Incunabula indexes

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Examining nearly a thousand books printed before 1500 has revealed indexes, some printed, some manuscript, in 83 of them, enabling some conclusions to be made on late medieval indexing policy and practice. The likelihood of indexing in particular subject areas; whether the index (or registrum or tabula) is explained; and the structure of the indexes, are among topics covered. The vagaries of primitive alphabetization are outlined, and an attempt is made to assess quality. Some of the indexes of these books are known by name. There is much worthy of study in medieval indexes, which are not merely of antiquarian interest. A list of the indexes is given.

The limitation of the incunabula period to the first fifty years or so of printing with an arbitrary cutoff point at 1500 is in most respects unfortunate, as has been stated by a noted historian of printing: 'This date cuts right across the most fertile period of the new art, halving the lives of some of its greatest practitioners'. (Steenberg 1955, p 19). This is also true regarding the indexes of incunabula. As this survey will show, these indexes varied widely in quality and sophistication, but a trend towards steady improvement is clearly discernible toward the end of the period, and indexes achieved higher quality just after the turn of the 16th century. In the 1550s, editorial and typographical features, including the compilation of multilingual indexes, reached a level seldom seen in our modern indexes. Still, a study of any aspect of incunabula must necessarily adhere to accepted scholarly norms, and this survey is therefore limited to the indexes of books printed until the end of the year 1500. Manuscript indexes are also covered, inasmuch as they are relevant to those printed indexes that were modelled on them.

The sample and its characteristics

The provision of finding aids in late medieval manuscripts and in the earliest printed books has been the subject of much uninformed speculation, such as that manuscripts could not be indexed because they were not paginated and no two of them were exactly the same, or that printed indexes could only be compiled after pagination had been invented. Only a few serious inquiries have been published, but even those based on a small number of items that happened to be available; (Pollard 1908; Witty 1965; Rabnett 1982) or on a special subject (Wellisch 1978).

The present study is based on the personal inspection of four fairly large and variegated collections of incunabula, namely 330 in the Folger Shakespeare Library, 17 in the Georgetown University Library, 340 in the Dibner Library of the Smithsonian Institution Libraries (all in Washington, D.C.) and 258 in the National Library of Medicine in Bethesda, Maryland: a total of 953 books. In addition, a dozen items were inspected in the Library of Congress, and some data in the publications listed above were also used. All books were checked for the presence of name and subject indexes in addition to and separate from tables of contents (both of which are in most cases labelled "Tabula" which makes their description in bibliographies ambiguous, the more so since some genuine indexes are sometimes printed right after the table of contents in the beginning of books). Data were verified or completed (in cases when parts of an index were missing) from those in the standard incunabula bibliographies: Hain-Copinger's Repertorium and the Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke and Polain's Catalogue des livres imprimés au XVe siècle des bibliothèques de Belgique.

The total of 970 books inspected represents roughly 2.8–3.6 percent of the total quantity of incunabula which has been variously estimated as 36,000 (a figure cited in the Encyclopedia Britannica) or as low as 27,000 (Dachs & Schmidt 1974). 83 books, or 8.6 percent of all books examined had either name or subject indexes or both. The difference between the 83 items seen and the 63 listed in the Appendix is caused by reprinted indexes seen.

Almost all indexes were printed, but four books [2, 28, 40, 50] had handwritten indexes, evidently compiled by their owners who were frustrated by the absence of an index: in one instance, a reader compiled his own index in addition to a fairly large printed one [40] which was apparently not sufficient for his exacting needs.

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The numbers in square brackets refer to the list of indexed incunabula in Appendix 1.

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The subjects of indexed books

The earliest printed index, compiled for St. Augustine's De arte praedicandi [8] was probably modelled on earlier manuscript indexes of the work; the anonymous editor and indexer says in his preface that he had collated the text of several manuscripts which he had found in different places, though he may have improved on his models because he also claims that it had taken him a long time to compile the index. The fact that this quite elaborate and sophisticated index (which had double entries, cross-references and even diagrammatic displays) was compiled for a book on the preaching of sermons was no accident. Collections of sermons and books on preaching were by far the most numerous among the indexed incunabula seen. At that time sermons were in great demand by local clerics and preachers who searched these indexes for suitable themes, especially those appropriate for certain holidays and fast days. Next in popularity were indexes to theological treatises and philosophical works which were indexed by the problems that had been discussed by philosophers since Aristotle. Historical works, which enjoyed great popularity toward the end of the 15th century, were indexed by the names of biblical personalities, saints, emperors, kings and heroes as well as by the events in their lives. Contrary to expectations, very few works dealing with medicine and the natural sciences were indexed: only 16 out of the 258 incunabula held by the National Library of Medicine and six items out of 340 in the Dibner Library (which holds only works on science and technology) had indexes. A notable exception is the Gart der Gesundtheit [34], one of the earliest printed herbals which has both a classified subject index of diseases and ailments that could be cured by herbs (the first index in German) and a bilingual (German-Latin) name index of plants. A French herbal, the Arbolaire [4], also had such indexes, modelled on those of the Gart, as was the case for its translations into Dutch, Italian and English in the 16th century: (Wellisch 1978, pp. 84-88). Table 1 provides a detailed breakdown by subject.

Chronological distribution of indexes

The earliest incunabulum index [8] was probably printed in 1464 or no later than in February 1485 and not, as has been thought previously, in 1467. (Householder 1943). Since my description of this index (Wellisch 1986), a dedication found in a copy of this work held by the library of the University of Freiburg im Breisgau indicates that it had been given to its Faculty of Arts on 14 February 1465 by a certain Johann Graff who died in 1469 (Sack 1985). The index is specifically noted in Peter Schoeffer's sales catalogue of 1470. The first dated index is the one to Speculum vitae [53], printed in 1468.

Twenty indexes were found in books printed in the decade from 1470–9, 19 in those of the decade 1480–9, and 38 in the last eleven years of the incunabula period. This seems to indicate that, as readers increasingly came to appreciate the value of indexes, more finding aids were provided by printers who quickly realized what Schoeffer had already understood in 1470, namely, that the provision of indexes helped to sell books. Indexes also became generally more elaborate and voluminous towards the end of the 15th century, a trend which continued well into the 16th century and beyond.

<table>
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<th>Rank</th>
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<th>Printed</th>
<th>Manuscript</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
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<tr>
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<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Bible commentaries</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>Lives of saints</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>–</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Position of indexes

While tables of contents, most often entitled 'Tabula', were always found at the beginning of books, indexes were either printed immediately following them or at the end of the text, followed by the colophon. The position of an index varied even in cases where the same index was reprinted in successive editions of the text, e.g. in [44]. Altogether 56 indexes could be inspected for their position, 29 of which were printed in the front matter of the book, while 27 were printed in the back, a position which became more common in the 16th century and has been the normal one since the 17th century.

Terms

The term 'index', found in classical Latin, though with somewhat different meanings (a person pointing out something; a list of titles; a title slip; etc.), was seldom if ever used in incunabula and became the commonly used term only in the 17th century. The preferred term was 'Tabula'; 34 of 56 indexes, or 61%, had that title. Next in popularity was 'Registrum', another ambiguous term, because it was also used for a list of gatherings at the end of books. In its English form, that term occurs already in Chaucer's 'Knightes tale' in the sense of a listing:

I am no divynistre:  
"Of soules" find I nought in this registre
The term is still in use in German-speaking countries although lately the term 'index' has also gained acceptance there. The terms 'Repertorium' or 'Repertorium sive tabula', 'Annotatio', 'Tabula remissoria' (i.e. Table of references) and 'Directorium' were occasionally also used. Four indexes had no title at all or were only preceded by an introductory note.

Prefaces and introductory notes

About a third of the indexes seen had either prefaces, some of which were fairly extensive or they had at least a brief introductory note about the manner in which the index had been constructed and how it should be used. Since there was little uniformity in the structure of indexes, the nature of items to which locators referred, or the style of locators, it was indeed necessary to tell readers how to use each and every index, even though at least towards the end of the period readers must have become more familiar with indexes.

The anonymous indexer of the first printed index [8] wrote a long preface in which he pointed out that

"The index and figures of this book are indeed alone worth its whole price, because they make it much easier to use... and that Everybody should also know that the alphabetic letters... set out in the inner margins serve the said index of the book which refers to the very same letters... so that everybody who wants to find quickly something that is contained in this little book can find it, and not least also by means of various and many cross-references it will be revealed what is sometimes contained in the diverse passages of this little book at those points, which will prove to be most fruitful for those who wish to study the book."

The compiler of two early indexes, Thomas Dorniberg, gave a lengthy example for the use and usefulness of his index to [62]:

"If we take the subject of any chapter... from its title, a beautiful example is immediately found... For instance, from the letter A we take the entry 'Acceptation of gifts leads to four bad effects', the first of which is that justice is traded for a petty price. This is treated in Tract ii, chapter 5, section vii."

The index to Burleigh's De vita et moribus philosophorum [22] has an introductory note:

"The present little work's very useful table, arranged alphabetically and containing the philosopher's names and their most effective sayings, begins."

To make sure that no reader would miss the point, the very same text is repeated after the last index entry but concluding with the word 'ends'. Typical for explanations of the structure of entries are the following:

In this table, every word is preceded by two numbers, the first of which indicates the book, the second the chapter [10].

In one of the many collections of sermons by the famous preacher Caracciolus [24] the index concludes with

"End of the index of the sermons and of the subject[s] of this book which have been collected in brief from those sermons, so that everyone who intends to read about them can easily find a specific sentence wherever it may be, whether in a sermon to the people or in one to the clerics... Therefore, he who would like to find anything in these sermons may look in the index in alphabetical order... And thus it has been provided for everything for all sentences, references, authorities and titles which have been indicated in this reference index. Finished successfully."

While such instructions may have been needed in 1473 when only few books had indexes, twenty years later it was apparently still necessary to state:

"Therefore you need to understand that in the following index the number described represents the number of the chapter [46]."

Four indexes to German books were found, the earliest of which is in the Gart der Gesundheit [34]:

"Here follows the fifth and last part of this book, and it is an index, to find quickly all diseases of human beings... In this index are also listed the masters... Avi, that is Avicenna, Ga or Galí, that is Galienus... Pau, Paulus, etc. and always a number next to it, namely, i, ii, iii, iv, v, vi, etc."

Other German indexes were found in [23], [45] and [55].

Types and structure of indexes

Subject indexes were the most common type; 42 of these were devoted only to subjects, while 13 were mixed subject and name indexes; 12 books had name indexes, listing only persons and sometimes places; 3 books had separate name and subject indexes.

Alphabetization

Although virtually all indexes emphasized the fact that they were 'alphabetically arranged' or 'in the order of the alphabet', 12 of those that could be checked for the manner of their arrangement did not carry alphabetization beyond the first letter of a heading; 26 indexes carried alphabetization only to the first syllable of a heading, that is, to its first two or three letters, and in only two indexes an effort was made to file entries also by the letter following the first syllable. This does not seem to have bothered users too much, perhaps because in most indexes only a few dozen entries or less were printed on a page, generally in the same type size as the text, so that the scanning of
entries was not too difficult. In five indexes, however, filing was by the first significant keyword, including its grammatical variants, for example:

- Honor soli deo debetur
- Propter honorem suum...
- Contra honorem suum...
- Honor dei includit...
- Honor laus et gloria...

In one instance, subheadings were used in keyword arrangement [21]:

Charitas describitur...

et laus eius ponitur...

De hac charitate...

**Locators**

Foliation and even pagination, with both Roman and Arabic numerals, was known and used in some manuscripts of the late Middle Ages (Rouse 1976), but it was not widely used by the early printers who relied rather on signatures to indicate the correct sequence of gatherings for the binders. Indexers continued therefore to use chapters, paragraphs and sections as well as marginal letters and a bewildering array of other means to show at least approximately where a reader should look for a name or subject. Only towards the end of the 15th century did foliation and pagination become more commonly used in books and in their indexes. The earlier methods had, however, the advantage that an index could be compiled before the text was printed, and it also made indexes 'portable', that is, they could easily be reprinted by the same as well as by other printers, independent of the way in which the text had been set. This possibility was indeed widely exploited, beginning with the first printed index, produced by Schoeffer, which was copied by Mentelin in Strassburg, though in mutilated form (Wellisch 1986). But reprinting of indexes also had disadvantages other than deliberate changes or abbreviations made by subsequent printers, such as the perpetuation of printer's errors. Thus, the first printing of an index to Albertus Magnus's work on theology [2] had as its first entry:

Absolvere quis possit libro vi. ca. xxv ultra medium

The printer of two subsequent editions decided to number the 'books' and chapters by Arabic numbers and printed the same entry as

Absolvere quis possit libro 9. cap. 25 ultra medium

Evidently, the typesetter by mistake inverted the numeral 6 so that the number for the book became 9, while the chapter number and the indication of the reference on the page ('beyond the middle') were correctly copied.

Appendix I shows to which extent indexes were reprinted.

As shown by the example above, most early indexes used only chapter and paragraph numbers as locators, often augmented by a series of letters printed at fixed intervals in the margins in order to pinpoint the place of a reference on the page, or by adding a verbal instruction (as above), or both, e.g.,

Abstinentia est multiplex xlv D et infra

Pagination was first used in 1470 by G. Lauer in Rome, but was only seldom used thereafter by other printers; only 7 indexes used page numbers as locators, while most other indexes employed Roman-numbered foliation numbers. This forced them to resort to cumbersome means in order to indicate the recto or verso of a leaf. Marginal letters starting on the recto and continuing on the verso were one way to locate a word or phrase, e.g., xii B meant the second paragraph on the recto, while xii M was somewhere on the verso.

Another method consisted of putting periods either before or after a folio number, e.g., in [54] which has Arabic foliation:

Abacus propheta minor .15
Abbacus martyr 32.
Abdias propheta .11 12.

indicating that Abacus (i.e. Habakkuk) is mentioned on folio 15 recto, Abbacus on folio 32 verso and Abdias on folio 11 recto and 12 verso. One is left to wonder why the simple step from folio to page numbering was not taken as late as 1480, but ingrained habits are slow to change.

Arabic pagination was sometimes added to printed Roman foliation by users in handwriting which seems to indicate that at least some readers were more practically minded than the printers and indexers.

Other locators consisted of column numbers, the numbers of sermons or philosophical problems in collections, books and verses of the Bible, and variously named combinations of sections, e.g.,

Abscondit se deus a multis. ser. 72, conside. 3, conclu. 5

which refers respectively to numbered sermons, considerations and conclusions.

**Cross-references**

Only a dozen indexes had more or less sophisticated cross-references, but among these was [53], the earliest dated index, printed in 1468, which has, for example:

Artes mechanicae, infra in verbo mechanica
Ludi quae sint liciti aut illiciti, vide infra in verbo theatrica

In [24] the phrase 'ubi supra' is used when two adjacent entries refer to the same sermon. The index to Boethius' De consolatione philosophiae [19] offers terse 'see' references, e.g.,
of the period have an average of 15 and a mode of 20 pages. The largest index encountered (or rather a concordance) was one of the handwritten ones with approximately 5500 items, accompanying a printed index in [50]. The most extensive among the printed indexes seen was [32] with more than 2800 entries on 20 leaves for a text comprising only 180 leaves, or 7.8 entries per page; each entry occupies from two to five lines. One of the earliest indexes, namely that of [27], also had more than 2000 entries on 24 large leaves for a text on 266 leaves, or almost four entries per page, each of which was on two to three lines and sometimes more. It was not possible to check a manuscript of that work (originally written in the first half of the 14th century) for the presence of an earlier index, but the elaborate nature and the sheer size of the printed index of medicinal plants with references to their treatment in the works of ancient authorities (Dioscorides, Galen, Avicenna and others) by chapter and section make it seem likely that it was either copied together with the text of a manuscript or was modelled on an earlier handwritten index. The copy seen in the National Library of Medicine, a huge volume measuring 396 x 278 mm, has little index tabs made of parchment pasted onto the margins of the first leaves of each chapter, another quick finding device ordered from the binder by one of the early owners of the book.

Taking into account only those indexes that had more than a thousand entries, the number of entries per page of text varied from a low of 1.2 to a high of 17, with an average of 5.7, a number comparing favorably with modern indexes, although the quality of those entries is quite a different matter.

Quality of indexes

It has been pointed out by Witty (1965) and Rabnett (1982) that some incunabula indexes were little more than listings of proper names and nouns, compiled by simple underlining of words on proof sheets which were then alphabetized only by first letter or at best by first syllable. But these critics examined only a very small number of indexes, while the sample investigated here shows rather that, then as now, there were good and bad indexes and some that were mediocre. First of all, it goes without saying that modern standards of indexing quality cannot be applied to indexes compiled in the 15th century (a bias from which Rabnett is not entirely free). Secondly, although at least some of the early indexes may have modelled their work on examples of manuscript indexes, they had to invent and to improvise as they went along. But they worked in relative isolation from each other and became only slowly aware of newer and better techniques invented in places that were often far distant from their own. Thirdly, what strikes us as flaws and mistakes, such as only partial or haphazard alpha-

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The indexers

Who were the compilers of indexes to the sermons, lives of saints, biographies of lesser mortals, histories of the world, and books on natural history, medicine, astronomy and many other topics which the early buyers of printed books wanted to find quickly and easily among the closely printed pages of often huge and heavy volumes? Some early printers were probably often also their own indexers, but most of them employed scholars as editors and correctors whose tasks included the compilation of indexes. While the printers had to have, first of all, some considerable technical knowledge and mechanical skills, most of them were by no means mere artisans. Many were learned men and a few even held academic degrees. Thus, Peter Schoeffer, Gutenberg’s assistant and one of his successors, is known to have been at the Sorbonne in Paris where he may have earned a law degree because he became a judge in Mainz and was also known as a ‘clericus’. One of his competitors in Strassburg, Heinrich Eggestein, had the title ‘magister’ and it is known that several other early printers had bachelor’s and master’s degrees.

In the first two or three decades of printing, the printers had to make judicious choices among existing and well-known works previously available only as manuscripts, and they tried to anticipate which of these would find a ready market among the learned readers. They as well as their typesetters also had to have a thorough knowledge of Latin, and later on also Greek, in addition to the various vernaculars which rapidly became the language of popular (and therefore profitable) books for a wider audience (Hirsch 1967). They were assisted in this and other tasks, particularly
editing, proofreading and correcting by men of the highest erudition who were either called upon to perform the task of editing a particular work or were in the permanent employ of a printer.

An example is Bernardo Machiavelli (the father of Niccolò), a prosperous Florentine lawyer, who in 1475 was asked to index Livy’s Decades (The history of Rome) for Nicolaus Laurentii, a printer in his city, as a spare time job (Eisenberg 1970, p. 100). It took Machiavelli nine months to index the names of the cities, provinces, islands, mountains and rivers mentioned in Livy’s work, which seems to indicate that he either had only little spare time or was a slow indexer. One must remember, however, that an indexer in those times had not only to do the intellectual job but had also to make his own indexing slips from scrap paper as well as sorting boards or wooden boxes (shoeboxes not having been invented yet). These arduous mental as well as physical tasks involved in indexing were described in minute detail some seventy years later by Conrad Gessner in his instructions for indexers (Wellisch 1981; Serrai 1989, pp. 48–58).

The early indexers continued a long tradition of indexing during the last two centuries of the manuscript era, performed by scholars who compiled indexes for their own use. Sometimes such indexes were added to those texts that were in great demand and were produced by scribes in multiple copies. Even a cursory search in several bibliographies of manuscripts such as the U.S. and Canadian census (Ricci 1935–40) and the catalogs of Yale (Shailor 1984) and Wolfenbüttel (Helmstädter Handschriften 1963) revealed a fairly large number of indexes in manuscripts that were subsequently published by the early printers, particularly for works by St. Augustine, Boethius, Jacobus de Voragine and others.

As briefly noted earlier, the sample of indexes contained four handwritten ones. The earliest is in one of the Folger Shakespeare Library’s copies of Marchesini’s Mammotrectus (50), a dictionary of difficult words in the Bible, explained for the benefit of clerics and parish priests whose knowledge of Latin was rudimentary. The book, originally named Mammothreptus (Suckling baby) and first printed by Schoeffer in 1470, became a bestseller and was reprinted several times until 1500 and even long thereafter. An early owner of the Folger copy added an index of the difficult words, written in a fine gothic hand on eleven pages inserted after the table of contents; each page has some 250 entries in three columns, a total of about 2700 entries. Another manuscript index is in the Folger’s copy of Holkot’s Postilla super librum Sapientiae Salomonis of 1479 (40), which is even larger: it lists names and topics on 24 large pages, each of which has about 150 entries, a total of some 3600 entries—this in addition to a printed index of about 2200 entries! The manuscript index is dated 1480, and its locators refer to folio numbers which have also been added by the hand of the owner-indexer.

Named indexers

Then as now, the compilers of indexes were seldom named. In some cases it is obvious from the nature of the work that the author himself was also the indexer, especially when the prefatory material to the index is written in the first person singular. The indexers whose names have come down to us either cite their monastic order or indicate that they are learned men. An index to St. Augustine’s De civitate dei [9] by the Dominican friar Nicolaus Triveth was published as early as 1468. A monk by the name of Astanans (or Astaxanu) compiled an extensive index to his own Summa de casibus conscientiae [7] and stated in the preface to it:

I, friar Astaxanus, the compiler of this Summa... wish to provide this index... so that whatever may be required can be found in it with great ease.

This index was reprinted unchanged eight times by various printers until 1482. Another Dominican, Thomas Dorniberg of Memmingen, a doctor of canon law, compiled a ‘Tabula remissoria’ (reference index) to De quattuor virtutibus by Henricus Ariminiensis [37] in 1472 and in the following year, moved ‘by the prayers of many studious clerks’ he produced the index to Albertus Magnus’ Compendium theologicae veritatis [2] which earned him even a mention on the title page of the book. Also in 1473, Friar Nicolaus Cerseth of the Dominican Preachers made an index to Schoeffer’s edition of De civitate dei [10]. The indexes to Schedel’s Liber chronicarum and its German edition, already mentioned earlier, do not reveal the name of their compiler, but it is possible that either Georg Alt, the city scribe of Nuremberg, or Peter Danhauser, a lawyer who is named in the contract between the printers and investors in this massive project, was the indexer of both editions (Wilson 1976, pp. 69–70, 243).

Finally, the index to [53] was compiled by a certain Egidius Daurigni of Beauvais. Thus, in only a few of the indexes seen were the names of their compilers revealed, but that is not different from modern practices.

Advertisements

The importance of tables of contents and indexes for readers of books was soon recognized by the early printers. Their advertisements and sale catalogs show that they were vying with each other in making their books more attractive to prospective buyers by emphasizing the editorial and typographical qualities as well as the presence of finding aids—tables of contents and indexes.

The earliest advertisement for a printed book that has come down to us is a sheet printed by Heinrich
Eggestein in Strassburg who in 1466 announced a Bible

... not produced by the art of the pen but by the marvellous invention of casting letters and printing. It has been truly collated with the best texts by the most excellent men steeped in the humanistic arts... and is in every respect compiled in the best manner.

While Eggestein advertised the qualities of only one book, Schoeffer produced a few years later the first known advertisement of his entire stock of 19 books. One of these, St. Augustine's De arte praedicandi [8] was specially singled out as being 'with a notable table, very useful for preachers'. He did that because Johann Mentelin, a competitor in Strassburg, had also printed the same work, but without such a 'very useful' finding aid.

Schoeffer clearly perceived the value of a good index when trying to attract customers for his books. As indicated above, Dorniberg's index [2] was prominently advertised on the title page, so as to distinguish that edition from others that were produced by various printers of this popular work, and to attract buyers who would appreciate the additional value of an index. Many modern indexers would wish that their work be acknowledged in such a manner!

Summary

This study is based on a relatively substantial but biased sample. The bias stems from the fact that about 60% of the sample consisted of medical works and books on natural science which were deliberately chosen because my previous study of herbals had shown that several of the incunabula among them had indexes (Wellisch 1978). The assumption was that other incunabula on those subjects would also have indexes since they dealt with large numbers of topics and details such as the names of plants, animals, minerals, diseases, stars, and techniques which would be difficult to remember and which would therefore need finding aids. This, however, turned out not to be the case: only a small number—6.2% of medical books and 1.8% of works on natural science—had indexes. If only the theological, historical and other nonscientific book are taken into consideration, the percentage of indexed incunabula rises to 17%, a not insignificant amount, given the fact that a large part of the incunabula such as Bibles, prayer books, indulgences, romances, proclamations and edicts of the many war owners of books are testimony to the probably widely felt need for indexes, and the advertisements of indexes by printers shown to what extent these were recognized as important and valuable enhancements of texts. The early printers were in this, as in so many other respects, the trailblazers for the splendid books—and their indexes—that were produced by the printing presses of their heirs in the 16th century and beyond.

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Appendix 1

INDEXED INCUNABULA seen or described in bibliographic sources

Note: C = Copinger; H = Hain; HC = Hain-Copinger; GW = Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke.

2. ALBERTUS MAGNUS, Compendium theologicae veritatis cum tabula Thomae Dorniberg. Speyer: Printer of Gesta Christi, 1473. GW 597.

Index reprinted Ulm: Johann Zainer, 1478, 1481; Strassburg: Martin Schott, 1483; Johann Prüss, 1489.
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47. LUDOVICUS PRUTHENUS. Trilogium animae. Nuremberg: Anton Koberger, 1498. HC 10315.
49. MAIORANIS, FRANCISCUS DE. Sermones ab adventu cum quadragesimalis. Venice: Bernardinus Rizus, 1491/92. HC 10530.

Index reprinted Venice: Franciscus Renner, 1478.
51. MOSCH, JOHANNES. Tractatus de horis canonici dicendis. Augsburg: Anton Sorg, 1489. HC 11534.
Index reprinted Augsburg: Glüther Zainer, 1471; Paris: Ulrich Gering, 1472.
54. ROLEWINCK, WERNER. Fasciculus temporum. Venice, 1468. HC 14059.
57. SABUNDUS, RAYMUNDUS DE. Theologia naturalis. Strassburg: Martinus Flach, 1496. HC 14059.
60. SYLVATICUS, MATTHAEUS. Liber pandectarum medicinae. Strassburg: Adolph Rusch, ca. 1480. HC 15192.
Index reprinted Strassburg: Johann Mentelin, 1473.

Appendix II

Printing places of incunabula indexes printed during the first twelve years after the first one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Printer</th>
<th>Work by number in Appendix I and author</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Mainz</td>
<td>Schoeffer</td>
<td>8 Augustine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1467</td>
<td>Strassburg</td>
<td>Mentelin</td>
<td>8 Augustine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1468</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>Sweynehym &amp; Pannartz</td>
<td>53 Rodericus Zamorensis</td>
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<tr>
<td>1470</td>
<td>Cologne</td>
<td>Zell</td>
<td>22 Buraeus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strasbourg</td>
<td>Rusch</td>
<td>27 Dondi</td>
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<td>Basel</td>
<td>Ruppel</td>
<td>16 Bartholomaeus Anglicus</td>
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<td>1472</td>
<td>Nuremberg</td>
<td>Sensenschmidt</td>
<td>29 Eyb</td>
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<tr>
<td>1473</td>
<td>Nuremberg</td>
<td>Koberger</td>
<td>23 Buraeus</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Strassburg</td>
<td>Printer of Henricus Arimensis</td>
<td>24 Caracciolus</td>
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<td>Mainz</td>
<td>Schoeffer</td>
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<td>Butzbach</td>
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<td>Herbolt</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Cologne</td>
<td>Winters</td>
<td>43 Jacobus de Voragine</td>
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References


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