Reviews


Ravančić’s first book deals with the life and setting of the Dubrovnik taverns and wine consumption practices in the later Middle Ages. The author has already published essays covering this topic, but the book—originally written as a thesis for his master’s degree (at Central European University, Budapest and at the Faculty of Philosophy, Zagreb)—gathers these findings into one volume, revealing the coherence as well as the breadth of Ravančić’s approach.

The first part, following the introduction with an overview of bibliography and the sources, explores the tradition of wine, its production and trade (pp. 19-50). The terms of the Ragusan contracts on the wholesale of wine often contained elements of credit and tended to be made long before the harvest (pp. 23-24), so that at times it is difficult to discern the nature of the legal act (whether it really concerned the “sale of the oncoming harvest” or it was a credit cover-up, in which the difference in price represented the gained interest). The purchase of wine in advance contained an element of risk and uncertain profit, keeping thus the price low, while the wine already on the market obtained a higher price (p. 27). The bulk of produced wine was exported, mainly to the hinterland, whereas import was permitted only in May or June in case the home reserves came to an end (pp. 25-26). Ravančić draws ably on the quantitative potential of the data base, primarily on the results of Dušanka Đinić-Knežević, to provide an insight into certain economic trends (pp. 26-28): the market position of wine and seasonal price fluctuations; the rise of prices in the fourteenth century because of the slow currency depreciation; a sudden drop after the purchase of the Pelješac Peninsula in 1333, when the market was clogged with wine produced in the peninsula vineyards; and the incredible rise of prices following the 1348 outbreak of plague, probably due to the lack of labourers or belief in its medicinal properties. Retail trade generally took place in taverns and was under a close supervision of the government (pp. 28-29). Based on the data from a criminal case, Ravančić has established the wine retail price in 1417, proving it to be much higher than the one generally estimated until recently (pp. 29-31).

Contrary to the imported sorts of wine, e.g. malvasia, riboliun, wine from Marche, Tuscan **vernaccia** (pp. 23 and 37), the sources fail to make a clearer distinction other than white or red between the wines produced in the Dubrovnik region.

Ravančić convincingly argues that the attitude towards wine was twofold. The Ragusan authors who discussed the topic of wine (B. Kotruljević, N. Gozze) condemned only excessive indulgence which could result in physical weakness or spiritual unruliness (pp. 46-49), while moderate drinking was considered a regular daily habit of all the strata. It was served to distinguished foreign guests (p. 46), but to prisoners as well; it poured at bacchanals and was used in preparing medicines (p. 43). The running of taverns as potentially problematic public places was under strict legal control. On the other hand, in a provision of 1415 on the import of vine, the Major Council stated that it was “one of the first and most essential things required for keeping good health” (p. 43). Being considered “strategic resource”, wine was carefully stored away in times of danger or war menace (pp. 42-43). Domestic wine reserves were subject to regular control and the government always intervened with import in order to avoid a possible shortage (pp. 40-41). As a tax was levied on both the production and the distribution of wine, it was under the strict supervision of the government (pp. 31-33, 40). Thus it is not surprising that on the agenda of the Ragusan councils wine issues stood side by side with other grave matters of the state: public health was at stake, finances and social peace, the values every prudent state concerns itself in.
The second part of the book (pp. 51-96) explores taverns as one of the animated and multifunctional public spaces of the medieval urban environment. Based on the analysis of wills, inventories and bequests of the innkeepers, the author makes important observations about their financial status, placing them in the middling ranks of the society, together with most of other artisans (pp. 55-63 and 71). This profession attracted immigrants but women as well, since a quarter of the taverns was run by women (pp. 63-65). The sale of master's wine was also done by indentured servants - *famuli* and *ancille* (p. 64). The contract between the proprietor and the innkeeper was made in written form, and the latter was entitled to board and salary based on the quantity of the wine sold (p. 65). In the fifteenth century the innkeepers enrolled into the fraternity of St. Michael, Michaelmas marking the end of the wine production cycle in the vineyard areas of Dubrovnik (pp. 65-66). The owners of the taverns and of the wine distributed in them were mainly patricians or well-to-do commoners (including women), clerics or ecclesiastical institutions (archbishop, monasteries, etc.), public officers (physicians, for example), and the Ragusan commune itself (pp. 66-67, 145-146). The gulf between the employer and the owner is hardly surprising, bearing in mind that the latter had to provide financial means in order to be able to maintain his own production or buy, store and organize the trade. This hierarchical difference is also evident in the provision which, in case of income dispute, gave precedence to the statement of the owner (citation on p. 55). In his attempt to outline the image of an innkeeper (pp. 69-71), Ravančić was faced with very scarce evidence. Thus he resorted to the picture of the profession drawn in thirteenth-century sermons of Berthold of Regensburg. The author was aware of the dangers arising from his borrowing of elements from another milieu. But, he did not pay enough attention to the very specific problems a historian faces when dealing with a genre of sermon (rhetorical figures, commonplaces, interaction between the preacher and the audience, tradition of the text, etc.).

The core of the book lies in the chapter covering the social life pulsing inside the Dubrovnik taverns (pp. 73-96). As the author makes clear, by extracting evidence from the criminal records, the day-to-day life tends to be presented in an overly negative light; on the other hand, however, trial accounts provide a wealth of most illustrative details relating to this subject matter that cannot be traced elsewhere. The taverns of Dubrovnik were open for business all the year round. The third evening bell (10-11 p.m., depending on the time of the year) marked the daily closing hours, but this regulation was often violated (pp. 76-77). A series of interesting figures shows that taverns were most frequented between January and May, and least in June-July and October-November. A plausible explanation of these monthly variations lies in the farming and feast calendar, as well as in the specific climate features (pp. 76-77). It seems that the taverns were most frequented over the weekend or, more likely, their customers proved more prone to drunken revelry and crime as the week came to its close (p. 80). In view of location, the taverns were scattered across the city and wine was served out of doors as well. As elsewhere in Europe, the taverns of Dubrovnik also offered food, hosted customers in search for gambling, a game of cards or even musical entertainment (pp. 81-82).

Ravančić aims to establish the occupational structure of the tavern visitors. He has arrived at the conclusion that the majority of them were artisans, but taverns were actually frequented by individuals belonging to all the strata, including the nobles, women, and fellow-innkeepers (pp. 85-88). The author rightly interprets taverns as public places (p. 89), houses in which all the members of the Ragusan populace gathered, regardless of the social or gender divisions.

Out of the registered crimes that are known to have taken place in taverns, two-thirds pertain to physical assault (brawl, injury, etc.) committed in a state of temporary aggravation which, according to my knowledge, represents a slightly higher ratio compared to other criminal
cases of the same period. The establishment of gender-labelled crime may seem challenging at first, but is belittled by a very small absolute number of cases in which women feature as offenders (only 10), affecting the correlation size of each single case by 10 percent, and thus making the conclusions groundless. The main methodological problem, however, arises from the nature of the source and that is the trial. The picture of crime before us is selective because we have evidence only about the offences that were taken to court (the parties in conflict did not reconcile, the conflict was not settled out of court, no revenge was sought, etc.), this being but a small portion of the actual occurrences. The “judicial grid” contributes further to the methodological vulnerability of the approach, for crime tends to be unevenly sifted, the “dark figure” depending on the nature of crime, defendant’s social background, former involvement of the two parties, and a number of other factors. Given the complexity of the topic, Ravančić’s conclusions on crime patterns prove far too arbitrary in places (p. 96).

The final part of the book (pp. 101-154) contains about ninety selected cases from the trial accounts relating to taverns, coupled by the will of two innkeepers. Every historian undertaking the task of editing the sources knows that errors and omissions are inevitable, and this book is no exception. Yet it is a pity that Ravančić failed to ask his colleagues to check his transcriptions. Even without resorting to original documents, it is obvious that some parts have been misread. In comparison with the main text, proofreading of this part of the book is far too careless. The list of primary and secondary materials is clear, and the selected references in Croatian, Serbian, English, Italian, French, and German admirably welcome. The absence of an index of proper names, however, is one of the largest gaps in the editorial production of the book, as a listing of the names of the owners of the taverns, innkeepers and their customers, would have been most helpful.

Without any doubt, the greatest value of Ravančić’s book lies in the choice of topic, until now neglected and understudied in Croatian historiography. The author points to a significant role wine has played over the centuries in economic terms as a considerable source of state income and a well-developed activity which involved a wide range of participants: the producers of wine, vintners, innkeepers and consumers. Ravančić has also demonstrated the complex and contradictory attitude towards wine in Dubrovnik and in the rest of Europe. Most of all, he has illuminated tavern as a public space, an important institution of urban life and one of the social stages on which the members of all ranks, gender, age or profession gather and confront.

Ravančić’s conclusions are well-grounded, although too reserved at times. Open issues are neither ignored nor set aside, but singled out and bravely tackled. Diluted in layers but generally rich flavoured and mature, this reading is interesting and easily supped without any fear of crapulence.

Nella Lonza


It was in the early days of her scholarly career, almost fifty years ago, that Desanka Kovačević-Kojić drew attention to the valuable contents of the trade books of the Kabužić brothers.1 Considering the significance of this source, and upon the recommendation of Fernand Braudel, it was to have been published among the editions of École Pratique des Hautes Études in Paris, but, regrettably, it did not see the light.

In view of both the composition and the transcription, the edition before us faithfully follows the original. The text is prefaced by the author, it includes notes which ensure better understanding of the source, and it is accompanied by the summaries in English and Italian, as well as the author and subject index.

The Kabužić (Caboga) were a distinguished Ragusan noble family which occupied a prominent position in the public life of Dubrovnik. Given their considerable family size, economic power, the social and political status, they may be said to have been among the better-off noble families in fifteenth-century Dubrovnik. The two brothers, Nikola and Luka Kabužić, were actually half-brothers: Nikola, an elder, was a legitimate son with patrician ascendants on both side, while the younger Luka, if illegitimate and son of a nonnoble mother, was accepted by the family as an equal.

The business prospects of the Kabužić brothers coincided with the years of the greatest economic prosperity in Serbia and Bosnia, around the 1430s and 1440s. Nikola Kabužić started off with silver trade, maintaining regular business connections with Srebrenica, in which his presence had been recorded between 1415 and 1428. At first, Luka embarked upon his own business, but eventually in 1417 the two of them joined into a trading company. The merging of the capital gave way to large-scale business deals, more profit, and easier coping with the losses. Being a partner whose share of the invested capital was smaller, Luka was responsible for the purchase and sale of the goods and thus travelled more than his brother. Though little is known of the way they shared in the profit and loss, their partnership lasted as many as 20 years, until Luka’s death in 1437.

The initial financial assets of the Kabužić brothers, which amounted to 5,400 ducats, earned them a position of successful venture merchants trading as far afield as Bosnia, Serbia, and Venice. The seat of their company was in Dubrovnik. Business partners were many, particularly in the well-developed trading network of the Balkan hinterland and Venice. Over the years, the lucrative business resulted in voluminous documentation which has, fortunately, been preserved. From Serbia and Bosnia the Kabužić generally brought silver, gold, and wax, the most marketable raw goods in Europe, the trading of which gained the best profit. To a lesser extent, they traded in hides, raša (a kind of coarse cloth), and lead. The Kabužić considered Serbia and Bosnia a unique economic market and thus rarely entered the origin of the merchandise.

The accounting records of the Kabužić brothers testify to the existence of double-entry bookkeeping in Dubrovnik as early as the first half of the fifteenth century, their books probably not being an exception. Double-entry bookkeeping is a complex procedure based on the principle that every transaction should be recorded into the books twice. The accounting records of the Kabužić brothers consist of the General ledger (Quaderno), journal (Giornale), and the memo book (Squarço). The General ledger and the journal were kept between 1426 and 1433, while the memo book dates from between 1427 and 1431. The books were also accompanied by an alphabetical register which disappeared at the beginning of the twentieth century. The accounts were kept by the younger brother, Luka. The books were written on paper, but fortunately, they are entered, well-preserved. The records were in an Italian idiom, and in the Gothic minuscule script (littera mercantesca).

The books of the Kabužić brothers are a valuable proof of the developed financial accounting methods practised by the Ragusan merchants, and of the contribution of Dubrovnik to the economic history of the late Middle Ages. The records bring to light business transactions and thus provide considerable material for research. This rewarding edition of the Kabužić accounting books has confirmed the eminent position of Desanka Kovačević-Kojić in the modern medieval scholarship.

After more than forty years of service at the Archive of the Holy House in Loreto and a series of monographs on the history of the shrine, Floriano Grimaldi OFM cap. published a book on the pilgrimage to Our Lady of Loreto. The fact that the author’s name does not feature on the cover speaks more of him than any other biographical entry, and this well-designed edition complements the subject with the contrasting black and white reproductions, elegant typeface, and untrimmed yellowish sheets tightly bound together. More than seven hundred pages of text and documents have been written in a clear and readable style. A colourful procession of pilgrims from different places and walks of life, motives and temptations open up before the reader. At the same time, they reflect the atmosphere of the place itself and the character of the local people catering for the needs of the shrine-visitors. This is a book about travellers, but also about those who offer them hospitality, make religious objects and bargain over the price.

Generally, pilgrimage was undertaken for personal reasons, as an act of thanksgiving or penance, or appeal for divine protection and intervention (e.g. to help easy childbirth). In case of illness, a representative could be sent to Loreto, his services being usually compensated for. Also, a certain amount of money was sometimes bequeathed for pilgrimage to a particular shrine for the sake of absolution of the deceased. Communities, struck by disease or other hardship, are known to have sent their representatives on a pilgrimage (e.g. the city of Fermo struck by plague in 1456). Among those visiting the holy places on someone else’s behalf, there were individuals who made pilgrimage a profession.

Following a brief introduction into the origins of the Loreto cult and the tradition of the transportation of the Holy House from Nazareth to Tersatto and later Loreto, the author focuses on the period of the shrine’s prosperity. The fact that pilgrimage to the Holy Land was made impossible gave rise to a number of pilgrimage resorts throughout Europe. The Holy House of Loreto became “the greatest Palestinian relics of the West”, built on the Marian cult which gained popularity in medieval times. By the turn of the fourteenth century the shrine surpassed the local reputation as its popularity spread to other Italian regions, the Croatian coast and the mainland of the central and western Europe. The attraction of the Loreto shrine finds confirmation in the data traced in the wills of Zadar and Nin: half of fifteenth-century pilgrimages were made to Rome and a quarter to Assisi and Loreto. Marked by plague and war, the beginning of the sixteenth century discouraged the pilgrims from travelling. In order to attract the visitors, the sanctuaries organized fairs, granting indulgencies and other privileges of religious or secular nature. The Loreto shrine gained in importance during the Counter-Reformation, Council of Trent, and the first victories of the anti-Turkish coalition (e.g. honouring the battle of Lepanto, pilgrims to Loreto were granted a special privilege of the annual jubilee in 1576). New spirituality, which emphasized confession and devotional acts, contributed to the new image of a pilgrim. The close of the seventeenth century saw a blending of the God-fearing pilgrim and a dangerous vagabond. This called for the introduction of badges, health certificates, and permits which soon became part of the regular pilgrimage routine. Under the influence of the Enlightenment and the divorce from piety among the elite, the structure of the Loreto pilgrims experienced a profound and lasting change.

Pilgrimage to St. Mary of Loreto was usually made on four Marian festivals (Annunciation, Assumption, her Nativity—the chief feast, and since 1375 also Candlemas), the Holy Week and the feast of the Transportation of the
Holy House (December 10). The greatest gatherings of pilgrims took place in spring and autumn, when the weather conditions were more favourable and there was less work in the fields. Most pilgrims came on foot. Some travelled by boat from the north of Italy, Venice and Ancona, while Zadar was a gathering spot of the pilgrims from Rab, Šibenik and other towns of central Dalmatia. Three days seemed to have been an average stay in Loreto, during which the pilgrims practiced their devotion, but often proceeded to Rome and Assisi on the same journey. The number of pilgrims evidenced in the contemporary sources (journals of the pilgrims, chronicles of the Holy House) is often exaggerated, and a more reliable estimate (150,000-200,000 during feasts) may be made on the basis of the available receipts issued for the printing of the “confession certificates” which the pilgrims demanded.

Among the pilgrims there were women, children, and the elderly. Loreto attracted crowds of common people but the poor and the wretched as well. The visits of the dignitaries, however, are well documented with detailed descriptions of the journey, their activity in Loreto and even the food they were served (e.g. Christina of Sweden stopped in Loreto on her way to Rome). Some pilgrims journeyed from afar (the first Japanese visitors in 1585!) with an impressive entourage of hundreds of men on horseback. Apart from rulers and royalty, popes, and church dignitaries, Loreto attracted leading scholars and artists (Montaigne, Descartes, Montesquieu, Mozart, Casanova, Goldoni, etc.), guided by reasons of devotion or mere curiosity.

One chapter of the book (pp. 258-277) covers the Croatian immigrants and pilgrims (Schiavoni, Illirici). Focusing his attention on the theme, the author affords the basic information on the Croatian immigrates in the region of Recanati, pointing to the significance of the Illyrian college in Loreto, established in 1575. Migration from the Croatian lands to Recanati may be traced in the sources as early as the end of the thirteenth century. The first immigrants arrived in small numbers and met with no obstacles; Schiavoni had their fraternity as early as 1337, and built their own hospital by the end of the fifteenth century. During the Turkish invasion of the Balkan interior and migrational processes that followed, a sudden and massive influx of people from the eastern Adriatic coast took place. The immigrants of the “second wave” failed to establish themselves in the new surroundings, as most of them remained in domestic service or labour, and special measures were introduced in order to prevent the new migrants from arriving. The Croatian immigrants originated mainly from the coastal area, from Plomin and Buzet in Istria, to Mljet and Dubrovnik on the south, or from further inland - Modruž or Zagreb. Their occupations varied, some of which were closely related to catering for the needs of the pilgrims. As owners of inns, fifteenth-century records mention Grigor Matejev from Zagreb, also called Grigor the soldier, Benko Ivanov, Nikola Jurjev, nicknamed Ugarin (the Hungarian), Ivan Jurjev or Ivan the Great from Zadar, his brother Marko and nephew Stjepan, Blaž Pavlov, Ivan Pavlov and Toma Jurjev from Rijeka. Their business prospered and they were able to invest into real estate. At the beginning of the sixteenth century the goldsmiths Marin and Luka, migrants from Dubrovnik, produced silver plates representing the Virgin of Loreto, while somewhat earlier, Frano from Dubrovnik was member of the Loreto monastic community.

Similar to others, Croatian pilgrims arriving in Loreto were of different social background and varying financial means. According to seventeenth-century hospice records, the entire possessions of Margarita, a young girl of Dubrovnik suffering from fever, was a ragged garb, whereas a certain Elizabeta of Zadar, who found herself in a similar situation, had some spare clothes and money on her. There is proof that Loreto equally attracted the poor and the rich. In January of 1497 Bernardin Frankapan, member of one of the most important noble families of Croatia, visited the shrine, while Jerolim Crnota, patrician of Rab, donated a
marble basin for the holy water to the Holy House in 1511. Mid-sixteenth century marked the growing popularity of Loreto among the Croats, and some accounts testify to their noted piety manifested in weeping and sobbing, and appeals for the ‘reappearance’ of the Virgin Mary. Despite a few misreadings of the names and toponyms (not surprising for a non-Croat) and deficiencies in the register, the book is a valuable source of information on the pilgrimage practice of the Croatians in the later Middle Ages and early modern period as well as their migration to the Italian region of Marche.

The book provides a rare insight into the world of the Loreto shrine, composed of tradesmen and craftsmen, but also pickpockets and rogues. Goldoni’s account of the atmosphere at the fair may contribute to the general picture: having recognized his Venetian accent, the vendors of the shrine souvenirs raised the price by the third (pp. 475-476). Diverse measures, if futile, were taken to protect the pilgrims from aggressive sellers, to drive away the beggars, and to establish control over the travelling salesmen and the authentic quality of the objects sold.

A myriad of devotional objects offered in Loreto over the centuries have been preserved in the shrine collection, whose inventory and a number of illustrations have also been presented in the volume. The pilgrims took pleasure in buying little medallions and silver statuettes of the Madonna, rosaries (especially after the Council of Trent), lamp oil and candles, and those from Marche often had their wrists tattooed. The visitors procured the badges of the shrine and communion certificates, and offered gifts in thanksgiving (among which were the pictures of the ailing body parts). The best-seller among devotionalia was the dust wiped from the Chapel walls on the evening of Maundy Thursday, carefully wrapped with a warranty certifying its authenticity or mixed with clay and sold as pottery, along with the shreds of the veil with which the Virgin’s statue was covered during the Holy Week.

The choice of relevant, diversified, wordy, and often amusing sources is by far the greatest value of this book. They include pilgrimage accounts and detailed travel memoirs from different periods, guides and observance manuals, hospice registers, wills, the inventories of the inns, the kitchen and the local pharmacy. It is upon these sources and many others, some of which have been published for the first time, that the author bases his conclusions.

Deeply rooted in the life of this sacred place, Grimaldi has written a most insightful book about the history of the Loreto shrine. His close relation to the subject, however, has left enough space for the critical perspective. The information from the historical sources is being cross-checked (e.g. the number of pilgrims), and the processes and phenomena have gained the importance they deserve (focusing the attention on the golden age of the Loreto shrine). The author shows a most delicate approach when tackling areas where history and tradition, faith and popular devotion, spiritual and worldly overlap, being equally attuned to human simple-mindedness, greed, or deceit.

The fact that the text as well as the pertaining documents have not been cleansed from the evidence on carnal sins, sale of religious objects by fraud, the tension between diocesan clergy and the monks etc. adds considerably to the genuine interpretation of the theme, providing the reader with a lively picture of the pilgrimage phenomenon. The following credo may verily illustrate the work of Father Grimaldi on the eve of his seventieth birthday: Veritati devotus.

Nella Lonza

Paola Pierucci’s bold decision to plunge into the world of money, particularly coin minting and the rate of exchange, should be most welcomed, the theme being both complex and delicate. A paucity of historiographic tradition on the mint and the exchange market in early modern Europe is not surprising, as the author is challenged by a great variety of currencies and their names, the use of different alloys in coin minting, etc. The researcher is constantly faced with a difficult task of compiling a data base containing information on the quantity of precious metal obtained and coined in the mint, and at the same time has to analyze a series of economic changes taking place on the major markets of Europe.

Pierucci’s decision to search for data in the rich sources of the State Archives of Dubrovnik proved to be most beneficial. The nature of the Dubrovnik mint and its organization is amply documented, testifying to its unique qualities and position in view of the European counterparts. It is not by chance that the mint of Dubrovnik has attracted most scholarly attention: from Rešetar in the late 19th century, to Vinar in the 1950s and 1960s. Here, I should mention more recent contributions of Antonio Di Vittorio in the 1970s-1980s who has published several books and studies relating to the monetary history of Dubrovnik. Paola Pierucci has already explored the mint of the city of St. Blaise and published several articles which have served as basis for this book. She herself testifies to the significance with which at least a part of the western historiography looks upon the valuable sources on coin minting in Dalmatia, being fully aware of the fact that these documents do not only highlight the economic and financial life of this small Adriatic republic but also serve in establishing a model and general methodology, to explain the monetary system and the understanding of the functioning of the public finances within the social framework of the ancien régime.

Pierucci opens the book by setting out two ambitious objectives: accurate reconstruction of Dubrovnik’s eighteenth-century monetary history, and the mechanisms of transmission of precious metals from Western Europe to the East. The latter is of considerable importance for modern historiography because it is closely related to the inflation transmission, and may help in elucidating this topic, or, for example, the “price revolution” of the sixteenth century, a problem which is still not fully defined.

The book’s well-crafted, illustrative, and clear starting point is the development of the European monetary system of the modern period. The mint’s many functions have been elaborated in the chapter pertaining to its administrative affairs. The author also provides new evidence on the seemingly irrelevant facts and people as she pursues to reconstruct the everyday activities of the mint.

The author continues with a technically-based approach to the question of the purchase of silver for coining (Dubrovnik has no tradition of minting golden coins). The fifteenth century brought the revival of Dubrovnik’s commerce on the international scale, hence the need for money and silver for its coining. Though, at first, the Republic managed to maintain its reserves of silver by imposing harsh export taxes, the oncoming “price revolution” forced the Republic to resort to a variety of solutions, reflecting the true picture of the dangerous shortage of silver: from geological exploration to the silverplating of copper coins; from counterfeiting foreign currencies (Polish, Dutch, Hungarian, etc.) to the debasement of the Ragusan pecia in the seventeenth century. Lastly, I draw attention to the naivety of the Ragusan Senate in these matters, when, driven to despair, in 1681 they placed their trust into the hands of the alchemists of Naples who claimed to have found a method of ‘producing’ silver and gold.

It is in her dealing with the specific monet-
ary issues of the eighteenth century that the author concentrates on an extremely interesting problem. It was then that Dubrovnik experienced one of the most troublesome periods of its long and difficult history. Despite great efforts in trying to keep pace with the changes on the domestic as well as the international economic scene, the Republic underwent a phase of progressive economic decline which, following the end of the Austro-Turkish war in 1739, deprived the country of internal markets and grew into an open crisis. But times of hardship are known to activate certain defence mechanisms which demonstrate a community’s ability to cope with the problem. Therefore these crises are of the scholars’ prime interest, although they require far more analytical effort than the periods of prosperity.

Pierucci’s description of the Ragusan decay takes the reader through different stages which together build a coherent and complex whole. This step-by-step procedure helps an inexpert reader to grasp the problem more easily. The crisis started with the loss of the Balkan market which eventually affected the weakening of the Ragusan trade balance, and was all too hard a blow upon the Republic’s previous prosperous commerce on land and sea. This resulted in a drastic drop in the inflow of silver from the Balkan mines, the Republic’s major resources of this precious metal. In order to meet the needs, Dubrovnik had already tried to resolve the shortage of silver by stimulating a greater inflow of silver coins. The author provides a series of tables showing the quantity of the precious metal, coined or uncoined, purchased and refined in the mint during the eighteenth century. It is interesting to note that by the end of the seventeenth century the mint processed ninety percent of silver, while a century later this value fell to as low as three percent; the values related to the minted silver are evidently different.

The author goes into meticulous detail to provide an insight into the methods the Republic resorted to in order to procure silver money. Ragusan tradesmen sold the Balkan goods throughout Europe, especially on the market of Naples, in exchange for the expired money or that of less representative coinage, such as reales de a ocho of Seville for example, and passed it on to the mint. From 1725 the mint was thus supplied with the necessary metal for the minting of taler, a high-quality Ragusan metallic money which was then used to pay the merchants. Such a procedure was to everyone’s satisfaction: the mint earned three percent of a profit, whereas the Ragusan merchants had talers to purchase the goods brought to Dubrovnik by the Turkish tradesmen. Owing to the excellent quality of the Ragusan money, the domestic merchants were able to make a seven to eight percent profit on the wholesale price. The tradesmen of the Porte, however, were happy to get hold of talers because later they could profit as much as twelve percent by obtaining commodities in Bosnia and Valachia where this currency was highly valued.

The Republic’s trade mechanism perpetuated itself as it increased the amount of goods imported from the mainland, which the Ottoman merchants tended to direct towards this Dalmatian town rather than Istanbul. This contributed to a better financial establishment of Dubrovnik as a link between the East and West, and at the same time facilitated the growth of the coinage import reserves. Thus Dubrovnik, deficient in natural resources but rich in initiative, proved its ability, perhaps unique in the European context, to act as a gate (“una porta”) between the Western economy and Eastern markets and not by mere chance or favourable geographical position, but thanks to the Republic’s ability to look ahead and adapt its economic and monetary policy to the current international trends.

In conclusion, Pierucci’s study reverses the traditional view that the changes in currency rates prove a reliable barometer of a state’s balance of payments. In eighteenth-century Dubrovnik, contrarily, money becomes a financial instrument of economic policy, and the volume of exchange reflects its rating position. The author highlights this problem through a recon-
struction of the exchange rates of the Ragusan currency in relation to the major foreign currencies distributed on the Republic market at the time: reales de a ocho of Seville, filippi of Milan, French and papal scudo, Austrian taler, and Turkish kurus. All the currencies except that of Turkey showed a steady rise in rating against the Ragusan taler. The rise could be partly accounted by the Republic’s constant demand for currency, which subsequently led to an increasing deficiency in the system itself.

Pierucci’s book raises questions on the possible weak spot of the Ragusan economic and monetary structure, which may lie in the functional overload of the mint, as vaguely alluded to by the author. The mint was a place where coins were made and exchanged. Also, it was a public bank and a creditor to public institutions as well as the government. In order to meet these latter functions, the mint took upon itself the responsibilities which most likely hampered the Ragusans from having greater influence on the economic development by increasing on the monetary mechanisms.

Finally, this book is not only a valuable contribution to our understanding of the Ragusan past but a rare insight into a complex economic and monetary system which acted as a driving force of this Dalmatian city-republic. Historiography, however, has gained a methodological model for the study of the institute of the mint that remains to be explored.

Giulio Fenicia


Antonio Di Vittorio, Italian historian of Barì, has devoted much of his scholarly interest to the research of the Republic of Dubrovnik. Ten studies on the economic history of the Republic of Dubrovnik and its role in the Mediterranean area, written over the course of twenty years (1978-2001), have been gathered into one volume under the title *Tra mare e terra. Aspetti economici e finanziari della Repubblica di Ragusa in età moderna.*

Vittorio’s essay entitled “Ragusa: la memoria storica” (pp. 3-8, submitted at the conference in Naples, 1997) is an itinerary through the archives. Di Vittorio affords the basic information on the Republic of Dubrovnik by producing a survey of the archival series and their accessibility to the researchers.

His essay “L’impatto delle scoperte portoghesi sull’economia di Ragusa nel secolo XVI” (pp. 9-21, first published in 1985) examines the negative effect of the Portuguese discovery of the Indian route via the Cape of Good Hope upon Ragusan economy and commerce. Di Vittorio asserts that Ragusan trade with the East via Alexandria experienced a drastic drop in the first two decades of the sixteenth century.

Di Vittorio’s most recent contribution to this volume, “Dall’Adriatico all’Atlantico: interessi e orientamenti della marineria ragusea in Età Moderna” (pp. 23-36, 2001) highlights the new orientation of the Ragusan maritime commerce and its emergence on the broader commercial market, particularly that of England.

The study “Gli investimenti finanziari ragusani in Italia tra XVI e XVIII secolo” (pp. 37-78) was conceived in 1978. The author analyzes Ragusan investments in Italy between the sixteenth and the eighteenth centuries. They exceeded 400,000 Ragusan ducats in the six-
teenth century, rose to almost 700,000 ducats in the seventeenth, only to reach a steady total of more than 700,000 ducats by the end of the eighteenth century. The bulk of the investments was made in the banks of Naples (more than 80% in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries), while in the eighteenth century the banks of Venice seemed to have gained in popularity (more than 50%).

Di Vittorio’s essay “Teoria economica e politica finanziaria a Ragusa nell’età di transizione” (pp. 79-107, 1983) casts light on the successful financial management of the Ragusan government, which, reputed for its pragmatic excellence and acquaintance with the leading economic theories of the early seventeenth century (mercantilism and cameralism, including their “regional” variants), could at all times find the best way to adapt its financial policy to the ruling circumstances.

The Republic’s reality marked by constant balancing between economic stability and political instability, ending fatally with Napoleon’s campaign at the dawn of the nineteenth century, is discussed in Di Vittorio’s essay “La Repubblica di Ragusa tra stabilità economica e debolezza politica” (pp. 169-176), submitted at the Avellino conference in 1999.

“Un grande nodo postale tra Oriente e Occidente in età moderna: la Repubblica di Ragusa” (pp. 109-137, 1988) is the title of an essay which addresses the significant intelligence role of the Republic of Dubrovnik in mediating between the East and West through their numerous colonies in the hinterland, the developed consular network in the Mediterranean, and the maritime and commercial traffic.

In “Il ruolo del sale nella ripresa economica ragusea del XVIII secolo” (pp. 139-155, 1981) Di Vittorio analyzes the significance of salt production in the overall Ragusan industry of the eighteenth century, whereas the essay “Le isole ragusee nell’economia e nella politica della Repubblica” (pp. 157-167, 2000) highlights the contribution of the Republic’s islands in the state economy.

The essay which concludes the volume, “Tendenze e orientamenti nella storiografia marittima ragusea”, brings a survey of historiographic data on the Ragusan seafaring (pp. 177-221, 1986).

Antonio Di Vittorio points to the important role of the Republic of Dubrovnik within the general history of the Mediterranean basin. Also, he has drawn scholarly attention to the rich sources of the State Archives of Dubrovnik, done before him, among others, by Fernand Braudel. Consternated by the 1991 aggression against Dubrovnik, Di Vittorio felt a need to pay a “simbolico omaggio alla Città”. His essays focus on the economic history of the Republic of Dubrovnik, exploring carefully chosen themes and placing emphasis on the frameworks of Dubrovnik’s economic policy. His studies are based on the archival sources of Dubrovnik and he masters the relevant Croatian literature. In terms of methodology, Di Vittorio has a prominent place within traditional historiography. Croatian readership may have expected to find more new data from the Italian sources in Di Vittorio’s work. Italian readers, however, will undoubtedly benefit most from this book in which (economic) history of the Republic of Dubrovnik has been brought to their attention, this probably being the author’s aim in the first place.

Nenad Vekarić
Numerous contributions of Nevenka Bezić-Božanić are scattered throughout scholarly publications with fairly limited circulation. An effort to compile in one volume seventeen valuable essays on the culture of living written over the last twenty years, has been welcomed by the specialists as well as a wider audience. In the collection, which has been published under a picturesque title, *Juditini dvori*, the author reconstructs the domestic interiors, lifestyle, customs and dress of Dalmatia and of the Republic of Dubrovnik between the fifteenth and the nineteenth century.

In the essay »Svakodnevni život u djelu Nikole Nalješkovića« (“Daily life in the work of Nikola Nalješković", pp. 11-20), the author’s reconstruction of sixteenth-century Dubrovnik kitchen is based on the vivid poetic word and archival sources, demonstrating the food customs, its preparation and serving, along with the variety of spices commonly used at the time. Apart from the kitchen, the reader is being guided through the entire house, becoming familiar with the furniture and accessory furnishings, heating and lighting, chests and their contents, weapons, and ornamentation. The exterior and interior of the Ragusan houses is further examined in the articles »Prilog poznavanju dubrovačke kuće u 15. i 16. stoljeću« (“A contribution to the study of the Dubrovnik home of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries", pp. 99-109) and »Dubrovačka kuća prvih godina 17. stoljeća« (“The Dubrovnik home of the early seventeenth century”, pp. 111-126). The former article affords insights into the layout of the Gothic and Renaissance stone-built houses in Dubrovnik, the diversity of decoration, but also a unique pattern of their ground plan. The author brings to light painted walls and textile drapery, carved beams, framed ceiling coverings, chapels, paintings, chests and coffers, beds, carved wooden chairs and tables, in addition to a wide variety of objects of domestic use and ornament which constituted important elements in the sophisticated furnishing of these interiors. It should be noted that the author singles out the most valuable pieces and those representing most excellent craftsmanship. The article on the Dubrovnik home of the early seventeenth century draws attention to the alterations in the interior decorating in view of the former period. The analyses are based upon the household inventories of the Ragusan patricians and commoners, as well as the data on the objects of common domestic use ordered by the merchants and sold at their stores. Seventeenth century no longer witnessed painted walls and drapery, for in addition to paintings, gilt leather became one of the most fashionable wall decorations. The furniture and accessory furnishings experienced modest changes in form, bed being one of the exceptions. Clocks seem to have decorated many a household. As an illustration, this article is accompanied by one of the household inventories preserved in the State Archives of Dubrovnik, upon which this study was based.

Clothing fabric and lace, tableware, weapons, and jewellery were the work of both domestic and foreign craftsmen. The author points to the fact that many items were imported, particularly from England, Holland, Portugal, Spain, southern Italy, Venice, and the Ottoman Empire, as discussed in more detail in the essay »Utjecaj pomorskih veza na kulturu življenja u Dalmaciji i Dubrovačkoj republici od 15. do 19. stoljeća« (“The maritime connections and their impact on the culture of living in Dalmatia and the Republic of Dubrovnik between the fifteenth and the nineteenth centuries”, pp. 55-67).

Two essays illustrate the everyday life and dress of Korčula. In the article »Nekoliko arhivskih isprava o kulturi stanovanja u Korčuli 17. stoljeća« (“Several archival documents on the culture of living in seventeenth-century Korčula”, pp. 153-160), the author shows that the domestic interiors of Korčula, if more modest in comparison with the extravagant displays of their Dubrovnik counterparts, did follow a
similar decoration pattern. Men’s and women’s clothing, in addition to the changes in fashion have been discussed in »Nekoliko podataka o odijevanju Korčulana u 17. stoljeću« (“Gleanings on dress in seventeenth-century Korčula”, pp. 241-250).

The urban environment of the island of Hvar has provided the author with most extensive research material. Six articles focus on this subject matter. The essay entitled »Hvarska renesansna sredina« (“The Renaissance Hvar”, pp. 21-43) traces the daily life and habits of the population of Hvar through an analysis of the origin and customs of numerous immigrants. A unique location of the town and its harbour, halfway on the Adriatic longitudinal maritime route, brought Hvar its economic prosperity as basis for the cultural and artistic development. The article »Unutrašnjost hvarske kuće u 17. stoljeću« (“Seventeenth-century domestic interior of Hvar”, pp. 141-151) casts light on the culture of living in Hvar, illustrated by the material cited in the inventories. Evidence on tailors, fabric dyers and men’s and women’s costume has been presented in the essay »Nekoliko podataka o odijevanju Hvarana u XVI. stoljeću« (“Gleanings on dress in sixteenth-century Hvar”, pp. 161-186), the appendix of which includes three detailed lists of clothes and other items. The similar subject matter is highlighted in the essays »Odijevanje u Hvaru XVII. stoljeća« (“Clothing style in seventeenth century Hvar”, pp. 187-203) and »Nekoliko podataka o dotama u Starom Gradu na otoku Hvaru« (“Gleanings on dowries in Stari Grad on the island of Hvar”, pp. 204-218). Jewellery has been discussed in »Nakit u hvarskim kućama 16. i 17. stoljeća« (“Jewellery and ornamentation in the Hvar home of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries”, pp. 219-229). Apart from reconstructing the household interior, the author provides an illustrative insight into the appearance of their dwellers, particularly the female ones.

Two essays are devoted to the city of Makarska. »Kulturno-povijesna sredina Makarske u XVIII stoljeću« (“The cultural and historical aspect of Makarska in the eighteenth century”, pp. 69-89) reconstructs the daily life of Makarska after the liberation of the area from the Turks, in particular personal belongings, the culture of living and dress. In the article »Ostaci turskog utjecaja na život i običaje u Makarskom primorju i njegovu zaleđu« (“The residues of the Turkish influence upon the life and customs in Makarsko primorje and its hinterland”, pp. 91-97) the author points to the cross-cultural effect of the Eastern and the Western traditions.

Fifteenth-century Šibenik is brought to light on the basis of poetic verse and archival evidence on the work customs and dress in the article »Šibenik u Šišgoričevu doba« (“Šibenik in day of Juraj Šišgorić”, pp. 45-54). The essay entitled »Prilog poznavanju zadarske kuće u 17. stoljeću« (“A contribution to the study of seventeenth-century domestic interior of Zadar”, pp. 127-140) casts light on the rich and sophisticated household interiors of Zadar, particularly those of the nobility.

In addition, a curious eye is cast over the contents of the marriage chests in the article »Djevojačke opreme na otoku Visu u 17. stoljeću« (“Girl’s trousseau on the island of Vis in the seventeenth century”, pp. 230-240). Although more modest than in other Dalmatian communities, these dowries deserve equal scholarly interest and appreciation.

The appendix includes indexes, while valuable illustrations of objects of common domestic use on which the craftsman’s skill was lavished, are to be found in the middle of the volume. Most of the objects described in the here collected essays have been cited with reference to the archival sources only, because, regrettably, a few of them have survived.

Based on meticulous archival research, this lively reconstruction provides a most valuable insight into the culture pattern of Dalmatia and the Republic of Dubrovnik between the fifteenth and the seventeenth century, expressed in everyday life and customs. It is a pity, however, that the collection lacks an overall synthesis of everyday life, the culture of living, dress and diet.

Zdravka Jelaska

Derived from a personal and experiential context, *The Bridge to Dalmatia* is a specific recapitulation. Francis Violich is an American (born in San Francisco, 1911), to whom his Croatian roots have a greater meaning than a mere biographical fact. Growing up in a setting strongly marked by his broader and immediate family and the Croatian-American immigration community, his personal and professional development was influenced by two men: Louis Adamic and Lewis Mumford. Adamic’s multicultural approach encouraged Violich to resist the popular melting-pot concept of the 1920s and reinforce his own discovery of the richness of his parental origins and cultural heritage. The works of Lewis Mumford, however, broadened his vision of cities, and he chose urban places as the main theme of his scientific interest. Francis Violich is a founding member of the Department of City and Regional Planning and emeritus professor of city planning and landscape architecture at the University of California, Berkeley, and has made considerable contribution to the urban planning process and housing development in Latin America. Mumford’s insistence on the cultural and social aspects of urbanization and urban environment played a major role in the formation and evolution of Violich’s view of urban phenomena.

The title of the book, *The Bridge to Dalmatia*, is pregnant with meaning. The author uses the metaphor of The Bridge as a vehicle for a web of mutual relationships established by his Dalmatian-born forebears who immigrated to the New World, a link continued by his recurrent visits to Dalmatia over the last sixty years, and fruitful connections established on the academic level as well. From his first visit to “the old country” in 1937, Violich has revisited Dalmatia in search of personal and professional answers. As the author himself prefaces, the factual information underlying his argumentation did not grow out of a research project of predetermined design in the usual academic sense. Rather, the research came into being as an inherent part of a larger context of life experiences. Deeply personal in its tone and style, this book does not easily fit into any conventional (European, of course) scientific genre. Moreover, in the comprehension and rethinking of *The Bridge to Dalmatia*, one cannot set aside its predominantly (auto)biographical character. A Proustian subtitle—*A Search for the Meaning of Place*—is motivated by the author’s deep-seated attachment to the land of his forebears.

The introductory chapter deals with Violich’s Dalmatian roots. Portraying the characters from his family album, he tries to reconstruct the settings of the worlds at the two ends of the bridge—Dalmatia and America—in which the family story has been taking place, as a prelude to the author’s forthcoming search.

Following a brief survey of diverse global issues of urban living today, Violich focuses on the problem of identity which he holds to be the most important factor in the process of (subjective) understanding of the meaning of place. All the stages of this process have been thoroughly elaborated, from experience and intuition to the feeling of personal place attachment and direct involvement. Viewed in this light, the author has developed a theoretically-based approach to “urban reading”, a step-by-step method helping to understand distinctive urban identities. It should be pointed out that this approach postulates reconnoitring of the place in its entirety as well as in each of its sectors, primarily as a phenomenon. According to Violich, in order to grasp the inner nature of a chosen place, one should fully immerse himself in it, free of any knowledge previously accumulated.

The author is not explicitly oriented towards the genuine aspect of urban spaces, or settlements in a narrower sense, but focuses his attention on environmental systems which, in conformity with ecological principles, he terms *environment*, its interdependent elements being
place, buildings, and people. By looking at each element in terms of its dynamic qualities, we can focus on the nature of their relationship. The notion of place as a complex whole with common features is very generally understood, ranging from certain micro-environments to the entire geographical regions. In the third chapter (The Making of Dalmatia as a Regional Place) the author develops his views on the urban and historical background of the shaping of Dalmatia as a distinctive region with well-defined societal and environmental qualities, spanning from the earliest settlements of antiquity to the end of the twentieth century.

The fourth chapter (Cities of the Mainland) analyzes the urban development of three Dalmatian cities: Zadar (“city of diverse cultural origins”), Split (“from Roman palace to skyscraper skyline”), and Dubrovnik (“an autonomous city-state for 650 years”). Violich argues that it was Dubrovnik’s internal urbanity that helped it survive against external forces of history. The author traces the history of the greater city area and the shaping of its historical core from the early settlement in antiquity, the Middle Ages, French and Austrian administration to the twentieth century, he himself witnessed. During his first visit, in 1937, he saw Dubrovnik in a poor state of social and physical disarray. But on his return in 1968, he found enormous progress in the restoration of the city’s urban treasures. In contrast, his 1990 experience was deeply marked by “the stifling embrace of mass tourism”. The author strongly argues against the recent environmental outrage manifested in the construction of massive hotel complexes and multi-storey apartment buildings in the city environs, intruding on Dubrovnik’s unparalleled scenic setting and urban heritage. Violich begins his urban reading of Dubrovnik by putting his thoughts in order on a bench close to Our Lady of Danče, ascends the path of Gradac Park, and strolls down to Pile, stressing the truly theatrical experience of the entrance through the Pile Gate. The Stradun stretches before the observer in perfect perspective. Violich then walks the walls, having dialogue with urban elements and designers, illuminating the city with his own sensibility and associations. The Stradun is the city’s “keel”, connecting its north and south neighbourhoods into one. Strolling through the narrow streets, Violich takes the reader from one historical monument to another, evoking dates and events, insisting on the 1991 bombardment during the Serbo-Montenegrin aggression. In his opinion, it is a prime example of how a built environment can be made a target for the sake of destroying a place as a symbol of identity.

After a close reading of the features of the mainland cities, the author shifts his focus, as in counterpoint, to three villages on the island of Brač, homeland of the grandparents on his mother’s side: Sutivan, Pučišća, and Bol. Violich views them as diagrammatic structural wholes, underlining their well-articulated urban patterns determined by the original configuration of the natural site.

Chapter Five covers the towns of Hvar and Korčula, “the towns that dominate their islands”. In line with his previous readings, Violich does not only concentrate on their magnificent medieval urban structures, but states his critical view of their modern development as well. Violich’s urban reading is well-grounded, constructed on the interaction between three determinants: natural environment, built environment, and urban population.

In Chapter Six (Mountain Villages Linked to the Sea) Violich explores the identity of the villages of the peninsula of Pelješac, the land of his paternal grandparents: Orebić, Potomje, Kuna, and Podobuče.

The concluding Chapter entitled The Environment: Common Ground for Community Identity deals once again with the impact of war, primarily the 1991-1995 war in Croatia. Documenting his study with illustrations of direct damages the cities of Zadar and Dubrovnik suffered during the attacks, Violich points to a developed strategy of this cultural vandalism, rounding off his search for the meaning of
place by offering a vision for the coming generations and after-war guidelines for rebuilding bridges and environmental protection.

*The Bridge to Dalmatia* is a specific critical account of the events that took place in the Dalmatian region between 1930 and the last decade of the twentieth century. Although one may not always share Violich’s point of view, it must be emphasized, however, that the reliability of his conclusions rests on his own personal experiences, observation and analysis of Dalmatian cities, towns, and villages over a period of sixty years.

The strength of this book lies in the fact that it goes beyond academic debate on the past, offering concrete answers to an array of current environmental issues relating to historical urban places or cultivated landscape. In this light, the forthcoming Croatian edition should be warmly welcomed, both in view of the author’s scholarly reputation and his biographical references. The Croatian translation will undoubtedly interest a wide audience and help them develop an awareness of the exploitation limits of the urban and cultural resources. Also, it will surely lead to a more objective evaluation of the endeavours of Croatian art historians who, over the last fifty years, invested a lot of effort in the spatial planning and preservation of the historical zones and complexes.

Danko Zelić


This voluminous monograph is a welcome addition to our knowledge of residential architecture of Dubrovnik—houses and palaces of the inner city area, together with summer countryside residences—from the earliest examples dating from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries to those constructed in the last days of the Republic, in the early nineteenth century. The aforementioned thematic wholes determine the structure of the book. Following a general introduction on urban organization of Dubrovnik, Živanović concentrates on particular houses, palaces and summer residences in terms of their style, interior and exterior organization. The book contains a well-illustrated catalogue—the work of the author himself—comprising architectural drawings of the entire residential complexes and decorative stonework.

Given the above frame, one may be led to think that Živanović has written a comprehensive study on the topic, making a much-needed contribution to the survey of the residential architecture of Dubrovnik, an essential segment of the overall architectural and artistic heritage of Dubrovnik. Namely, most of the studies to date tend to single out individual monuments or specific themes in view of style (Gothic, Renaissance, Baroque) or location (inside or outside the city walls). Živanović’s book, however, aims to cover all types of the historical residential architecture, and all the main stylistic periods manifested throughout the territory of the Republic of Dubrovnik. Yet a closer reading of this volume reveals that the task has not been fully completed.

As underlined in the introduction, Živanović’s findings are the result of field research, i.e. mapping and drawing of the architectural heritage of Dubrovnik, the pioneering project carried out in the 1950s under a Belgrade architect Ivan Zdravković. Although Živanović fre-
quently refers to the greatest Croatian authorities on the subject, Lukša Beritić, Cvito Fisković, Nada Gruić, his interpretation is primarily grounded in the earlier works of the Belgrade authors—Jorjo Tadić, Ivan Zdravković, and Dragoljub Vuković. It should be pointed out, however, that the research of the architectural heritage of Dubrovnik has advanced immensely since these earliest references. Firstly, under the guidance of Milan Prelog, the Institute of the History of Art in Zagreb launched a systematic research in the 1960s which, apart from significant discoveries relating to urban development and architecture, resulted in a wealth of archaeological and photographic documentation. The 1979 earthquake in Dubrovnik gave way to a new initiative in the large-scale systematic archaeological and restorational probing. The results of this research, carried out by the experts from the Croatian Restoration Institute, the Institute of the History of Art in Zagreb, and the Institute for the Protection of Cultural Monuments in Dubrovnik, threw a new spotlight not only on the urban development of Dubrovnik but on the multi-historical layers of many palaces and summer residences. The results of their project have been published in scientific journals, but Živanović failed to consult them. Moreover, a regretful but understandable reference gap is due to the fact that the author had no access to the books and studies published over the last thirteen years in Zagreb and Dubrovnik.

The major feature of this book is that it provides insight into a considerable number of Dubrovnik buildings, their overall spatial organization, and a meticulous presentation of a series of architectural details. In the opening chapters of the three main sections—houses, palaces and summer residences—the author affords considerable evidence on the history of the profane buildings (construction contracts, professional relations between designer and builder, the Senate policy towards building, etc.). Thus despite sporadic outdatedness of perspective, the author’s task to “establish the features and development patterns of the Ragusan private and public buildings” has been successfully completed in its initial phase. His attempt to analyze the spatial organization of the buildings and their typology, however, is not without deficiencies. The author arrives at problematic conclusions at times, such as the one that Dubrovnik palace stems from the Dubrovnik house (p.104), or that the numerous examples of the countryside residences are evidence to a unique interior organization based on a single ground plan (p. 105). Here, the truth has been reversed: the palaces, often constructed according to master projects, influenced the development of less representative city houses, while the ground plans of the summer residences, despite the traditional Gothic-dated interior organization “quattro stanze un salon”, tend to experience radical changes during the Renaissance and the Baroque. Even greater limitations arise from the stylistic periodization. Although Živanović’s analysis of the Gothic and the Renaissance period (with substantial bibliography on the subject) suffers from no weaknesses, he makes erroneous conclusions on the periodization of the Baroque style, distinguishing two phases (p. 42): early (before) and late Baroque (after the 1667 earthquake). In fact, both phases belong to the post-earthquake period.

Lastly, a word about Živanović’s illustrations. The selected type of illustrations—his own line drawings of the current state of the houses, palaces and summer residences—is accounted by the author’s decision not to undertake “inaccurate reconstructions” of the original state as most of the buildings were subject to a series of subsequent alterations. Here, too, we have a paradox: instead of being provided with accurate architectural drawings indispensable for the research and the interpretation of the original state of the buildings, we have sketches of the current state of the predominantly devastated interiors and exteriors.

In summary, Živanović’s book is a valuable synthesis of certain historical contexts of Dubrovnik’s residential architecture. In his inventory, the author has itemized all the major
buildings with detailed records and illustrations of the most significant architectural features. On the other hand, however, having no insight into recent scholarship, the book lacks the analytical and interpretative standards of a comprehensive historical contribution.

Katarina Horvat-Levaj