Archivos y Documentación

La relación entre los Archivos y la documentación ha presentado siempre algunos aspectos poco usuales. Para analizar las causas de esta situación, se comparan las definiciones de “archivos” (Elsevier Lexicon of Archive Terminology, 1964) el término “par leur nature” es considerado demasiado vago como para especificar la particular identidad de los archivos. Es aconsejable mencionar en la definición que la característica inherente a los documentos es la de que éstos surgen espontáneamente como consecuencia de las actividades de una colectividad o bien de una persona. Sin embargo, los archivos son fuentes de información y su primordial función es la de ser un testimonio. Las leyes sobre archivos que se refieren a la función documental de los archivos son confusas — hay buenos ejemplos de ello —. El papel de los Archivos como fuentes de documentación está adquiriendo progresivamente reconocimiento entre los archiveros. El «records

manager» ha conferido a menudo una prioridad tan enorme a la función documental de los documentos que ha perdido la visión de su función archivística. Dentro de la definición inicial de “Documentación”, el término “documentos” era un vínculo relacionante con los archivos; después de la modificación de tal definición en 1960, la palabra “documentos” desapareció de la misma. Con este hecho, cualquier conexión entre archivos y documentación falta en sus definiciones. Dentro de la nueva definición de “documentación” el no ser mencionada la conexión de ésta con los documentos es una omisión.

La documentación halla sus limitaciones en la información facilitada por los documentos. Una mayoría de documentalistas no considera los documentos internos como fuentes de información. Demasiado a menudo, el término “documentación” está unido exclusivamente a las publicaciones.

El admitir que los Archivos son fuentes documentales no debe conducir a la integración de “archivos” y “documentación”. Debe existir entre ambos una cooperación bien organizada. Bajo la influencia de las ayudas electrónicas, el proceso de los documentos y las publicaciones se transformará en un sistema en el cual desaparecerá la diferencia entre “documentación”, “publicaciones” y “documentos internos”.

PART II / II^{ème} PARTIE

GENERAL INDEX OF VOL. I TO XXX

INDEX GENERAL DES VOL. I A XXX

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EXPLANATORY NOTE

This list gathers together, in as complete a manner as possible, all the articles, reports, interventions and contributions of whatever kind published in the thirty volumes of *Archivum*, which have appeared to date. Each entry bears its own serial number.

To avoid an excess of multiple cross-references in the indexes of subjects and of countries, articles, reports and interventions relating to a specific subject forming a coherent whole have been gathered together under a single number: for example, entry no 248 gathers together 17 contributions, covering 52 pages of volume XVI relating to liberalisation of access to archives; this allows these 17 contributions to be gathered together under the keyword "Access to Archives" with entry number 248.

Each individual contribution also has its own individual sub-number in the list.

The title of each contribution is cited in the language in which it is published.

Abbreviations used:

Cong.	= Congrès international des archives, Congreso internacional de Archivos, International Congress on Archives, Congresso internazionale degli Archivi
Exp.	= exposé
Disk.	= Diskussionsbeitrag
Extraord.	= extraordinaire, extraordinario, extraordinary
Int.	= intervención, intervention, intervento
Kong.	= Internationaler Archivkongress
Multiling.	= multilingue, multilingual
Wash.	= Washington

NOTE EXPLICATIVE

Cette liste regroupe, de façon exhaustive, tous les articles, rapports, interventions et contributions de toute nature publiés dans les trente volumes d'*Archivum* parus à ce jour. Chaque entrée est pourvue d'un numéro d'ordre.

Pour éviter de trop multiples renvois dans l'index-matières et l'index-pays, nous avons regroupé, sous un seul numéro, les articles, rapports et interventions relatifs à un sujet donné et formant un ensemble cohérent: par exemple, le n° 248 regroupe 17 contributions, couvrant 52 pages du volume XVI, concernant la libéralisation de l'accès aux Archives, ce qui permet, à l'index-matières, sous le mot-clé «Communicabilité des Archives», de grouper ces 17 contributions sous le seul numéro 248.

Cependant, chacune des contributions individuelles possède aussi son propre numéro d'ordre dans la liste.

Le titre de chaque contribution est cité dans la langue où celle-ci est publiée.

Abréviations utilisées:

- Cong. = Congrès international des Archives, Congreso internacional de Archivos, International Congress on Archives, Congresso internazionale degli Archivi.
- Exp. = exposé
- Disk. = Diskussionsbeitrag
- Extraord. = extraordinario, extraordinary
- Int. = intervención, intervention, intervenzione
- Kong. = Internationaler Archivkongress
- Multiling. = multilingue, multilingual
- Wash. = Washington.

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2. INDEX BY COUNTRIES 2. INDEX PAR PAYS

EXPLANATORY NOTE

This index by countries replaces the usual place name index: names of towns, provinces, etc. are grouped together under the name of the country which they belong.

The names of countries are given in their usual form in the national language: cross-references are made to their forms in English and French. Within the 7200 pages which make up the 30 volumes of *Archivum*, each country is referred to several tens, even several hundreds of times: it was impossible for reasons of economy and for ease of use to include here every appearance of such and such a name of a country mentioned in the text of an article or a congress report.

For this index, it was decided to include only those names of countries which appear in the title or sub-title of articles or those to which whole articles or sections of articles are devoted.

To take an example then: if the index refers to "Poland: Professional training of archivists, 14", this does not mean that this reference is the only one in which the professional training of archivists in Poland is dealt with but that this is the only article devoted specifically to this subject. To complete the reference, the user will need to refer to the subject index heading "Professional training" where all references followed by the word ("gen") are of a general nature and accordingly relate to Poland as well as to a number of other countries.

As far as languages are concerned, the co-existence of texts written in five different languages posed a delicate problem. To avoid favouring one language above another, it was decided that:

- 1) for those countries whose official or usual language is one of the five languages of *Archivum* (English, French, German, Italian, Spanish), all key words are given in that language, even if the text of the article itself is written in another language;
- 2) for those countries whose official or usual language is not one of the five languages of *Archivum* or in the case of those using several of these languages as official languages (e.g. Switzerland), key words are given in the language in which the article is written;

As in the case of the subject index, reference numbers refer to the alphabetical index of articles (pages 69—99).

Abbreviation used:

Arch. = Archiv, archives, archivio, archivio

NOTE EXPLICATIVE

L'index par pays remplace ici l'index des noms de lieux: les noms de villes, provinces, etc., sont en effet regroupés sous le nom du pays auquel ils appartiennent.

Les noms des pays sont donnés sous leur forme habituelle dans la langue nationale; des renvois sont faits à partir des formes anglaise et française.

Chaque pays est cité plusieurs dizaines ou même plusieurs centaines de fois dans les 7200 pages que totalisent les 30 volumes d'*Archivum*; il était impossible, pour des raisons d'économie et de commodité d'utilisation, de relever ici toutes les apparitions de tel ou tel nom de pays dans le corps d'un article ou d'un rapport de congrès.

Nous avons donc décidé de ne retenir, pour cet index, que les noms de pays qui apparaissent dans le titre ou le sous-titre des articles, ou auxquels sont consacrés des articles ou des sections d'articles entiers.

Ainsi, pour prendre un exemple: si l'index indique «Pologne: formation professionnelle des archivistes, 14», cela ne signifie pas que cette référence soit la seule où il soit question de la formation professionnelle des archivistes en Pologne, mais que c'est le seul article consacré spécifiquement à ce sujet. Pour compléter la référence, on se reportera à l'index matières, au mot «Formation professionnelle», où toutes les références suivies de la mention (gen.) sont de caractère général et concernent par conséquent la Pologne ainsi que nombre d'autres pays.

En ce qui concerne les langues, la coexistence de textes écrits en cinq langues différentes posait un problème délicat. Pour éviter de privilégier une langue plutôt qu'une autre, il a été décidé que:

1° pour les pays dont la langue officielle ou usuelle est une des cinq langues d'*Archivum* (allemand, anglais, espagnol, français, italien), tous les mots-clés sont donnés dans cette langue, même si le texte de l'article lui-même est écrit dans une autre langue.

2° pour les pays dont la langue officielle ou usuelle n'est pas une des cinq langues d'*Archivum*, ou qui ont plusieurs de ces langues comme langues officielles (Suisse), les mots-clés sont donnés dans la langue même où l'article est écrit.

Comme pour l'index-matières, les numéros renvoient à l'index alphabétique des articles (pages 69—99).

Abréviation utilisée:

—Arch. = Archiv, archives, archivio, archivio

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3. SUBJECT INDEX (ENGLISH)

EXPLANATORY NOTE

The subject index set out below is essentially synthetical and not analytical for the reasons set forth in the Preface to this volume.

The abbreviation "gen" indicates that the reference relates to the whole of the subject dealt with, most usually in the form of the results of an international enquiry or study.

To avoid multiplication of cross-references, which would have resulted in an excessive inflation in the size of this subject index, it was decided, when a subject is dealt with within the context of one single country, not to cite the reference in this index but in that of countries (pages 100–111). For example, an article dealing specifically with the training of archivists in Poland will not be found in the subject index under the heading "Professional Training" but only in the country index under "Polska".

Thus in order to gain a complete overview of a particular topic, both subject and country indexes must be consulted.

The numbers refer to the alphabetical index of articles (pages 69–99).

Abbreviation used:

Arch. = archives

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NOTE EXPLICATIVE

L'index-matières présenté ici est essentiellement synthétique et non analytique, pour les raisons qu'ont été exposées dans le préface de ce volume.

L'abréviation «gén» signifie que la référence concerne l'ensemble du sujet évoqué, le plus souvent sous la forme des résultats d'une enquête ou d'une étude internationale.

Pour éviter la multiplication des références croisées, qui eût entraîné un gonflement exagéré de l'index-matières, nous avons pris le parti, lorsqu'un sujet n'est traité que dans le cadre d'un seul pays, de ne pas le citer dans l'index-matières mais seulement dans l'index-pays (pages 100—111) Par exemple, un article concernant spécifiquement la formation professionnelle des archivistes en Pologne ne sera pas cité dans l'index-matières sous la rubrique "Formation professionnelle", mais seulement dans l'index-pays sous «Polska».

Pour avoir une vue complète d'un sujet quelconque, il faut donc consulter à la fois l'index-matières et l'index-pays.

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Abréviation utilisée:

— Arch. = archives.

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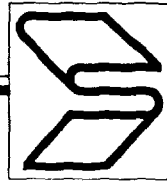
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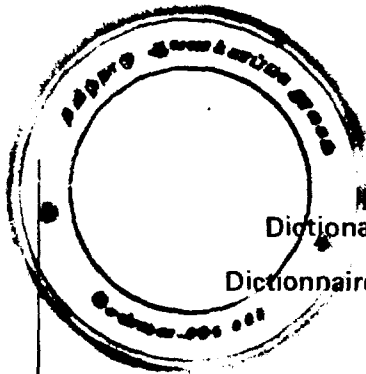
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This glossary attempts to assemble some 600 definitions of terms in common use throughout the archival profession. The glossary is arranged in English language alphabetical order of terms with definitions in English. This is followed by the French equivalent of the term and its French definition. Finally, the equivalent terms (without definition) in Dutch, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish are given. With alphabetical Indices of Dutch, French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish terms.

The glossary may prove of use to archivists in every country to increase mutual comprehension of each other's usages and practices. It is also intended to help bridge the gap which continues to exist between archivists and records managers and their colleagues in the field of information science. Finally, it is hoped that this work will help fill a long-standing need amongst the basic tools for the training and education of archivists and records managers and may also prove of value to users of records and archives.

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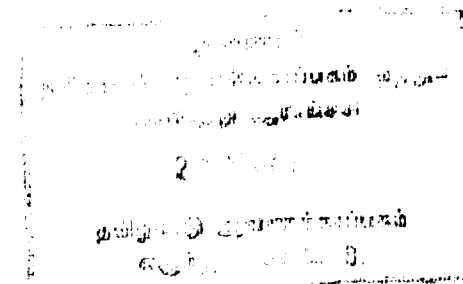
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