Exploring New Vistas in History and Economics:

The Goldsmiths' Kress Library of Economic Literature

The Pleasant Art of MONEY CATCHING

Frontispiece
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by Kenneth E. Carpenter
The Goldsmiths’-Kress Library of Economic Literature was created by combining on microfilm two of the world’s great historical collections — the Goldsmiths’ Library at the University of London and the Kress Library of Business Administration, Harvard University. When completed, the microfilm collection of the non-duplicated holdings of these libraries will consist of almost 60,000 titles, making the project one of the largest microfilm collections of historical sources ever published. Because the project is so large, it has been divided into segments; the first, Printed Books Through 1800, is complete. The 30,000 titles in this segment have all been filmed; the printed bibliography has been published; and catalog cards for each item are also ready. Work on Segment 2: 1801-1850, consisting of approximately 29,000 titles, is underway. The majority of the titles in both segments are in English; in addition there are extensive holdings in Danish, Dutch, French, German, Italian, Latin, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish.

This microfilm collection is a magnificent resource for various types of historians — a fact which can perhaps best be made clear by an account of the history of the two libraries which form the collection. The most important fact about the collection is that it has been over one hundred years in the making. The two libraries which constitute the microfilm publication began as private collections of a passionate economist and book collector. Upon becoming part of university libraries, the collections were neither broken up nor regarded as finished masterpieces. Instead, Goldsmiths’ and Kress have steadily changed and grown, in response both to opportunities on the antiquarian market, and their curators’ perceptions of the needs of present and future historians.

The nucleus of both libraries was collected by Herbert Somerton Foxwell (1848-1936), Fellow at St. John’s, Cambridge, and professor at University College, London. He bought the first book for what was to become the Goldsmiths’ Library in 1875, and thereafter devoted a large part of the next sixty years to book buying. Time, even more than money, was the important factor in assembling a great economics collection, although the passion with which Foxwell went about collecting meant that money was also required. Foxwell often bought for pence and shillings, but he bought thousands of items, an average of over a thousand a year. The only way this could be done was by constant hunting. Foxwell’s competition was more the wastepaper dealers than the Morgans and the Hunttings. He had to rummage around for his books, and during some years he walked an average of seven and a half miles a day in their search.

The material Foxwell sought was largely pamphlets and broadsides. Of course, there are substantial treatises in the field of economics by writers such as Sir James Steuart, Adam Smith, David Ricardo, and Thomas Robert Malthus, but the vast bulk of early literature consists of rare, ephemeral publications supporting one side or another in controversies. Much of it is not even as substantial as pamphlets. The rarest are the broadsides, thousands of which were published in the latter decades of the seventeenth and the first of the eighteenth centuries. Their aim being to influence Parliament, they were issued in editions as small as two hundred copies.

Although pamphlets were usually published in large quantities, they, too, tend to be very rare. Their timeliness, their mundane subject matter, and their undistinguished appearance all contributed to casual discarding by the original purchaser or the heirs. Foxwell was well aware of the rarity of economic literature, and it must have always been in the back of his mind that his presence in the right place at the right time could save from destruction unique historical documents.

Foxwell was omnivorous in his collecting. He did not emphasize particular periods, certain aspects of economics, or particular schools. He sought to gather everything. One indication of this is that his collections have magnificent holdings of early socialist literature, the first two editions of The Communist Manifesto being in Kress. Foxwell had a keen interest in all aspects of the literature depicting the struggle of the working class to improve its living and working conditions. In writing about his collecting Foxwell once stated.

If any partiality has been shown, it has been in the desire to put in evidence the scanty and obscure literature which gives a clue to the opinions of the almost inarticulate masses of the people, literature which will probably have for future ages a very special and pathetic interest.¹
Foxwell also compiled a bibliography of British socialism, one of the few publications he found time for in his busy career as a collector.  

Foxwell’s collecting was so intense that he was able to acquire over a thousand items a year. This does not mean that economic literature was common, but rather that in England it was large in quantity. Individually, the items are very rare. Copies of works which are unique, or at least bibliographically unrecorded, continue to turn up. During most years, some previously unknown works are added to Kress. In this light the hundred years of collecting takes on particular importance. A library formed during one particular period, even if collecting is intense, necessarily lacks those works which are simply not on the market. A hundred years were required to gather much that is in this microfilm collection.

To say this is not to denigrate Foxwell’s contribution. Without his labor and financial sacrifice, the literature of economics would have been widely scattered and much less useful. At worst, some works would have been destroyed and lost forever. Despite Foxwell’s passion for preserving neglected records of the past, his financial resources were limited, and the sacrifice eventually became too much for him. By 1898, he had reached the limit of his credit, and was forced to sell. Foxwell’s first collection almost came to the United States, to the John Crerar Library in Chicago, but the authorities there agreed to stand aside if a British purchaser could be found. Following a national appeal, the Goldsmiths’ Company agreed to the purchase in 1901, and then presented the collection to the University of London.

Named the Goldsmiths’ Library, it consisted of about 30,000 titles. Although it was strong in French material which Foxwell had purchased on visits to the quais, and also had a considerable quantity in other European languages, its great strength was in English books. Because of this, it was regarded as a British national treasure; consequently, once installed at the University of London, English acquisitions were emphasized. For a time, purchases were made under the direction of Foxwell himself. Over the years, the size of the library doubled, with the number of titles published before 1851 amounting to approximately 40,000.

The emphasis on English language acquisitions was accompanied by a considerable breadth in terms of subject. This is made clear from the headings in the Catalogue of the Goldsmiths’ Library. The books are arranged chronologically, and within each year they are broken down into broad subject categories; the same categories are also used in the Consolidated Guide. They are: General; Agriculture, including fishing, mining, surveying, and landed property; Corn Laws, including their agricultural, financial, and commercial aspects; Population; Trades and Manufactures, including practical manuals and technology; Commerce, including shipping, piracy, and smuggling; Colonies; Finance; Transport; Social Conditions; Slavery; Politics; Socialism; and Miscellaneous.

As these categories indicate, the Goldsmiths’ Library is more than an economics collection; it could be called a social science collection. This is confirmed by a glance at the material under certain categories. For instance, under Social Conditions one finds many works on prisons and hospitals, subjects which at Harvard fall within the collecting domain of libraries other than Kress. The subject breadth of Goldsmiths’ enhances the ability of the microfilm collection to serve many different types of historians.

Kress, too, began like Goldsmiths’, as the private collection of Herbert Somerton Foxwell. With the proceeds from the sale of his first collection, Foxwell, a bibliomaniac, had to start collecting all over again, and eventually history repeated itself. Again, in 1929, Foxwell announced that his collection was for sale. Visitors from Harvard came to see it, and they were enthusiastic. Dean Wallace B. Donham of the Harvard Business School, possessed of a vision of a great library at the Business School which would enable scholars to study the roots of American business, signed a personal note for the collection. It was to be payable on Foxwell’s death, at which time delivery of the collection was to take place. Finding a donor in 1936, the year of Foxwell’s death, was more difficult than the Dean had envisaged in 1929, but Claude Washington Kress, a descendant of an old Nuremberg merchant family which made its fortune in this country in five and ten cent stores, agreed to the purchase.

Once the Kress Library was established in rooms in Baker Library, it was decided that Kress would be the central Harvard repository for economic literature published before 1850. Early books in the Baker stacks were moved into Kress. These included some very rare works in a variety
of languages, among them the first printed description of the double entry system of bookkeeping by Luca Pacioli, dated 1494. In view of the relative weakness of Foxwell’s collection in languages other than English and French, transfers of early German and Spanish literature particularly strengthened Kress. The German transfers consisted largely of Cameralist treatises; many more ephemeral German pamphlets on finance and commerce came with the acquisition of the economic portion of the library of the Berlin banker Paul Wallich shortly after World War II.

Scandinavian books were almost entirely absent from Foxwell’s collections, but in the early 1950’s the librarian of Baker Library, Arthur H. Cole, decided that Kress should have the most important works. He had a list drawn up which was circulated to booksellers with fruitful results.

The foreign language area which, next to French, was the strongest in the nucleus of Kress, was Italian. At some point the library of the Marchese di Salsa, perhaps the best economics collection in eighteenth century Italy, had been brought to England, and Foxwell made extensive purchases from that library. Additional Italian acquisitions continued, particularly beginning in the 1960’s when grants from the Kress Foundation made possible book buying trips abroad. On those trips books from the Continent were emphasized, with relatively little time spent in London.

In the 1970’s the remaining policy decisions against buying certain types of foreign language materials were entirely swept away as Kress wholeheartedly attempted to do for the Continent what Foxwell had done for England and in large part for France. No longer was Kress satisfied to have only the works by foreign authors of note. Now, the Library wanted it all — a pamphlet issued by a German railroad, a scheme for taking care of the poor in an Italian city, a Swedish translation of a German writer, or a pamphlet on a Portuguese fishing company. All were seen as possible purchases. Nothing was considered too local or too out of the way to be automatically excluded.

To a considerable extent this attempt to build research collections in all the languages of Western Europe — Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish — has been successful. The Library’s Italian holdings are, according to the noted historian of the eighteenth century, Franco Venturi, better than those of any single Italian library. The same might also be true for Germany. For other countries with a long history of a strong national library, Kress will never be more than a strong second. Kress, though, is unique in being a strong second for one country after another. Since the various national libraries are rarely strong in economic literature from other countries, Kress, with the very substantial assistance of Goldsmiths’, has made possible on microfilm a unique breadth of foreign language materials.

Kress was able to accomplish this in part because of the strong base which existed. Previous librarians had emphasized acquisition of the most important and expensive works of the major writers. Since they are the ones which command the highest prices, the Library’s resources could go far in the purchase of ephemeral and pamphlet literature, often by little-known writers.

An even more important factor is the relative modernity of economic literature which has tended to mean it was on the market, and at moderate prices as well. Although these two libraries cover from the fifteenth to the midnineteenth century, economic literature in any sizeable quantity does not really go back to the fifteenth century. Goldsmiths’-Kress has much of what there was, but there simply was not much.

England was the first country to have a substantial economic literature, beginning about the middle of the seventeenth century. In France the output mushroomed later. There are hundreds of decrees and other legal publications published in France during the seventeenth century which are included in Goldsmiths’-Kress, but writings by individuals on economic questions are relatively few until after John Law’s Mississippi Company failed in 1720. One of the repercussions of that failure was a debate on economic questions. This does not mean there was no economic writing before 1720. Jean Bodin, Boisguillebert, and Vauban stand out, but debate among a wide segment of the population did not come until later.

In Germany there was some economic literature around 1600, but the Thirty Years’ War killed off further production, except for a large pamphlet literature stimulated by inflation during the 1620’s. In 1727 the first chair of Cameralism was founded at Halle, and this led to some academic economic literature. However, the takeoff in Germany might really be considered to have occurred in the middle of the eighteenth century.

In Spain there was a flourishing Salamanca school during the sixteenth century; one of the gaps in Goldsmiths’-Kress is the failure to cover this material. Unfortunately, sixteenth century
Spanish books on any subject are of legendary rarity. In Spain the output was never large, although there was an increase in the second half of the eighteenth century. Portuguese economic literature was also thin until that period. Italian output, which was often distinguished in quality, also increased markedly in the second half of the eighteenth century.

Scandinavia produced almost nothing before the middle of the eighteenth century. In Denmark it was even considered lève majesté to write on economic questions until 1755. In both Denmark and Sweden there was a blossoming around the middle of the century. In Sweden the economic debate became so intense that in 1765 an economic pamphlet was produced every five days. Economic literature in Sweden did not continue at that pace, and for a quarter of a century after the end of Sweden's so-called "Age of Freedom" in 1771 writing on economics was small in quantity, although it never ceased.

Whereas in Europe the amount of economic literature burgeoned in the second half of the eighteenth century, in the United States there was no significant quantity until the nineteenth century. The Latin American holdings are also largely from the first half of the nineteenth century.

A count of the number of shelves of books from different periods in the Kress Library confirms the spurt in output around 1750. Fifteenth century books take up only one shelf; sixteenth century books, six shelves. For the whole of the seventeenth century, still only thirty shelves are required. One can see a considerable increase in the period from 1700 to 1750, the books from which cover fifty-eight shelves. Then comes the burgeoning — books printed between 1751 and 1800 fill 199 shelves, more than twice as many being issued in those fifty years as in all the time before. The period 1801 to 1850 shows continued growth in output, but there is not as significant an increase, the total number of shelves being 270.

This sketchy survey of the output of economic literature, at the same time that it helps explain why Kress was able to build up strong collections from many language areas, also points out the historical periods for which Goldsmiths'-Kress is a major historical resource — from the second half of the seventeenth century in England, and from the beginning of the eighteenth century for the Continent. Whatever the particular interest of the scholar working on this period, be it economic, political, social, technological, or intellectual history, it will be worthwhile to explore the holdings of the microfilm collection. This is true whatever Western European country one is concerned with.

The point, though, of building research collections from various countries was only in part to make possible research on economic thought and conditions in the individual countries. Despite the fact that such research is important and accounts for most of the use of the collection, another goal was also behind the expansion of its language scope. This was to make possible research which would be exceedingly difficult if not impossible were the books not together on the shelves of Kress, particularly comparative historical research.

An example is the paper which Fritz Redlich, a prominent business and economic historian, wrote on soup kitchens. These kitchens, a response to the suffering of the poor, were established during the last years of the eighteenth century in a number of cities, among them London, Paris, and Munich. Despite the fact that the pamphlets describing the soup kitchens are ephemeral, Redlich found enough in Kress to describe the national differences in the financing and administration of the kitchens. In this case, not only did Kress resources make the study possible, but they also stimulated its conception, for in a less broad library one would not have been able to see that the soup kitchens were established throughout Europe.

Another example is the industrial exhibitions which essentially started in France in 1798, spread throughout Europe, and culminated in the international Crystal Palace exhibition of 1851. Goldsmiths'-Kress has industrial exhibition catalogs and other related publications from Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Russia, Spain, and Switzerland. Despite the fact that those from Scandinavia have thus far eluded the Library's collecting, only in Kress was one ever likely to perceive that industrial exhibitions were held throughout Europe. Certainly, only in Kress is the collection sufficiently strong to study the literature for what it says about business and technology in Europe, and also for what it reveals about exhibitions as a means of furthering industrialization in Europe during the first half of the nineteenth century.

Yet another example of a European wide phenomenon was the economic or patriotic societies which spread throughout Europe in the second half of the eighteenth century. Kress, of course, does not have the journals of all the societies, but it does have publications for Denmark,
France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Russia (in German), Spain, and Sweden. Enough are available to be used not only for the information they contain about agriculture, but also for a comparative study of the societies themselves.

Of course, few individuals have both the language skills and the breadth and depth of background required to exploit fully source materials from many countries. The bringing together of the sources in one library does nothing to change that, but the microfilm collection should, nonetheless, in time stimulate more and better comparative work. In the past comparative studies have usually been undertaken by individuals working in widely scattered places. This was necessarily the case, because the sources were scattered. The product tends to be parallel rather than comparative history. Because of the breadth of the microfilm collection, it is now possible for scholars in one institution to work on the same topic, and to benefit from one another’s insights as the work progresses.

Another goal of the broad language collecting was to facilitate cross-cultural studies. In part, this means using materials produced in one country about conditions or thought in another. The foreign observer often sees and writes about what the native takes for granted. The result is useful both for students of the observed culture and of the observing. The historian of the American or British iron industry would tend not to look to Sweden for his sources, but the microfilm collection has accounts of Swedish observers of the British iron industry published in 1804, 1813, and 1811-17. The account of a Swedish visitor to the United States, published in 1845, has information not available elsewhere. English agriculture also interested the Continent, and particularly around 1800 several books appeared. In 1847, a Swede sent by the government published a description of the poor in Prussia and the attempts of the Prussian government to ameliorate their plight.

Many works about a culture in a foreign language are not travel accounts at all. An example is Cesar Moreau’s Ueber Wollhändel und Wollmanufaktur in Grossbritannien (Berlin, 1829), a work which is not recorded as having been published in English or French. Die Sparcassen in Europa by Freiherr von Malchus (Heidelberg and Leipzig, 1838) provides details of savings banks throughout much of Europe. Such works, examples of which could easily be multiplied, constitute a source which must be both among the most neglected and the most useful.

Another type of cross cultural collecting has been the gathering of translations. Especially in the eighteenth century, these often were not precise renderings of the original. The changes were not accidental, but deliberate. The French, for instance, confident of the superiority of French taste, made foreign works conform to the standards of that taste. Whereas the English had an eye for detail, the French removed much of this, and a pig in England became a barnyard animal in France. English works also tended to have sections which the French regarded as digressions and contrary to the principles of logical presentation. The result was that foreign works were sometimes rearranged in translation. Germans, on the other hand, scorned the French method of translating, but instead added extensive footnotes, perhaps discussing German conditions or pointing out so-called errors of the author. A German translator might also omit passages which were not considered useful for German readers. These and other ways of altering the original made translations into works which should be examined, preferably side by side with the original. With Goldsmiths’-Kress this is possible to a greater extent than ever before.

The collecting of translations along with originals is part of the larger aim of having edition after edition of an author’s work. The Library has always sought the less important works along with the major treatises, but more emphasis has come to be placed on having all editions of economic works, whatever the judgement of posterity has been about their quality. In a way, this type of collecting might not seem very sensible, but several factors lie behind it. One is that there has been a growing emphasis on textual studies, for which edition after edition is needed. This type of work, originally an Anglo-American variety of scholarship, used to be confined to literature. Now it has gone beyond literature, as shown by the recent bicentennial edition of Adam Smith’s Wealth of Nations. It has spread to the Continent as well. As historians of social scientific thought devote more attention to their texts, Goldsmiths’-Kress will be a major source.

Also, it is clear that the history of ideas has taken on new dimensions. In the past, intellectual history had often aimed at tracing the progress from error to truth, or, starting out with truth has looked back for precursors. Such approaches usually require a relatively limited number of titles, the main works only. However, intellectual historians are increasingly examining works in the
context of the events and problems which led to their composition, for only in that way can one see what the words really meant. There is also a greater emphasis on the processes by which ideas change and spread throughout a society. For such scholarship, one needs to see whether editions have been changed, and one also wants simply to know what was published. This is no easy matter to determine. One cannot compile a list of editions of a work merely by going to the catalogs of the major national libraries and the National Union Catalog. Since we so often do not know what was published, collecting books for a library like Goldsmiths’ or Kress does not resemble the collecting of stamps. There is no bibliographic stamp album with spaces numbered, just waiting to be filled in. The collecting of these libraries resembles much more the process of creating the album.

The analogy must not be carried too far. The creation of the bibliographic stamp album is only the first step. The fact that a card exists in a card catalog, or that there is an entry in a printed bibliography tends to conceal this. The black and white description of a book in the catalog of a great library sometimes seems to suggest to the scholar that a book has already told its story to preceding generations. This is not so, as anyone who could glimpse into the librarian’s head at the time of purchase or cataloging would know. Of course, the librarian tries to learn about a book before purchasing it. That is part of the process of making an intelligent decision. Yet books are bought despite the fact that or because nothing is known about them. For instance, in 1969 Kress purchased Pro-memoria an eine löbliche ständische Deputation, einen Vorschlag zu Erleichterung des ständischen Credites betreffend, despite a rather high price at that time. The book was undated, but clearly from the middle of the eighteenth century in Vienna. Recently, we learned that it was by a leading Austrian statesman, Ludwig, Graf von Zinzendorf, and that it was published in an edition of thirty copies. It is one of the most important Austrian economic treatises of the eighteenth century.

This information is not recorded in the entry for this book in the Consolidated Guide (number 9415.14), but even if it were this would not mean that the book had been used by historians. Both Goldsmiths’ and Kress have been underutilized libraries. Goldsmiths’ is across the street from the British Library, the institution to which the scholar tends to turn in preference to its smaller neighbor. Likewise, Kress, for the same reason, has not had the use it might otherwise have had, and, in addition, has been neglected because historians have not expected to find a great historical collection in the world’s pre-eminent institution for training captains of industry and finance.

Even if a steady stream of users had found their way to these libraries over the years, they would still continue to be unexhausted sources for historical studies. Books do not serve just one research purpose. To some extent this is because whether theoretical treatises or polemical pamphlets, the works themselves are complex. But also, even pamphlets have a variety of uses. For instance, a pamphlet blaming “monopolists” for the high price of foodstuffs might not satisfactorily explain the reason for high prices, but it will perhaps reveal other things about the past. The very title might show something about attitudes toward business. The historian of diet might find something in it. Perhaps the pamphlet describes a riot, in which case another historian will find it useful.

Increasingly, historians are asking questions and studying topics for which there is no ready body of source materials at hand. As an example, eighteenth century writers did not sit down and write essays about the attitudes of their contemporaries toward children, but twentieth century historians are interested in this. If a historian wants to study such a question, he or she has to use a wide variety of materials. The materials in the Goldsmiths’-Kress microfilm library should be among those consulted. This does not mean just those on child labor in the early days of the industrial revolution. There is also earlier material, going back to the second half of the seventeenth century, on workhouses for the poor, and this tells much about attitudes toward children.

In doing research on such a topic one needs to see a large quantity of material. That is exactly what Goldsmiths’-Kress has made possible. If the answer to the historian’s question can be found in the printed literature of economics, the chances are excellent it can be found in Goldsmiths’-Kress. To be sure, one does not have everything. If the historian needs to see everything relevant to a topic, other libraries must still be turned to for some items. This would tend to be the case where the subject is relatively narrow, with a small amount of literature published. On the other hand, the broad topic often requires that one see hundreds or even thousands of books, sometimes without
any assurance that particular items will be useful. For instance, one summer a researcher examined 777 books in Kress looking for statistics relating to the economy of the United States. He found what he wanted in only a fraction of those books. That both he and Kress librarians expected. The project, though, could not have been undertaken without access to a large quantity of works. The questions that would require a group of sources have tended not to be asked because of lack of access to the material. Goldsmiths'-Kress has changed this. Historians can now formulate new, broad, and important questions in the assurance that the dream has a chance of becoming reality.

In another sense scholars have available to them more than their predecessors ever had. The bibliographic tools accompanying Goldsmiths'-Kress make the literature of economics much more accessible than it has ever been. One of these bibliographical tools is catalog cards. The cards come in sets of three main entry cards for each title; that is, the heading is the author, or in the case of anonymous works the title. In the Kress Library, one set of cards has been filed chronologically by country of publication; this would mean, for example, that the person working on eighteenth century Spain would have a finite number of cards to go through. Other libraries might also wish to arrange a set in this fashion.

In addition, Research Publications has produced some subject guide cards which will be given gratis to purchasers of the microfilm library. These cards have at the top a subject heading such as Agriculture-Great Britain, and then read “information on this subject can be found in the microfilm collection The Goldsmiths'-Kress Library of Economic Literature”. This does not mean that one will then readily find just what one is looking for, but these cards should serve to remind library users of the existence of the microfilm collection.

Bibliographies can also be useful. The best of them all is Laurence W. Hanson’s Contemporary Printed Sources for British and Irish Economic History 1701-1750 (Cambridge, England, 1963). For completeness and accuracy it is superb. It also has a very good subject index. Other relevant bibliographies are listed in the appendix. They can be immensely useful, but one should keep in mind that Goldsmiths'-Kress has material not found in the bibliographies. This is so even for Hanson’s splendid work.

The major means of access to the collection is The Goldsmiths'-Kress Library of Economic Literature: A Consolidated Guide, produced and published by Research Publications. Arranged chronologically, it subdivides the material into subject categories under each year, the same categories used in the Goldsmiths' Catalogue. The problem is that one does not always know under which category a book might have been placed. For instance, a work on the commerce of a European country with its colonies tends to be under Commerce, but a user must also look under Colonies as well as General. In trying to determine the categories under which to look, there is no substitute for familiarity with the issues. As an example, the researcher interested in the Anglo-Dutch rivalry in the seventeenth century would certainly look under General, Commerce, and Trades and Manufactures, but should also check under Social Conditions because the movement to build workhouses was stimulated by a desire to put the population to work so as to overtake the Dutch. Rarely can the researcher look under only one category. An example would be the literature relating to industrial exhibitions, where the category Trades and Manufactures would suffice. Almost always one must look under General and one or two other categories.

In using the Consolidated Guide, it can be useful to keep in mind that most economic literature was produced in response to some controversy. An individual rarely sat down and wrote a book simply to advance knowledge in a disinterested fashion. This means that to a considerable extent the chronological arrangement of the Consolidated Guide turns it into a subject guide. For instance, a large body of literature on John Law's Mississippi Company can be found under 1720 and 1721.

The chronological arrangement of the Consolidated Guide, and the subject divisions under each year greatly facilitate the task of the researcher through cutting down on the number of totally irrelevant entries to be examined, but they do not relieve the researcher of the necessity of browsing in the Guide or in the books themselves. No guide can accomplish that, and it is just as well. Browsing, both in bibliographies and in the books themselves, is part of the research methodology of the historian. This is as it should be. As Siegfried Kracauer wrote in History, the Last Things Before the Last (New York: Oxford University Press, 1969, pp. 84-85):
A stranger to the world evoked by the sources... [the historian] is faced with the task — the exile's task — of penetrating its outward appearances, so that he may learn to understand that world from within. ... He must venture on the diverse routes suggested to him by his intercourse with the evidence, let himself drift along, and take in, with all his senses strained, the various messages that happen to reach him. Thus he will more likely than not hit upon expected facts and contexts some of which perhaps turn out to be incompatible with his original assumptions.....

Kracauer urges a state of "active passivity". Goldsmiths'-Kress with its relatively complete coverage of a body of widely diverse materials, is made for this approach. In time, it should have a considerable impact on the writing of European and American history.

FOOTNOTES


These headings were devised by Foxwell, and are also used in L. W. Hanson, Contemporary Printed Sources for British and Irish Economic History 1701-1750 (Cambridge, England: University Press, 1963) and Henry Higgs, Bibliography of Economics 1751-1775 (New York: Macmillan; Cambridge, England: University Press, 1935).
APPENDIX
HELPFUL BIBLIOGRAPHICAL TOOLS FOR USE WITH
THE GOLDSMITHS'-KRESS MICROFILM COLLECTION

I. THE ESSENTIAL WORKS


Contents: v. 1. Through 1720.—v. 2. 1721-1776.—v. 3. 1777-1800.—v. 4. in preparation. Arranged chronologically, divided by subject within each year.


Arranged chronologically, with alphabetical index of authors and anonymous titles. Includes cognate items in other Harvard libraries. The footnotes in some monographs cite Kress numbers, which makes the Catalogue necessary despite the existence of the Consolidated Guide.


Arranged chronologically, divided by subject within each year.

II. GENERAL

Haskell, Daniel Carl

Covers the holdings of a number of American libraries, but, unfortunately, it is arranged chronologically, and is not broken down by country.

Higgs, Henry

Arranged chronologically with indexes of authors and anonymous titles. Higgs attempted a bibliography of all economic literature in the various European languages published between 1751 and 1775. The scope resulted in many errors and omissions.

Palgrave, Sir Robert Harry Inglis, ed.

Stammhammer, Josef
Bibliographie der Finanzwissenschaft ... Jena, Germany, 1903.

This and the other bibliographies by Stammhammer can be difficult to use, but, nonetheless, helpful for literature in all the Western European languages. They reveal material not in the Consolidated Guide.
Stammhammer, Josef
Bibliographie der Social-Politik ... Jena, Germany, 1896-1912.

Stammhammer, Josef
Bibliographie des Socialismus und Communismus ... Jena, Germany, 1893-1909.

III. ENGLAND AND IRELAND

Black, Robert Denis Collison
A catalogue of pamphlets on economic subjects published between 1750 and 1900 and now housed in Irish libraries ... New York, 1969.
This is, of course, especially good in its coverage of Irish imprints. In this, it serves as an important supplement to the Consolidated Guide. A useful feature is its index of organizations, which can often provide another point of access to Goldsmiths' Kress.

Hanson, Laurence William
A superb piece of work, with an excellent subject index. Also, all titles are indexed, not just those of anonymous authors.

A London bibliography of the social sciences, being the subject catalogue of the British library of political and economic science at the School of economics, the Goldsmiths' library of economic literature at the University of London, the libraries of the Royal statistical society and the Royal anthropological institute, and certain special collections at University college, London, and elsewhere, compiled under the direction of B. M. Headicar ... and C. Fuller ... with an introduction by Sidney Webb (Lord Passfield) ... London, 1931-1937.
Arranged by subject, and consequently very useful at times. Volume 6, the Second Supplement, is especially helpful with the pre-1850 literature.

Williams, Judith Blow
... A guide to the printed materials for English social and economic history 1750-1850 ... New York, 1926.
Incomplete, but still very useful because of its subject arrangement.

IV. FRANCE

France, Institut national d'études démographiques.
The purpose was to provide a bibliography of French demographic literature. Inevitably, this became, to a large extent, a bibliography of French economic literature. Each entry is annotated; the subject index can be useful.

Stoum, René
Bibliographie historique des finances de la France au dixhuitième siècle ... Paris, 1895.

V. GERMANY

Hamburg, Commerz-bibliothek
This library was destroyed during the Second World War; but since it was the best economics library of its day its catalog, arranged by subject, is still useful, especially for German works.
Humpert, Magdalene
... Bibliographie der Kameralwissenschaften, von Magdalene Humpert ... Köln, 1937.
Arranged by broad subject categories with an author index, this bibliography has many errors
and omissions. Nonetheless, it is the best there is for Germany.

Kayser, Christian Gottlob
... Vollständiges Bücher-Lexikon ... 1750-1910. Leipzig, 1834-1911.
Sachregister, 1838, is a subject index which is time-consuming to use, but sometimes
rewarding.

Weber, Friedrich Benedikt
Handbuch der ökonomischen Literatur; oder systematische Anleitung zur Kenntniss der
deutschen ökonomischen Schriften, die sowohl die gesammte Land- und Hauswirthschaft,
as die mit derselben verbundenen Helfs- und Nebenwissenschaften angehen; mit Angabe
ihres Ladenpreises und Bemerkung ihres Werthes ... Berlin, 1803-1832.
One of the early German bibliographies which is especially useful for agricultural literature.

VI. ITALY

Cossa, Luigi
... Saggi bibliografici di economia politica. Bologna, 1963.
Although Goldsmiths'-Kress has much that is not in Cossa, the works are listed under various
subject categories, thus providing another means of access.

Fondazione Luigi Einaudi per studi di politica economica e per la pubblicita relative.
Libri rari della biblioteca di Luigi Einaudi ... A cura di Dora Spinazzola Franceschi. Torino,
1971.
This collection is particularly strong on Italian and French economists. It does not provide
subject access, but can be useful because of its author and title indexing, and because it
reveals some material not in Goldsmiths'-Kress.

VII. THE NETHERLANDS

Laspeyres, Etienne
Geschichte der volkswirthschaftlichen Anschauungen der Niederländer und ihrer Literatur
zur Zeit der Republik ... Leipzig, 1863.
The chronological list of Dutch economic literature includes references to the pages in the
text on which a work is discussed.

VIII. PORTUGAL

Amzalak, Moses Bensabat
Do estudo e da evolução das doutrinas económicas em Portugal. Lisboa, 1928.
Consists of bio-bibliographies of the major Portuguese economists, but does not cover most
of the ephemeral writings relevant to economic conditions unless the piece was written by
someone of importance.

Luso-Brazilian economic literature before 1850; a list of the Kress Library's holdings. Boston,
1978.
Also includes the holdings of the Goldsmiths' Library prior to 1801. Some works in the list
were acquired too recently to be included in the microfilm collection.
IX. SPAIN

Colmeiro, Manuel
Biblioteca de los economistas españoles de los siglos XVI, XVII y XVIII. Madrid, 1880.
Covers treatises to the exclusion of the pamphlet literature.

X. SWEDEN

Hebbe, Per Magnus
Contents.—I. Från äldsta tid t.o.m. år 1800.—II. Från 1801 till 1850.