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*Mittelalter* is the first part of a comparative history of the European university in four volumes—*Geschichte der Universität in Europa*. This project was planned and carried out by Walter Rüegg, the chair of an international committee constituted under the auspices of the European Assembly of Rectors (CRE). The scholars who contributed to this volume adopted a pragmatic approach: their goal was to investigate the development of the university as an institution in Europe from its medieval inception to the present time and to provide a comparative summary of the present state of research according to institutional, intellectual, sociological, and material criteria.

Three seminal studies have prepared the ground for this enterprise: an account of the most important problems encountered by the universities of many different countries during their historical development (CRE–Information No. 69, 1st Quarter 1985); a historical compendium of the universities (ed. L. Jilek, Geneva, 1984); and an international conference on the change of the social role played by the university (CRE–Information No. 62, 2nd Quarter 1983). The first volume of this series investigates the origins and the historical development of the universities up to 1500. The second part will deal with the regional, denominational, and scientific diversification that took place between 1500 and 1800. The third will analyze the development of the university up to World War II. Finally, the fourth will investigate the unparalleled expansion of education and scientific research after 1945. The last three volumes are planned for 1994, 1995, and 1997 respectively.

All four volumes are organized according to the same scheme. The first chapter gives a thematic introduction as well as an overall view of the growth and geographical expansion of the universities during each period. The second chapter describes the institutional structures; that is, the sponsors, the internal financial and administrative organizations, the faculty, and (starting with the second volume)
the repercussions of the European models on the university and college systems in other continents. The third chapter deals with the students, including their social, financial, and intellectual qualifications as well as their daily academic professional careers and academic mobility. The last chapter analyzes the expansion of human knowledge: as far as the first volume is concerned, this means an analysis of the curricula and programs of each academic discipline.

In the first chapter, “Themen und Grundlagen,” Rüegg (Themen, Probleme, Erkenntnisse, 24–48) gives a useful overview of the university: its historical and mythical origins, the interaction between the university and society, the demands of the powers who promoted institutions of higher learning (popes, emperors, dukes, and local administrations), the expectations of *magistri* and *scholares*, the connection between systems of education and the organization of the study in faculties, and the ethical values that form the basis of the reforms of the university. J. Verger (Grundlagen, 49–80) tries to give a definition of the concept of university as an autonomous community with a specific curriculum and a complex internal structure; in a brief outline he clarifies the foundations, characteristics, original conditions, chronology, geographical distribution (with maps) and stages of development. Some details are, however, incorrect: for example, the “resurrection” of Pepo as the first Bolognese jurist (59), an idea that is put to rest by Rüegg, who quotes the most recent research in his introduction.

In the second chapter, “Strukturen,” P. Nardi (Die Hochschulträger, 83–108) describes the process that began in the twelfth century with the development of the *universitas* and *studium generale* and that continued with the intervention of Pope Innocent III and Pope Honorius III, who regulated the institutional reconstruction of the studia. This process went on with the university policy of Emperor Frederick II and of Pope Gregory IX and Pope Innocent IV. It proceeded with the support provided by the secular powers of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries as well as with the competitive granting of privileges given by the Popes during the Great Schism. And it came to an end in the fifteenth century when the
regional universities ushered in a new era. A. Gieysztor (Organisation und Ausstattung, 109–38) gives an account of different types of organizations, statutes, and colleges; moreover, he discusses the role played by university clerks and their authority, the control over teaching and rent, incomes and expenditures, buildings and insignia; in other words, he shows the development from a legal autonomy to a growing independence from the public power as well as the development from the privileges granted to magistri and doctores to the organization of a professoral caste. J. Verger (Die Universitätslehrer, 139–57) characterizes the professors’ professional practice, social position, and self-image; in addition to an analysis of their final examinations, hierarchies, salaries, teaching activity with its duties and conflicts in the context of their community, he also looks at the internal contradictions between their true social position and their self-image. According to Verger, these teachers of the elite underlined in their writings the intellectual and moral responsibility of their enterprise, although, in fact, they were at the margins of society and did not have a say in their teaching goals. In the view of the present writer, however, this scheme does not take into account the wealth and prestige enjoyed by the North Italian jurists of the Late Middle Ages; moreover, the meager bibliography at the end of the chapter does not cite new important contributions (inter alia, publications on the doctorate).

A comprehensive and extremely interesting chapter is dedicated to the students. R. C. Schwinges (Die Zulassung zur Universität, 161–80; Der Student in der Universität, 181–223) and P. Moraw (Der Lebensweg der Studenten, 227–54) give a resumé of the results achieved by their earlier investigations into the sociological aspects of education. Schwinges underlines the openness of the universities, which did not require special conditions of enrollment, but for enlisting with a magister. This situation changed in the fourteenth century when formal registrations were introduced: the students took the oath, paid tuition, and entered their names in the student register. The number of matriculations depended upon cyclical phases of high and low prices. The author identifies five categories
of students who form the basis for a discussion of regional origins and social stratification, associations, lodging and accommodations, lifestyle, and costs of learning. P. Moraw comments on the different career patterns of the students from their relationship with the church to the dominance of a specific "Verdichtungsprozess" based on the two entities of "Old Europe" (i.e., Italy, Spain, France, England) and "New Europe" (Central, North, and East Europe), and on three periods (origins, "universal period" 1200–1380, "national-regional period" 1380–1500). The university as an institution had stabilizing effects on the social and political systems, but graduation functioned only as an additional qualification for the traditional requirement of social status and property, and the competitive principle became effective only later. H. de Ridder-Symoen (Mobilität, 255–75) describes the conditions of the peregrinatio academica, which varied from land to land but was facilitated by the common usage of the Latin language.

In the last chapter, "Wissenschaft," G. Leff and J. North (Die artes liberates, 279–320) analyze the trivium and the quadrivium. Based on the different development of the artes in Southern and Northern Europe, the content of the trivium, which already existed in the middle of the twelfth century, was transformed during the thirteenth century when new knowledge obtained through translations was assimilated. Finally, the controversy between via antiqua and via moderna had an impact on the artistic faculties. J. North describes the quadrivium's disciplines and their significance for the university teaching. N. Siraisi (Die medizinische Fakultät, 321–42), A. García y García (Die Rechtsfakultäten, 343–58), and M. Asztalos (Die theologische Fakultät, 359–85) analyze the origins, development, organization, and social composition of the higher faculties as well as their curricula and teaching offers. W. Rüegg (Das Aufkommen des Humanismus, 387–408) describes humanism's penetration of the faculties both inside and outside of Italy as a stimulus for a drastic reform of the university around 1500.

An appendix with an index of names, places, and subjects completes this seminal work: this collaborative effort was efficiently and
expertly coordinated; the essays cover many different topics and are rich in detail; last but not least, it is a pleasure to read the articles.

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Gary Schmidt introduces his topic with brief passage from "A Good Man Is Hard to Find," by Flannery O'Connor. The reader must certainly become interested if only to ask what Flannery O'Connor might have to do with the iconography of the medieval hell mouth. Indeed, it is an interesting means by which to demonstrate the adaptability of the hell mouth to the time period in which it is used—the crux of Schmidt's argument throughout *The Iconography of the Mouth of Hell.* Schmidt attempts to establish the origins of the medieval hell mouth with numerous examples and illustrations—origins that he states in his introduction have not been fully established or well documented by previous scholars such as Wildrige, Wall, Guldan, and Galpern.

Schmidt initially focuses his attention on establishing the point in time that the hell mouth first began to appear in the tenth century. Once this is established, he moves away from the question of time and focuses on usage of the hell mouth as a symbol that could convey a multitude of meanings to a diverse audience. The clerical audience of the monastic reform is shown to have relied upon the hell mouth to serve much the same purpose as illustrations in books today: they provide a visual link to the text. The hell mouth was also used in private devotional literature with the same purpose in mind, to serve as a visual illustration of the text itself, not to be a replacement for the text. Schmidt does, however, suggest that a correlation could be made