HARRY DAY, son of a general store operator in the small mining town of Wardner, in the Coeur d'Alene mining region of northern Idaho, staked his Hercules lode claim atop a ridge above Burke Canyon in 1889. Continually for twelve years Harry and his partners labored before one of them struck rich ore on June 2, 1901. As if in a classic tale of the West, within weeks the Hercules became a mine, and by the end of the year the Days and their partners were rich. For over forty years thereafter, the Days expanded their mineral holdings. The Hercules played out by 1925 but with Hercules profits the Days gained control of Tamarack & Custer Consolidated, Dayrock, and Sherman Lead mines, which continued for decades as notable silver-lead-zinc producers. The "Day Interests" also swallowed up numerous smaller concerns, many of them never productive, but each representing some former owner's dreams of wealth.

Harry's son Henry L. Day reorganized twelve of the mining companies controlled by his family into one firm, Day Mines, Inc., with headquarters in Wallace, Idaho, in 1947. Day Mines then owned 719 patented claims in the Coeur d'Alenes, amounting to 10,000 acres, the largest body of mineral lands in the region. As the local mines faltered, Day Mines, Inc., searched the American West for new mineral properties, eventually operating gold, silver, lead, copper and other mines in the states of Washington, Utah, Colorado, and the province of British Columbia, as well as in Idaho. When Henry L. Day retired in 1972, management passed from the hands of the Day family, and in 1981 the Hecla Mining Company, drawn by Day Mines, Inc.'s rich mineral reserves, acquired the Day empire through an exchange of stock, making Hecla for a time the largest silver mining company in the United States.

Hecla had no interest in Day Mines' older records, and between 1981 and 1984 Henry L. Day donated them, in several accessions, to the University of Idaho. There they remained piled in the library basement until resources could be found to process them and make them available to researchers. A collection this large was beyond the everyday processing capabilities of the Special Collections Department. Since these records were thought to have value greater than the local histories of the individual companies represented--particularly so as the archival literature had previously given relatively little attention to the research values of industrial records--two subvention grants were obtained. Under the first, from the National Historical Publications and Records Commission, the author was employed as project archivist from late 1986 into 1989; under the second, from the U.S. Department of Education, Michael Tarabulski was employed in the same capacity in 1991-1992.

My first sight of the Day mining records, on December 2, 1986, gave the impression of an amorphous mass, overflowing from ramshackle shelves, heaped up on the basement floor: unlabeled cartons, loose handfuls of correspondence, drawers out of filing cabinets, bundles of file folders tied with string, shipping crates of diverse sizes, leather-bound volumes large and small, diplomas, framed photographs, chest x-rays, and other items. In such a state it was impossible to accurately gauge the volume of this material, but the best guess was a little under 2,000 cubic feet. In the weeks ahead, each box, file drawer, volume, or cluster of loose material had to be inspected one at a time to identify--or at least make a preliminary guess at--its creator, date, and type of record so that this information could be placed in a

RICHARD C. DAVIS, Manuscripts-Archives Librarian at the University of Idaho, presented an early form of this paper to the MHA 1992 convention in
personal computer database. Once sorted and printed, the resulting crude “preliminary inventory” provided a glimpse of how complex the collection was, how many companies, partnerships, and persons had been responsible for creating it; the first real knowledge of what we had. With preliminary inventory in hand, student assistants could begin roughing out the arrangement of each company’s records, one company at a time.

By the summer of 1987 enough was known about the mining records and the functions they had served to begin drafting tentative appraisal guidelines, initially based on a test-case analysis of the records of one firm, the Hercules Mining Company, which at that time included about 300 cubic feet (since reduced to 73 cubic feet). These guidelines considered both evidential and informational values, were influenced by a desire to retain unique information, and were intended to balance information against bulk. In February 1988 the guidelines and analysis were circulated for criticism from three categories of experts: historical researchers; subject experts “knowledgeable about a particular discipline” as creators of records; in our case mining executives and engineers; and fellow archivists with prior experience in business records. (We knew of no archivists with prior experience with such a collection of mining records.) We asked a total of eighteen persons. Only eight actually made substantive comment, but the review process publicized the collection among people most likely to appreciate its potential and perhaps reassure some historians who might have feared Idaho was infested with vandal archivists intent upon trash ing the sources of history. As one critic remarked, he had “read the report like a historian, prepared to complain about the discard of potentially meaningful materials, but find myself without any complaints of that sort.”

Our referees, it turned out, made vital contributions in provoking some reconsideration of the relative value of specific record types.

We identified and inventoried records of a total of ninety-two mining corporations and/or partnerships (counting corporate reorganizations and name changes), three corporations engaged in activities not related directly to mining, and ten persons, all of whom were either members of the Day family or key members of business enterprises dominated by the Day family. These materials were assigned to eighty-seven manuscript groups, arranged, and inventoried. Groups varied in size and diversity from a single item, the Records of the Fern Mining Company, one book of directors’ minutes, to the 76 cubic feet, after appraisal and weeding, of the records of the Tamarack & Custer Consolidated Mining Company. The earliest records are a few fragments in the papers of Harry Day from the 1880s; the most recent are among the letters and clippings of Henry L. Day which extend almost to his death in 1984. The great bulk date between the 1910s and the early 1950s. Most of it derives from lead, silver, and zinc mining and milling in the Coeur d’Alenes and the related smelters in Northport, Washington, and Carnegie, Pennsylvania, but there are small amounts from gold, silver, and copper ventures in other Western states and Canada. By the time the initial mass of the Day collection had been sorted by company, boxed, and shelved, the actual volume was found to be about 1,600 cubic feet. Once appraisal standards were established, 42 percent of this—bulky records mostly in long runs of routine material—could fairly readily be segregated for discard in the first two years of the project. The last year of work saw another 23 percent weeded based on closer inspection of the files. This left about 560 cubic feet of material, about 35 percent of the original bulk.

If this reduction seems alarming, consider the statistics claimed for the federal government of the United States, where under 2 percent of all the records ever produced become archives. However, in the National Archives, and, as I will try to show, in our treatment of the Day mining records, these reduction figures “represent volume and not information.”

In an attempt to gain a sense of the sources found useful by mining historians, I examined a variety of published monographs. The majority of mining histories, I found, either have avoided unpublished sources altogether or cite only personal papers and scattered individual manuscripts in repositories. About a half-dozen of those I examined used such primary material as records of county clerks and recorders, courts, mining districts, labor unions, and documents filed with companies registration agencies and stock exchanges. I found something more than a dozen mining histories listing corporate records in their bibliographies. Not all of them used these records in an important way, and many of those which did seemed to have found value only in the correspondence contained therein. Most of those that went beyond correspondence were still limited to narrative materials. Joseph Cash, Working the Homestake, cited individual reports, lists, and letters in the Homestake Mining Company’s records in Lead, South Dakota. David and Brenda Stone, Hardrock Gold, claimed reliance upon the records of the Alaska Juneau Gold Mining Company, in the possession of the Alaska Light & Power Company. James W. Byrkitt, Forging the Copper Collar, found in “the old United Verde Copper Company records, provided by Jerome historian Herbert V. Young...a rich vein,” noting in particular the use of reports by mine operators and detectives for owners’ and managers’ political concerns.

John Fahey’s The Days of the Hercules, based on the Day material when it was still in private hands, largely used the letters of Harry Day, somewhat pre-selected by Henry L. Day. Few books on mining history seem to
have depended upon non-narrative record types. Ronald Brown, *Hard Rock Miners*, cited, among other records, employee time slips of the B.O.B. Mining and Milling Company of New Mexico for discussions of wage stability and leases for property holdings and development, found in collections of personal papers in the University of New Mexico Library. More recently, Clark Spence, *The Conrey Placer Mining Company*, used a more diverse array of mining records, including accounting journals (for property purchases, maintenance costs, and capital investments), expense accounts (for freight and equipment costs), sales orders (for equipment and conditions of shipment), specifications books (for quality and design of equipment), deeds and patent notices (for acquisition of claims), chiefly in the Baker Library of Harvard University, and Larry Lankton, *Cradle to Grave: Life, Work, and Death at the Lake Superior Copper Mines*, examined the impact of technology on labor, in part through the study of "time books," "contract books," and "invoice books."13

There has not been enough research use of mining records to provide guidance in deciding how to reduce the great bulk of the rich variety of record types in the Day collection to manageable proportions. We are not much concerned here with the primary value of the records, which related to the needs of the enterprises which produced them, but with their secondary values, for subsequent researchers. Traditional archival theory defines these secondary values as two types: evidence on the organization and management of capital and labor to effect the purposes of the enterprise; and information on the persons, places, and things with which that enterprise did business (such as the mine worker and the investor, the mining town and the political system, the technology applied and the landscape exploited). The analysis of the records against the concepts of evidential values, which document the nature and actions of the organization creating the record, and informational values, which document the subjects, places, and persons with which that organization dealt; are familiar as the theory developed in the National Archives and explicated most thoroughly by Theodore Schellenberg, a Ph.D-trained historian.14 These values are logically related in that both depend upon the provenance of the records: informational values in archives gain their validity from the evidential aspect of the same body of records, just as knowledge of authorship and the author's purposes in writing is essential to enable the researcher to interpret the meaning of any person document.15

Archival appraisal depends on analysis; it is no more capable of being reduced to a mechanical routine than is historical scholarship, if it is to provide a meaningful framework for assessment of the research potential of a body of records against the objective costs of maintaining a large bulk of material indefinitely. Here follow representative examples of the application of appraisal decisions to the Day mines records.16

Among records documenting the organization of an economic enterprise are those concerning the selection of company leadership and the formation of policies: directors' and stockholders' minutes; files of incorporation, meeting, and election documents; narrative annual reports; annual operating statements; monthly financial statements; series of general correspondence; and series consisting entirely of mineral patents, deeds, contracts and other legal documents. These records, which we might call policy records, relating to the highest level of decision making and broadest range of activities, were weeded of duplicates but otherwise kept intact.

The much bulkier operating and housekeeping records present a more difficult appraisal problem. We sought to avoid what has been described as the "tip of the iceberg"17 approach to appraisal, but in fact operating and housekeeping records suffered far greater reduction in bulk than did policy records. The appraisal process, as developed in the first two years of the Day mining records project, was largely comparative and subtractive, identifying each record type, analyzing its function and its relationships with other records, and discarding those among several possible sources of any given type of data determined not to provide the best access to that information, taking into account difficulty of use and bulk, among other considerations.

The voluminous and specialized records resulting from myriad day-to-day economic transactions were kept when they were cumulative and often discarded when they recorded only individual transactions.18 To give one example: mining companies upon receipt of a bill or invoice from a supplier might typically make an entry in a shoddy, temporary volume we have termed an "invoice register." Once paid, stamped with a number, and filed, the invoice became a voucher and the transaction was entered in an often well-bound volume called a "voucher register." An illustration, in itself insignificant, will compare the informational content of each of these documents. A Hercules invoice register gives for a typical transaction, the purchase of a newspaper subscription, the date Aug. 26, 1919; the filing number 3005; the amount $85; and the notations Jack Quinn, *Spokesman Review*; subscription to *Review*; Aug. 1 to Sep. 1, 1919. This is, in this instance, about all the information the voucher itself contains. For the same transaction, the voucher register gives the date Aug. 28 (two days later); the same name, Jack Quinn, same filing number, same dollar amount, and adds the facts that the check was drawn on Wallace Bank & Trust Company and the expense charged against the office
expense account. But it omitted mention of the purpose of the expense. Of the two volumes, only the invoice register identified the item purchased, but only the voucher register named the account to which the expense was charged. Lacking an invoice register, discarding the vouchers would mean that some information would be lost on the specific equipment required to run a mining company. But could such a minute level of information justify keeping a vast sea of vouchers? Some vouchers included lists up to 100 pages or more of items purchased. Sometimes only different sizes of screws, bolts, nuts, and other small supplies. Should we keep such bulky series or is it enough to document that on a certain date the company spent a certain amount on such materials from a certain supplier? We concluded that vouchers could nearly always be discarded when their contents were covered in either an invoice register or a voucher register. In the Tamarack and Custer, for example, 3 volumes of voucher registers and 2 volumes of invoice registers allowed the discard of 24,742 vouchers, filling almost 64 feet of shelving. But with many other companies, when cumulative expense and income records were lacking, we kept much smaller numbers of vouchers.

How far could we go in discarding accounting records? In judging the value of such specialized materials, the knowledge of our experts proved most useful. In the archival literature one can find both the caution that “all general subsidiary journals and ledgers, with their indexes” should be kept; and the license that “the archivist may elect carefully to destroy all entry documentation and journals in favor of an indexed ledger.” Journals and ledgers contain substantially the same information, in a different arrangement, and the discarding of the journals would save much space, but it would have been “a terrible mistake,” our historian of accounting explained, for “journals and ledgers work as a set. Accountants need both to reconstruct the financial history of a company....It would be extremely difficult or perhaps impossible to reconstruct the general journal from the ledgers.” Corporate records are parts in an interacting mechanism and their appraisal depends upon an understanding of the functioning of each part, and not upon following a convenient rule of thumb or conventional wisdom offered by some earlier archivist.

The sale of capital stock was nearly as basic to the mining enterprise as exploration for and extraction of mineral wealth. The Day collection will be a rich source for determining not only who became wealthy, but also those (perhaps larger in number), who would have found their own experiences described in this contemporary doggerel:

Paper mining is a game
Not so difficult to play;
But mining down beneath the ground
Is something else, I'd say.
To build a shaft on paper
Is as simple as can be;
But to sink it down straight in the ground
Is quite different, you see.
So take it from me, fellow,
If you're raring to buy stock--You may get a lot of paper,
But maybe not much rock.

In a manner analogous to the operation of accounting journals and ledgers, capital stock journals and stock ledgers together provide both a chronological and a name arrangement to information on changes in ownership of the corporation; all have been kept. The same information is found on cancelled certificates, of which our mining records contain many, volumes, pasted back to the stubs. As long as both stock ledgers and journals existed covering the same years, we discarded certificates, except those few, like the single volume for the Hercules, which had related correspondence, wills, and other legal documents glued or stapled to them. As handsome documents, stock certificates are sought by collectors; they can also be quite bulky, those for the Tamarack & Custer alone filling 10.5 feet of shelving. Despite the advice of one of our consultants that cancelled stock certificates were “of value for research,” we could come to no conclusion but that, when stock journals and ledgers are complete, certificates have no evidential or informational value not duplicated elsewhere.

In spite of our desire to reduce the volume of the collection as far as consistent with saving research values, it was redundancy of information, never bulk in itself, that sentenced records for discard. Sometimes, however, records would be kept because they contained basically similar information presented in a different arrangement. For example, records of the major companies contain a great deal of documentation on the workforce, and much of it is not only bulky but relates to very minor matters. The "employment cards," existing from 1916 through most of the 1920s, designate such information as the individual's birthplace, marital and family status, age, previous injuries, employment experience and languages spoken. Payrolls, covering all classes from muckers to executives, give more specifically work-related information such as jobs held, shifts worked, pay rates, deductions for board, hospital insurance, and “orders.” In the payrolls are also totals in each category for each part of the operations of larger
mines, and for each of the firms and persons to which the deductions were credited. Here we find, for example, that one Burke grocer in September 1922 received a check for $151.24 in "orders" from the pay of three miners employed by the Hercules, in each case taking the man's entire monthly earnings. Following passage of Social Security legislation in the 1930s, the payrolls were supplemented by "compensation records," which arrange the same data, chronological in the payroll, into separate accounts for each employee, and also provide additional personal information such as had been recorded for an earlier period on the employment cards. Sometimes the compensation records can be used to trace a worker's career as he moved from one company to another, and the alphabetical arrangement tends to bring family members together. All of these records are bulky. For the Hercules alone the employment cards, several thousand items, were 3 cubic feet; the payrolls, 13 volumes, 5.5 cubic feet; and the compensation records, 4 volumes, another cubic foot. But all is obviously potentially very useful for research, whether for the genealogist who might be after specific individuals or the social historian who might want quantifiable data on large numbers. All of these kinds of record were deemed worthy of saving.

Payrolls, in archival terms, are largely "informational" rather than "evidential" in value. But sometimes records were deemed to have archival value primarily for their evidence bearing on the interpretation of other records. For the Tamarack & Custer in the 1910s and 1920s there were several folders of "authorizations to deduct orders from pay," signed by the employee and consisting of printed or typed forms supplied by local merchants. The essential information on these forms is also in the payrolls, but had I not seen the authorizations, I might never have been so sure exactly what the word "orders" meant in the payrolls.

Thus, the mining records appraisal proceeded first by careful study of the records (and of available external sources) to learn the functions the records had performed and their relationship to one other. Subsequently, the elimination of as much bulk as consistent with protecting evidence and information delivered a resource more useful--and certainly more economical to store and maintain--than the original mass could be.27 Appraisal in the mining records project became an evaluative and subtractive procedure. Perhaps it is not too fanciful to imagine the archivist analyzing, arranging, describing records like a sculptor studies and measures marble, each discarding material judged superfluous. The process of "taking away," Michelangelo reflected, "brings out a living figure...which...grows the more as the stone is chipped away."28

Historians typically have not demonstrated a clear understanding of archival appraisal. Certainly a "tip of the iceberg" appraisal will not meet the needs of many lines of research, but it hardly follows that archivists should eschew appraisal altogether, as has been advocated.29 "Tip of the iceberg" is a caricature of the Schellenbergian values theory. As the preceding discussion should suggest, evidential and informational values, properly understood, need not so restrict the records saved. An understanding of these values and their application should beneficially expand a researcher's grasp of the nature of the sources upon which historical scholarship depends. But, as the archivist Maynard Brichford lamented twenty years ago, the vital question, "how does archival evaluation affect our evidential and informational heritage...does not interest our historical brethren."30 More recently Susan Grigg noted on the part of historians "some lack of attention to how evidence and actuality are related...Practicing historians have generally not debated or even recognized issues in this part of their common knowledge."31

Archivists are equally remiss in having a poor understanding of what researchers are really doing when they visit their repositories.32 The superficiality of some archivists' conceptions of scholarship is revealed by such remarks as "the study of ideas has been superseded by the study of behavior,"33 as if no one worthy of the name historian would study ideas ever again. While archivists commendably make studies purporting to explore "historians' conceptions of the research process," these easily give the impression of a view from without, and results predicting "heavy concentration on techniques of evaluating and weighing evidence, with far less attention to how evidence is obtained in the first place,"34 too comfortably fit a tendency to seek refuge in records management for fiscal, phyleological, and intellectual reasons.35

With historiography variable and research trends unpredictable, archival appraisal obviously needs some measure other than current observation of research trends. This is the merit of the evidential and informational values: they provide a basis of preserving imparit in records.36 At the least, archival decisions must not be arbitrary. The good archivist will not frantically stuff records into procrustean categories; he will listen to the records and plan according to what they say. While archivists usually discard vouchers, for example, it is mindless to do so without knowing what kinds of information will thereby be lost in any particular collection, and without considering whether a sometimes discardable record might not be worth keeping in the absence of other, more cumulative records. The archivist must also be aware of the evidential value of even minor records (such as the Tamarack & Custer authorizations), which may seem insignificant from the standpoint of the corporation's leadership and administration. Even if the information in them is not unique,
the key to some puzzle once its origin and function is understood. Finally, the archivist ought to keep a meaningful record of all materials discarded, not merely a statement that certain types of materials were not kept, but the dates, coverage, and volume of each type discarded. To do otherwise would deny the researcher the opportunity to see the evolution of the organization that created the records he is studying. If the researcher troubles to pursue it, this knowledge of context can be as useful to the criticism of research sources as it is in allowing the archivist to gauge evidential and informational values. While legend has it that some medical doctors bury their mistakes, intellectual integrity forbids the archivist from doing so. Just as the wise patient keeps the doctor honest by demanding explanations of medication or surgery, so should the researcher keep watch on the processes used in preparing what will become, after all, the sources for history.

ENDNOTES


3The University of Idaho has published a comprehensive guide to all the day mining records: *Day to Day: The Historic Day Mines Group of Northern Idaho: A Guide to Records of Mining Companies in the University of Idaho Library*, edited by Terry Abraham and Richard C. Davis (Moscow: University of Idaho Library, 1992).


6The only article dealing with mining records that I have found in the archival literature, other than my own "Getting the Lead Out," cited below, is Maureen A. Jung, "Documenting Nineteenth-Century Quarry Mining in Northern California," *American Archivist* 53 (Summer 1990) 406-18, which was published subsequently to the important part of the appraisal work on the Day Mines project. Unlike the present article, which springs from an analysis of a finite body of material, Jung attempts a retrospective application of "documentation strategy," seeking to identify potential documentation from all sources. The original explanation of "documentation strategy" is Helen W. Samuels, "Who Controls the Past?" *American Archivist* 49 (Spring 1986) 109-24.


8When processing was finally completed, there still remained three cubic feet of Day material, mainly bound volumes, which could not be identified with a known mining company. This material has been kept, pending further study.

9James G. Bradsher, "When One Percent Means a Lot: The Percentage of Permanent Records in the National Archives," *OAH Newsletter*, May 1985, 20. Comparison of the discard rates of mining records and federal records is not strictly accurate, as we can never be certain exactly how much bulk of mining records was ever created (as opposed to the bulk accessioned by the University of Idaho). My impression is that the records of at least the major companies from the mid-1900s to the 1940s were substantially complete. There were few obvious gaps of significance. The earliest records were more fragmentary and so are the latest ones, for Day Mines Inc. Missing for the latter company were the most important (from the standpoint of evidential value) records, such as minutes and executive correspondence, which were presumably kept back by Heda for their continuing usefulness, and the great bulk of housekeeping records. Vouchers of Day Mines Inc., for example, were almost entirely absent.


For further discussion, see Richard C. Davis, “Getting the Lead Out,” 462-63.

For a comprehensive account of what types of records exist in the Day collections, what functions they served, how they relate to one another, and what specific records there are for each of the corporations and partnerships, see Day to Day, pp. 4-16.


Ralph Hower, perhaps the leading early proponent of the archival preservation of business records in the United States, in “The Appraisal of Business Records,” Bulletin of the Business Historical Society 11 (October 1937) 44, would keep vouchers if their contents are not recorded in registers.


Cole, “Principles for the Selection of Materials,” pp. 355-56, advises the discard of stock certificates. Jung, “Documenting Nineteenth-Century Quartz Mining in Northern California,” p. 416, asserts that “share certificates” have no “alternative information source.” And for “stock transfer records” she makes the same assertion. But from close comparison of our 20th century Idaho mining records I could not avoid the conclusion that the presence of stock journals and ledgers clearly made stock certificates redundant, except when special circumstances exist, as mentioned in the text.


Philip Bauer as early as 1946 asserted that “values must be weighted against costs.” The Appraisal of Current and Recent Records, National Archives Staff Information Circulars, no. 13 (June 1946). The practical concerns of saving large bodies of records have increasingly become a subject of discussion since then. See Frank Boles, in association with Julius M. Young, Archival Appraisal (New York: Neal Schuman, 1991), especially pp. 2-14 and 54-74.


Susan Grigg, “Archival Practice and the Foundations of Historical Method,” Journal of American History 78 (June 1991) 229. Grigg correctly advocates that scholars should learn to use a knowledge of archival principles to locate materials. She sees “provenance as part of a broader insight into the contextuality of historical sources...The provenance of a primary source is the historical actuality from which it arose” (p. 228). Grigg did not go on, as she might have, to point out that “contextuality” also bears on not only the location but also the evaluation of these sources, an insight implied nearly a half-century earlier by the historian Louis Gottschalk, who observed “if the document is where it ought to be...its provenance...creates a presumption of its genuineness.” See “The Historian and the Documentary,” in Louis Gottschalk, Clyde Kluckhohn, and Robert Angell, The Use of Personal Documents in History, Anthropology, and Sociology (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1947), pp. 29-30, italics in the original.


Peter A. Baskerville and Chad M. Gaffield, “The Vancouver Island Project: Historical Research and Archival Practice,” Archives 17 (Winter 1983) 1-17.


The modern history of archivists has been a search for professional identity. For an attempt at a comprehensive discussion of the issues involved, see William J. Maher, “Contexts for Understanding Professional Certification: Opening a Pandora’s Box?” American Archivist 51 (Fall 1988) 408-27. Some archivists, such as Randall C. Jimerson, “Redefining Archival Identity: Meeting User Needs in the Information Society,” American Archivist 52 (Summer 1989) 332-40, seem driven by fear of “becoming irrelevant” (p. 332). The sharpest of many debates, including both Canadian and American participants, on whether archivists should be information professionals or a special kind of historian, raged for two years in Archivaria in the aftermath of George Belotenko’s article, “Archivists and Historians: Keepers of the Well” 16 (Summer 1983) 5-25, and concluded with the same author’s “Instant Professionalism: To the Shiny New Men of the Future” 20 (Summer 1985) 149-57. A pessimistic view was expressed in Marilyn Pettit, “Archivist-Historians: An Endangered Species,” OAIH Newsletter, February 1992, p. 11. A related theme, the organizational as well as the intellectual relations between archivists and historians, has been a frequent subject in archival literature. Especially useful for a historical perspective are Ernst Posner, “Max Lichmann and the Genesis of the Principle of Provenance,” in his Archives and the Public Interest (Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1967), p. 41; William F. Birdsall, “The Two Sides of the Desk: The Archivist and the

36For more along this line see Richard C. Davis, “Getting the Lead Out,” especially pp. 462-63.


Courtesy Henry Hinck, Clarkston, Washington