

PART IV

Holding On to Religion



The Spiritual Icon







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Devil's Seed

And some will say that such teachings should not be uttered or written to the unlearned. To this I reply, if one may not teach the unlearned, then no one can teach or write. For we teach the unlearned so that from being unlearned they may become learned. If there were nothing new there would be nothing old. "Those who are well," says our Lord, "have no need of medicine" [Luke 5:31]. The physician is there to heal the sick. But if anyone misinterprets this saying, how can he help it who rightly teaches this saying, which is right?

BOOK OF DIVINE COMFORT

Specters of Heresy

The years of Eckhart's stay in Strasbourg coincided almost exactly with the demographic crisis of 1315–22 known to survivors as the Great Famine. Beginning with the ominous appearance of a new comet in November 1315, northern Europeans experienced a series of bitter, extended winters followed by severe and sustained spring and summer downpours. During the winter of 1315–16, the Baltic Sea froze over; two years later, subfreezing temperatures lasted from late November 1317 to April 1318. Widespread floods and windstorms during the warmer months devastated crops across the continent, leading to famine, uncontrollable inflation, malnutrition, epidemics, and massive starvation. Mortality rates surpassed those of any other time

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during the entire Middle Ages—except those of the cataclysmic Black Death thirty years later. Hordes of hungry, homeless beggars roamed the land, while theft and other crime skyrocketed. Chroniclers reported multiple cases of cannibalism and infanticide. Religious processions of barefoot, self-flagellating penitents pleaded with God to restore normal weather and prosperity. Many people, invoking the 1315 comet and other celestial signs, believed that the days of the Last Judgment were at hand.

These were also the days of Meister Eckhart's popular sermons on the divine birth. While the master himself never once spoke in apocalyptic terms, surely some of his listeners felt a new sense of urgency in their own spiritual quests. Certainly, as is usually the case, the environmental crisis aggravated existing social tensions. Parish priests and other members of the secular clergy of Strasbourg renewed their campaign against beguines, once more pleading with their bishop, Johann I, to take action against the religious women and their mendicant supporters. Johann, one of the earliest opponents of the religious women's movement, needed little convincing that something particularly dangerous was under way in his diocese. In August 1317, he published an impassioned condemnation of "so-called religious beghards and sisters [i.e., beguines]," some of whom he accused of belonging to the underground Free Spirit sect. Among the forty-two errors listed, the bishop began with the charge of pantheism, their claim that "God is everywhere and this makes them perfect. . . . They say that a person can be so united with God that all his power, will, and activity is the same as God's." They believe, he continued, "that they are God by nature without distinction," and "that with God they created all things." And since "they are so free in the spirit, whatever they do with the body, they do not sin."

The resemblance of such statements to Eckhart's own preaching is unmistakable, yet Johann never once refers to the influence of the famed Dominican or any of his fellow friars. Some modern historians have suggested that the bishop even sought out Eckhart's help in dealing with the beguines in particular. Still, the master must have been struck by the similarity to many of his own words, particularly when he heard that the accused heretics "likened themselves truly by nature to Christ himself" and claimed that they should trust their "heart" or "interior instinct" more than anything

else. According to Bishop Johann, many of these "dangerous people" considered the Christianity of their day "utter foolishness," rejecting the sacraments, fasting, and petitionary prayer, as well as purgatory and hell. All such individuals, he ordered, should immediately stop wearing penitential garb, forfeit all possessions, and live conventionally pious lives or face excommu-

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Was there truly such an organized sect as the Free Spirits? Almost certainly not. But there were small networks of individuals who proclaimed some of these beliefs and who challenged the existing Church hierarchy. Were some of these people misunderstanding or appropriating Meister Eckhart's words? Possibly, although none of the surviving documents makes such a direct association. Many of these beliefs had been in circulation for a while, and not just in Strasbourg. Half a century earlier, Albert the Great was asked to comment on several similar heretical statements collected by contemporary Church authorities in southern Germany. His final compilation of twenty-nine articles included one that he derided as "Pelagian foolishness": "Where it says that a person is not good unless he leaves God for God's sake"—an early formulation of one of Eckhart's most famous statements (Therefore I pray to God to make me free of God)!

nication. All laypeople were to stop listening to their songs and to their

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Like most of his fellow theologians, Albert classified all false teachings in terms of ancient heresies, in this instance the teaching of St. Augustine's rival Pelagius that individual salvation was largely a matter of self-mastery and willpower. He also detected in his own time a common populist tone: "They say they ought not to reveal the grace they possess to learned men because [such men] would not know what it is. The learned only know what is on the page, but these folk know through experience by means of which they say they suck from the divine sweetness." Finally, Albert found that the self-enlightened of his day tended toward moral lawlessness, usually meaning sexual libertarianism, for example, "what is done below the belt by good people is not a sin."

Fifty years later, Eckhart could not have avoided recognizing the frequent affinity of his own preaching with such still current heterodox ideas. While his sermons vehemently refuted any antinomian interpretations of



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his own self-divinization project, he remained aware of the persistent danger of misinterpretation. He also unaccountably made things worse for himself. Either the master was not aware of the heretical origins of some of his most flamboyant sayings—such as "leaving God for God's sake"—or he intentionally appropriated them, supplying a new meaning. Certain of his own orthodoxy and divine calling, he was incautious at best and reckless at worst. There is no evidence that his continued preaching put Eckhart in any direct jeopardy during his time in Strasbourg, but the apparent immunity provided by his status as a Dominican vicar general and Parisian master would not last forever.

The beguines he ministered to, by contrast, enjoyed no such reputational protection. Only their Dominican and Franciscan confessors stood between them and the bishop's wrath. Johann claimed that his most recent clampdown was based on the Ad Nostrum decree of the Council of Vienne, which he subsequently published to all his clergy on October 25, 1317. Early the next year he circulated his edict among other German bishops, hoping to gather support for complete suppression of the beguines. Most of Johann's peers remained ambivalent about such extreme measures, however, except in the instances where heresy could be indisputably established. Pope John XXII, despite multiple pleas from the Strasbourg bishop, likewise worried about unjust accusations against many pious women and charged Johann to distinguish between good and bad beguines within his own diocese. Instead, under intense pressure from his own clergy, the bishop defied the pope and repeated his outright ban of the beguine status in January 1319, ordering all houses to disband and their inhabitants to return to their own parishes. A month later he threated Dominicans and other mendicants with punishment if they failed to back him up. Only a settlement later that year-negotiated in part by Vicar General Eckhart-diffused the crisis, with the bishop agreeing to refer all beguine-related conflicts to independent procurators of the papal curia. The immediate danger to Strasbourg's beguines and their mendicant backers—including Meister Eckhart—had been averted.

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Brotherly Accusations

Sometime in 1323, when he was in his early sixties, Eckhart was transferred to the city of Cologne. Though never the seat of an emperor, Cologne was the preeminent German metropolis. Its population of more than forty thousand was the largest of any city in the land and its lord, the prince-bishop of Cologne, one of the most powerful princes of the realm. The Dominican priory of the city also served as a headquarters of sorts for the order, housing about ninety brothers and boasting the most famous *studium generale*, or university school, in Europe. Scholars dispute whether Meister Eckhart formally assumed the lecture chair occupied nearly a half century earlier by his mentor, Albert the Great. Certainly he lectured regularly within the priory as well as in surrounding churches, including those of Dominican, Cistercian, and Benedictine nuns.

Cologne was also home to the largest concentration of beguines in the empire, with 169 houses and between two and four thousand religious women. The archbishop, Heinrich II of Virneburg, had been Bishop Johann of Strasbourg's closest ally in his attempt to identify and punish heretical beguines and to disband the rest. Like Johann, Heinrich detested the women's movement and remained wary of mendicants in general. He was personally familiar with the Marguerite Porete case and had been the only German archbishop in attendance at the Council of Vienne when Ad Nostrum was proclaimed. Like Johann, Heinrich had issued several statutes attempting to close down beguinages, only to become bogged down in conflicts with the city council and local Dominicans. Still his campaign against dangerous preaching continued. The year before Eckhart's arrival in the city, one beghard priest named Walter had been defrocked and condemned to death; shortly afterward, another priest, six beguines, and several laymen were imprisoned for life.

Heinrich of Virneburg was the type of venal and authoritarian church leader that religious reformers loved to hate. As the second son of a ducal family in the Rhineland-Palatinate, he was destined early on for a career in ecclesiastical leadership. Over the course of a long life, he gradually







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assembled multiple church offices, skillfully deploying both political maneuvering skills and family connections. In 1298, his chief patron, King Albrecht I, helped him obtain an archdeaconry in Trier and just two years later got him elected to the powerful office of archbishop of Trier. When Pope Boniface VIII ordered Heinrich to step aside for the pontiff's preferred candidate, he obeyed and bided his time. Four years later, when the archbishopric of Cologne became available, Heinrich embarked on a two-year lobbying campaign with the new pope, Clement V, succeeding only once he agreed not to support the French king, Philip the Fair, and to pay the curia 2,000 silver marks, a considerable sum. He also made private financial arrangements with the cathedral canons of Cologne.

As prince-bishop of Cologne, Heinrich subsequently not only oversaw the church personnel and property of four dioceses (Utrecht, Lüttich, Münster, and Trier), but also ruled an expansive secular territorial state. In addition, he was one of the seven electors of the Holy Roman Emperor, a position of tremendous influence in determining the legitimacy of any would-be leader. By the time Eckhart encountered Heinrich in Cologne, the latter was an old man of nearly eighty. Like the master's previous bishop in Strasbourg, the archbishop was primarily a politician operating at the highest level who saw his pastoral duty in terms of maintaining good order and discipline among his clergy and their parishioners. He had not attended university, nor was he a theologian. It's highly improbable that he ever heard one of Meister Eckhart's sermons, let alone read any of his tracts. The prince-bishop rarely, if ever, preached and delegated to his subordinates all matters of doctrine and religious ceremonies. Historians have not been kind to Heinrich, variously characterizing him as selfish, crotchety, and a prodigious drinker. Yet he was also surprisingly energetic, despite many illnesses, and above all very pragmatic.

The "beguine problem" in Cologne, in Archbishop Heinrich's eyes, was primarily a matter of applying his authority to satisfy his various constituencies. For years he had listened to complaints from his clergy about how beguines and beghards regularly undermined their own authority vis-à-vis their parishioners. Genuine concern about heresy undoubtedly also played a role in Heinrich's response to the beguines, as did misogyny, exacerbating





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Heinrich's apparently deep resentment of such independent women, unaccountable to any Church official. Local Dominicans and Franciscans—likewise unaccountable to the archbishop—further contributed to the potential chaos through their continuing support of such women and intentional humiliation of the city's secular clergy. Forceful actions against unpopular beguines also likely pleased members of the city council, who were enmeshed in arguments with the prince-bishop over the city's rights and privileges.

Heinrich also knew that he could count on papal support for his campaign. John XXII, elected in 1316, was involved in a monumental power struggle with Ludwig of Bavaria (Louis IV), the putative Holy Roman Emperor. Since his defeat of Friedrich the Fair in 1322, Ludwig claimed support of virtually all the German princes and cities. But because Ludwig backed some of the pope's defiant clergy and sought a larger role in ecclesiastical politics, John remained opposed to the new emperor and eventually, in July 1324, excommunicated him and all his followers. While the conflict raged on, the pope was desperate for allies in Germany and turned to Archbishop Heinrich, who agreed to back John—in opposition to much of his clergy—if Cologne's toll rights in the Rhineland were restored. On August 15, 1324, the compliant archbishop sent the papal bull excommunicating Ludwig to the Dominican priory, demanding that it be read aloud in all their churches at Sunday high mass (and that notaries attest this was done). But maintaining the prince-bishop's crucial support, the pope would learn, would not be so simple.

By this time, Heinrich and his advisers had concluded that certain local Dominicans in Cologne—perhaps including Eckhart—played a more active part than previously thought in fostering dangerous ideas among the beguines and their supporters. Complaints to high-placed Dominican officials, with the backing of the pope, eventually surfaced in the order's general chapter of May 1325. Originally scheduled to take place in Eckhart's home priory of Erfurt, the meeting had been moved to the more neutral site of Venice. There the assembled brothers listened as the papal bull of excommunication was read out and all provinces were ordered to follow suit in publicizing the pope's pronouncement. The prior of Regensburg was deposed for





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Four months later, Pope John XXII decided to take the matter into his own hands. Here too it is likely that the complaints of Archbishop Heinrich and his clergy prompted the pope's unusual intervention into a religious order's internal discipline. On August 1, 1325, the pontiff unilaterally appointed two Dominicans—Nicholas of Strasbourg and Benedict of Como—as his vicars to the province of Teutonia. The master general, Barnabas de Vercellis, was merely informed by an accompanying letter "that some dishonest and indecent [acts] have been committed by friars of your order in the region of Germany, and what is honest behavior is left aside or not cared for, on which a suitable remedy has to be supplied quickly." The pope appears to be referring to cases of inadequate observance of the order's Rule or perhaps worse misbehavior; there is no explicit reference to dangerous preaching. Still, the vicars had to conduct a thorough investigation of the entire province, beginning with the priory in Cologne.

Before the visitation even began, Eckhart and his Cologne brothers were rocked by a bombshell delivered at the September provincial chapter in Zurich. One or more unidentified friars accused Hermann of Summo, a previous visitator (inspector), of spreading "inflammatory rumors" about other friars in the province, and writing "notorious pamphlets" accusing Meister Eckhart and others of heresies. This is the first written record of any such charges against Eckhart. Apparently Hermann declined to confront any of those defamed in person, preferring to rely on gossip and innuendo. False accusation of a brother was a serious offense among Dominicans. Upon return to Cologne, the vicar Nicholas of Strasbourg found still more troubling charges against Hermann: unjustly sentencing two friars while visitator, attempting to rig a priory election, frequently vanishing at night from the priory in civilian clothes, and consorting with several lewd people, including a notorious priest's concubine. Another brother, Wilhelm of Nideggen, was

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similarly accused of socializing with a disreputable crowd and maintaining especially close ties to one particular nun, even after his superior had forbidden him to see her anymore.

Faced with certain punishment, both friars immediately turned on Meister Eckhart, offering to provide incriminating statements of his multiple heretical statements. The brothers' assumptions that such charges might gain a sympathetic audience suggests that there was already some whispering or even grumbling about Eckhart within the order. Nicholas, a respected theologian, remained skeptical and wrote to Eckhart, who responded promptly and satisfactorily to the accusations brought against him. Empowered by the pope to punish as well as investigate, Nicholas pronounced both Wilhelm and Hermann false accusers, transferred Wilhelm to Aachen, and incarcerated Hermann in the Cologne priory's jail. The papal vicar continued to inspect the province on behalf of the pope, but considered the Meister Eckhart matter closed.

Wilhelm of Nideggen, however, did not accept his exile gracefully. Upon arriving in Aachen he became allied with "a certain lewd and suspect friar and began to move around to different places." In the spring of 1326, though forbidden to travel, he attended the Dominican general chapter in Paris and unsuccessfully attempted to stir up trouble for Eckhart. Wilhelm then returned to Cologne and repeated his previous accusation against Meister Eckhart to the archbishop. His timing was perfect, as Heinrich had just launched a new general investigation, or inquisition, of lay and clerical heresy within his jurisdiction. Inquisitorial procedure, unlike most criminal law, permitted a great deal of secret testimony, thus depriving the accused of the full range of evidence assembled against him or her. The papal vicar Nicholas of Strasbourg, according to Wilhelm, could not be trusted and was himself an abettor of heresy. Intrigued, the archbishop arranged for the release of Hermann, who joined Wilhelm as open accusers of Eckhart. He also appointed two theologians, Reinhard of Friesland and Petrus de Estate (a Franciscan), as investigators. Together, the inquisitors compiled a total of forty-nine supposedly heretical statements drawn by Eckhart's accusers from various published works and sermons.





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The Master Responds

Most of Eckhart's brethren in Cologne, including the prior, Johann of Greifenstein, were outraged by what they considered scurrilous attacks on a great man. The master himself appears to have been alternately stunned and furious that he should be questioned in such a way. On September 26, 1326, Eckhart defended himself before the inquisitors. He began with a direct (and legitimate) challenge to the authority of the archbishops' inquisitors: according to the exemption and privileges of my order, I am not held to appear before you or to answer charges. This is especially true, he continued, since I am not accused of heresy and have never been denounced overtly, as my whole life and teaching testify, and as the esteem of the brethren of the whole order and men and women of the entire kingdom and of every nation corroborates. The false suggestion made against him, Eckhart claimed, was based on professional jealousy: indeed, if I were less well known among the people and less eager for justice, I am sure that such attempts would not have been made against me by envious people. After several invocations of scriptural passages praising patient suffering, the master proudly noted that in my own lifetime, the masters of theology at Paris received a command from above to examine the books of those two most distinguished men, Saint Thomas Aguinas and Brother Albert [the Great], on the grounds that they were suspect and erroneous. Like these revered fellow Dominicans, Eckhart predicted, he too would be vindicated.

Throughout his defense, Eckhart relied overwhelmingly on his reputation and his abilities as a preeminent theologian. Acknowledging his authorship of all the articles compiled against him, he went further, arguing, I hold that they are all true, although many are uncommon and subtle. If there is something false I do not see in them or in my other remarks and writings I am always ready to yield to a better understanding. This simultaneous assertion of superior intellect and obedient humility was followed by an especially clever distinction: I can be in error, but I cannot be a heretic, because the first belongs to the intellect, the second to the will. Prove me wrong, the scholastic challenged, and I will concede, but be sure that you have the abilities to hold forth on my level.

Meister Eckhart then proceeded to lecture the two inquisitors as if they were students attending one of his courses in Paris, intentionally employing abstruse philosophical terms and concepts. To clarify the objections brought against me, three things must be kept in mind, all of them scholastic distinctions. The first is that the words "insofar as" [in quantum]—an important qualifier of seemingly sweeping statements—that is, a reduplication, exclude from the term in question everything that is other or foreign to it even according to reason. Several examples follow, including although in God the Father essence and paternity are the same, He does not generate insofar as He is essence, but insofar as He is Father, even though the essence is the root of generation.

These and other prefatory remarks, however sincere, were clearly intended as intellectual intimidation. It was an understandable but not attractive emotional reaction from Meister Eckhart, who expressed disdain for the inferior minds who had deigned to challenge him. After responding to each of the articles before him, the master railed against the *ignorance and stupidity* of those who had condemned him.

They think that everything they do not understand is an error and that every error is a heresy, when only obstinate adherence to error makes heresy and a heretic, as the laws and the doctors hold . . . although they say they are inquisitors in search of heresy, they turn to my books and object to things that are purely natural truths [and] they object to things as heretical that Saint Thomas openly uses for the solution of certain arguments and that they either have not seen or remembered.

In their ignorance, Eckhart charged, his critics failed to realize that most of what they questioned had been expressed by the Church Fathers or is the common opinion of the doctors. To imply that man cannot be united with God . . . is against the teaching of Christ and the Evangelist. After citing several more examples, an exasperated Eckhart finally concluded: that is enough for now.

When a second list of fifty-nine articles was produced, the master again methodically provided the orthodox interpretation of each excerpt, but this time he implied that his accusers had intentionally misconstrued his teachings:

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33S 34N Know that these articles that follow, just like the earlier ones, are always or almost always false and erroneous in the sense in which my opponents take them, but reasonably and devoutly understood they contain excellent and useful truths of faith and moral teaching. They demonstrate the mental weakness and spite of my adversaries, and even their open blasphemy and heresy, if they obstinately defend the following points, which are against the teaching of Christ, the Evangelist, the saints and the doctors.

People who denied that humans could be united with God were the heretics, he fulminated, not those who upheld centuries of Catholic tradition.

Eckhart's response was more than a clever maneuver; it was a heartfelt declaration about the very truth of the gospel. In the charged environment of Cologne, though, any hint of heresy was an exceptionally serious matter. Few beyond the master's local Dominican brothers were willing to risk the wrath of Archbishop Heinrich by opposing the Eckhart investigation. Nicholas of Strasbourg, who himself now stood accused as an abettor of heresy, made at least three appeals to Dominicans outside the province for assistance, but received no response. On January 14, 1327, he himself was summoned to appear before the inquisitorial court, formally charged by Wilhelm of Nideggen as a *fautor haeresiae* ("favorer of heresy"). Accompanied by ten of his brethren, Nicholas rejected the court's authority and made a direct appeal to the Holy See, currently residing in Avignon. Ten days later, Eckhart followed suit.

When he came before the two inquisitors on January 24, Eckhart was accompanied by an impressive group of character witnesses: the Carmelite provincial of lower Alemannia, three Carmelite scholars, two Augustinians, two Franciscans, and other unnamed "trustworthy witnesses, who had asked to be present." In his rejection of the court's competency, Eckhart repeated many of his complaints about intentional misinterpretations, and added that the unusual duration of the investigation had resulted in great damage to his own reputation and that of the Dominicans in general. While he had promptly replied to every request, the inquisitors had willfully or even more with criminal intent prolonged the procedure, lead[ing] me around in a circle, ambushing me, trying to trap me, and with the greatest scandal . . .

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prejudicing the state of my person and my order. Eckhart no longer had any faith whatsoever that a fair decision could be reached by the current judges, who seemed readier to listen to disreputable troublemakers such as Wilhelm and Hermann than the many more brethren who came to his defense. Careful never to criticize the archbishop himself, the alleged heretic claimed that no one other than the Holy Father himself had the right or the wisdom to judge his case.

While waiting for the outcome of his appeal, Meister Eckhart made one especially passionate public defense of his innocence, the equivalent of the traditional Germanic oath of purgation. Since ancient times, this public refutation of any criminal or other accusations had served to restore the reputation of an aggrieved member of the community. Accompanied by ten of his brethren (oath-helpers, or character witnesses), he rose to the pulpit of the Dominican church in Cologne on Sunday, February 13. While his associate Conrad of Halberstadt read out a prepared Latin document, the master translated "point by point" into German and commented. The speech began with an emotional declaration of innocence.

I Meister Eckhart, doctor of sacred theology, declare before anything else, invoking God as witness, that I have always detested any error in faith and all deviant behavior . . . if something erroneous may be found in the foresaid [matters] having been written or said or preached by me, openly or privately, in what time or place whatsoever, directly or indirectly, out of less good understanding or to be reproved, I expressly revoke publicly all and every single sentence of this in front of you who are present, because I from now on want to have it held as not said or written by you because I hear I have been understood wrongly.

Eckhart's appearance before the church's congregation, presumably including many of his lay and clerical supporters, was not an attempt to start a popular movement in his support. He knew that neither the archbishop nor his inquisitors would be swayed by such means. This was Eckhart the man defending his honor and by extension his reputation. This time, the tone of the defense was not that of the haughty scholastic but of the wounded friar,

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who had dedicated his life to spreading God's word. Many of the statements attributed to him, he claimed, were not even accurate transcriptions. At times the normally commanding preacher sounds frantic, incoherent, even equivocating:

... and I also never said, as far as I know, nor meant, that something would be in the soul, something of the soul that would be uncreated and cannot be created, because then the soul would be pieced together out of [what is] created and [what is] uncreated. I have written and taught the contrary, unless somebody would like to say "uncreated," or "not created," that is, "not created by itself," but rather concreated.

Whatever the accusation, the clearly shaken master vowed to correct and revoke whensoever and as often as this would be appropriate everything that could be found as having a less good understanding. Eckhart's diffident willingness to recant any "erroneous" statements was a notable reversal of his previous defiant attitude. Perhaps only at this moment did he realize the determination and resources of the enemies assembled against him. With such a concession, he could still pursue his cause but without any danger to his person as a condemned heretic.

Nine days later, on February 22, Meister Eckhart, accompanied by his prior and two other companions, reported to the library of the archbishop's palace. Upon his arrival, the inquisitor Master Reinhard greeted him, then immediately delivered the unwelcome news: "We have arrived at the decision not to concede the [right] to appeal . . . because this is evidently frivolous, as follows manifestly from the acts of the inquisition because of heresy pending against the same Meister Eckhart." In other words, the Cologne investigation would continue. Two notaries recorded the pronouncement, then accompanied Eckhart and his group to the Franciscan house next door, where Albertus of Milan, who had replaced Petrus de Estate as the second inquisitor, repeated the same decision and handed the accused heretic a copy. Everyone present at both meetings knew, however, that the lower inquisitional court did not have the ability to prevent Eckhart from carrying through his appeal to the pope. As soon as winter passed, the master set out



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with his provincial Heinrich of Cigno, Nicholas of Strasbourg, and three other brethren to make the six-hundred-mile journey to Avignon, the new home of the Holy See.

Looking for Justice in the New Rome

There could have been few starker contrasts to Meister Eckhart's interior spirituality than the Avignon of 1327. One longtime resident, the famed humanist Petrarch, called it "unholy Babylon, thou sink of iniquity, thou cesspool of the world." Within the space of two decades, a picturesque town of 5,000 on the banks of the Rhone had been transformed into the headquarters of western Christendom, a metropolis of more than 25,000, teeming with various ecclesiastical, political, and business dignitaries and their retinues. When Pope Clement V established residency there in 1309, the stay was meant to be temporary, not unlike the other extended absences from Rome of his predecessors. Since 1100, popes had spent more than half of their reigns outside the Eternal City, most of them decamping to one of their palaces in the Italian countryside to avoid Roman politics and any threats to their own power. For his part, Clement chose to relocate to Avignon because of violent conflicts between his own backers, known as Guelphs, and supporters of the emperor, known as Ghibellines. But after Clement's death in 1314, his successor, John XXII, decided it was still best to maintain a distance from his proxy battles with the emperor. What John did not anticipate was that he and his successors would remain in Avignon for another sixty-four years, a period subsequently known—thanks to the excoriations of Petrarch, Dante, and others—as the "Babylonian Captivity of the Church."

When Eckhart and his companions passed through the city's gates in the spring of 1327, two months after setting forth from Cologne, what they encountered was one enormous construction site. Once it became clear that the papacy might stay in Avignon indefinitely, certain cardinals and other church dignitaries had begun tearing down the ramshackle housing of the old city and constructing opulent palaces of their own. Papal ambassadors from across Europe refused to stay in the city and joined most of the





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cardinals in developing property outside Avignon's massive walls. In 1316, the newly installed Pope John XXII attempted to forestall the building frenzy and forbade his cardinals from retaining retinues of more than ten squires. Even so, once the necessary clerks, artisans, and other workers were added, each of roughly one hundred cardinals maintained a household (familia) of at least twenty or thirty people. Consequently, the market for luxury items in Avignon surged, attracting numerous dealers in fine fabrics, jewelry, and rare delicacies.

Meanwhile, Pope John had begun to renovate the existing episcopal residence to be worthy of the many dignitaries he would entertain. Visitors were received in a magnificent grand hall, fitted with silk and taffeta tapestries and luxurious carpets. Bankers and ambassadors were feted with sumptuous banquets on par with those of a king or emperor, where they ate off silver plates with gold utensils. At least five hundred people were employed in the papal court alone, including some two hundred knights and squires as well as the chamberlain who cared for the pontiff's vestments and uncovered the papal slipper that visitors were expected to kiss. Maintaining this level of magnificence required a substantial budget, with the pope annually spending more than 8,000 gold florins (over US\$1 million in modern terms) on clothing alone. Six years earlier, John had bought a country villa, a short distance north of the city, with a stunning pleasure garden leading down to the River Ouvèze, as well as a newly constructed nearby castle (Châteauneuf) with a sizable vineyard (which still produces a grand cru today under the name Château Pape-Clément). The year 1327 saw the peak of private and public construction, with the erection of many new monuments, the opening of a papal zoo (with animals from all parts of the known world), and the creation of early blueprints for what would eventually become the famed Palais des Papes. At night the pope slept in silk bedclothes on a feather mattress and laid his head on a pillow lined with ermine.

It's not difficult to imagine what Eckhart and his fellow friars thought of such pomp. Yet they were men of experience and knew the face of worldly power. Even the Dominican priory in Avignon was grand, with a colossal Gothic church containing not one but three naves. The Order of Preachers had been established in the city for over a century by the time Eckhart and

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his party arrived, and many of the priory's members had become powerful leaders in the Church, most recently Guillaume Pierre Godin (c. 1260–1336), who was serving at the time as dean (president) of the College of Cardinals. Just four years earlier the Avignon Dominicans had celebrated the canonization of Thomas Aquinas, a tremendous achievement for the entire order, but especially here, in the heart of papal power. Eckhart would apparently not want for well-connected allies when his case came before the pontiff.

News of Eckhart's ordeal preceded his arrival in Avignon. Hermann of Summo, one of the master's chief accusers, had arrived before him and denounced Eckhart to the master of the Avignon Dominican priory, Barnabas de Vercellis. The archbishop's inquisitors had also decided to withdraw their rejection of Eckhart's appeal and had sent two delegates with all the relevant documents to the papal consistory in Avignon. In response, Nicholas of Strasbourg traveled on to the Dominican spring chapter in Perpignan (in the Pyrenees) and persuaded the assembled brethren to reinstate the punishments against Eckhart's accusers. The master's backers in Avignon then sent a letter to Pope John, demanding that both men be arrested and handed over to their superiors for punishment. Hermann was in fact subsequently imprisoned by the papal curia; whether Wilhelm ever arrived in Avignon is unknown.

The case against Eckhart, however, did not die with the disappearance of his two chief accusers. Archbishop Heinrich, out of genuine concern about heresy or simple mistrust of Eckhart, insisted that the investigation continue. Given Eckhart's public oath of purgation back in Cologne, there was no danger to his person, only to his reputation. In effect, it was now a censure case, a procedure in which a commission of theological experts would determine whether the various statements Eckhart acknowledged making were in fact within the realm of Catholic orthodoxy. At no time was there a possibility of Meister Eckhart's being burned at the stake, the fate of those unfortunate individuals who clung obstinately to their errors. Still, his reputation as a preacher, as well as his personal honor, lay in real jeopardy.

The man to whom Eckhart appealed for justice had little interest in what he considered mere theological niceties. Pope John XXII, born Jacques Duèse in the Occitain region of southwest France, was a civil lawyer who had





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shrewdly served as court chancellor for Charles II, king of Naples. Historians have judged him an astute jurist, a prudent financier, and a rigid despot. A small, delicate, pale man of eighty-three, he nonetheless demonstrated great energy and willpower, with an astounding capacity for work. Subordinates found him exceptionally demanding and occasionally harsh, but rarely cruel. Like Eckhart, he was a man of vision and determination, almost single-minded in his sense of vocation.

But that vision could not have been more different. Above all, John sought to establish an imperial papacy, the greatest power-secular or religious—in all of Christendom. Like all state builders, he knew the importance of money, and immediately upon assuming the papacy in 1316, he began revolutionizing the finances of his office. Tightening central control of benefices—church offices such as bishop, archdeacon, pastor—was the key. Under John's leadership, his Camera Apostolica began collecting annual taxes of 10 percent on the income of all benefices, as well as an annate (the total revenue of the first year) from newly bestowed benefices, fees for dispensations from canon law (such as permission for second cousins to marry), and various other administrative charges. He also took more direct control over appointments to benefices, eliminating the election of bishops by cathedral chapters and appointing all high clerics himself, including twenty-eight new cardinals (twenty-six of them from southern France and three of them his nephews). By the time of Eckhart's arrival in Avignon, John had quintupled the annual income of the papacy, to more than half a million florins, equal to that of the kingdoms of France or England. One eyewitness wrote that "every time I went to the apartment of the Lord Pope's chamberlain, I inevitably found bankers, money changers, tables loaded with gold, and clerks weighing and counting florins." Contemporaries nicknamed him "the Midas pope."

The greatest obstacle to John's ambitions for the papacy was the Holy Roman Emperor, Ludwig of Bavaria, who refused to kowtow to the pontiff on the question of benefices and ecclesiastical oversight. Two thirds of the pope's expanded income was devoured by the costs of proxy wars with Ludwig in Italy. The conflict also consumed most of John's attention, although battles against heresy always invigorated him, given their threat to the

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orderly functioning of the Church. John was no fan of the beguine movement and probably shared some of Archbishop Heinrich's misgivings about Eckhart and other Dominican enablers, but the central doctrinal controversy of his reign was his struggle with certain Franciscans over the definition of apostolic poverty—a return to the very issue Pope Innocent III thought he had resolved a century earlier.

The dispute over members of the clergy owning property reached a head in 1327, the same year Eckhart arrived in Avignon, when the pope summoned the minister general of the Franciscans, Michael of Cesena (ca. 1270–1342), to appear before him in Avignon. Michael enjoyed wide support among his brethren, particularly in Italy, where Ludwig of Bavaria had just invaded. The potential of an alliance between the Holy Roman Emperor and the Franciscans greatly distressed the pope. As the emperor made his way steadily to Rome, John scrambled to ostracize his enemy, making new proclamations against him and fortifying existing alliances, including that with the archbishop of Cologne. It's not clear how much the pope knew about the specifics of Eckhart's case or wanted to. Given the master's apparent willingness to recant and the much greater matters of state at stake, a censure case against a German theologian was at most an afterthought to the preoccupied lawyer-pontiff.

Pruning the Field of the Lord

The papal investigation of Meister Eckhart was thus primarily an academic exercise, albeit one with lasting consequences for the master's good name and his teachings. Sometime in the second half of 1327, a panel of theologians examined the evidence forwarded from Cologne. The commission could not ignore the accusations and replies of the previous twelve months but neither were they bound by the previous inquisition's conclusions. Beginning with four or five lists of more than 150 suspicious articles, the investigating theologians winnowed the charges against the Dominican master down to twenty-eight questionable propositions. Two thirds of the articles appear to have been drawn from Latin works, mainly the commentaries on



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Genesis and John and the *Book of Divine Comfort*. The remaining quotations seem to come from German sermons, although the wording is too imprecise to be sure. There is no apparent order to the excerpts, which to the contrary often repeat or return to earlier subjects in the list.

The articles singled out by the theological commission fell into five general groups: comments on creation, characterizations of sin, criticisms of external acts, statements about God, and descriptions of the divine man. Many can be attributed to Eckhart's hyperbolic exuberance. The fifteenth article, for example, sounds just like the master exaggerating to make a point: If a man had committed a thousand mortal sins, if such a man were rightly disposed he ought not to will that he had not committed them. God's merciful forgiveness, in other words, is beyond measure and in that sense all human sin is part of the providential plan. Other articles are misquotes or are taken out of context.

The articles concerning good works, by contrast, are direct quotations from sermons and do not seriously distort the general tenor of Eckhart's teaching. He who prays for anything particular prays badly (article seven) is a fairly accurate representation of the master's rejection of petitionary prayer, as are articles sixteen through nineteen on the internal nature of salvation:

God does not properly command an exterior act.... The exterior act is not properly good or divine, and God does not produce it or give birth to it in the proper sense.... Let us bring forth the fruit not of exterior acts, which do not make us good, but of interior acts, which the Father who abides in us makes and produces... God loves souls, not the exterior work.

As with Eckhart's statements about sin, such comments themselves were insufficient to have triggered an investigation, but proved useful given the inquisitors' already established charge.

Much more serious for the papal commission were Eckhart's various claims about God, including the first three articles dealing with God's existence and the supposed eternity of the world. In his reply, Eckhart maintained that these statements needed to be understood in terms of the eternal Now, the moment outside of time where God existed. Invoking this concept



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to justify his teachings was a tactical misstep on Eckhart's part. The eternal Now was a tenet of Neoplatonic philosophy, but the master's judges were, to a man, adherents of Aristotelian philosophy and thus rejected his argument out of hand. A similarly scholastic difference of interpretation is evident in articles twenty-three and twenty-four, where Eckhart argued that no distinction can exist or be understood in God Himself. In stressing the unity of "the One," Eckhart seemed to be challenging the doctrine of the Trinity, which held that the Father, the Son (Christ), and the Holy Spirit are three aspects or manifestations of the same one God—although the master vehemently insisted that he was not. Such fine distinctions were the stuff of academic disputations, except that Eckhart was not permitted to defend himself with oral arguments, only written ones.

The most dangerous articles were those excerpts describing the effects of the divine birth on an individual, for these came closest to sounding like endorsements of the Free Spirit heresy. Predictably, Eckhart's equating of the *divine man* with Christ caused the biggest stir, accounting for a quarter of the twenty-eight excerpts. Article ten, for instance, slightly tweaked and artfully arranged quotations from one German sermon to devastating effect:

We shall all be transformed totally into God and changed into him. In the same way, when in the sacrament bread is changed into Christ's Body, I am so changed into him that he makes me his one existence, and not just similar. By the living God it is true that there is no distinction there.

The next four articles more faithfully reproduced Eckhart's words, but the impact was just as incriminating: Whatever holy scripture says of Christ, all that is also very true of every good and divine man. The master's penchant for surprising and even shocking his audience had never met with greater success.

As in Cologne, Eckhart claimed that virtually all of the assembled articles had been taken out of context and he proceeded to defend their orthodoxy by arguing in typical scholastic style and terms. But his inquisitors were not interested in the master's greater philosophy or his subtle justifications. Their concern was the impact of such "heretical" or "evil-sounding" words on the simple laypeople who attended Eckhart's sermons. To a

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degree, this claim was disingenuous, since more of the excerpts in question in fact came from his Latin writings, but the principal danger remained not Eckhart's intent but what other people might have heard. This distinction seems to have eluded the master, who continued to battle in the way he knew best, with the scholarly weapons of the *disputatio*.

The next step in the procedure would have been for the case to come before a cardinal's tribunal, where Eckhart would finally have a chance to defend himself before a judge. But early in the new year, most likely on January 28, 1328, Meister Eckhart died. No details about his death or burial survive, and only very recently has an enterprising historian determined the time and place of the master's death. Eckhart was in his late sixties and far from both Tambach and Erfurt. Our only commemoration from the time is Pope John XXII's claim that before Eckhart left this world he drew up a public document,

profess[ing] the Catholic faith at the end of his life and revok[ing] and also deplor[ing] the twenty-six articles, which he admitted that he had preached, and also any others, written and taught by him, whether in the schools or in sermons, insofar as [in quantum] they could generate in the minds of the faithful a heretical opinion or one erroneous and hostile to the true faith.

How fitting that Eckhart ended his argument (and his life) with his favorite scholastic qualifier—*insofar as*—in effect maintaining to the end that he knew his words were orthodox but regretted if anyone misunderstood them. And how typical that his evasion of guilt fell on deaf ears among his accusers.

Normally, according to Roman law, an inquisition or other process ended with the death of the accused. Two factors kept Eckhart's case alive after his own demise. The less significant one came from an outside evaluation prepared by the theologian Jacques Fournier (ca. 1285–1342). Fournier had studied and taught in Paris, likely worked on the Marguerite Porete case, and received his master's degree in 1314, during Meister Eckhart's second magisterium. The Cistercian had climbed quickly up the ecclesiastical ladder, becoming an abbot in 1311, at the age of twenty-six, then serving as chief

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inquisitor against the last Cathars in Languedoc from 1318 to 1322. In the end, only five heretics were burned at the stake, but the experience—which he described in a 1323 book—earned Fournier a reputation as an extremely punctilious, tenacious, and conscientious foe of heresy in all forms. Pope John congratulated him with a sheaf of indulgences and the bishopric of Mirepoix in 1326 and the next year with a cardinal's hat.

The man subsequently known as the White Cardinal (because of his Cistercian robes) was a rising star in the curia of John XXII (and seven years hence would succeed his patron as Pope Benedict XII). He had already written extensively for the pope in the Franciscan controversies of the past few years, including learned criticisms of Peter Olivi, William of Ockham, and Michael of Cesena, the head of the order. Shortly before Eckhart's death, Fournier compiled an expert outside assessment of the articles against the Dominican. He displayed no sentimentality in judging his former Parisian colleague. Most articles were condemned as "false and heretical," another as "blasphemous and insane," still another as "laughable among all intelligent people." A few items, the cardinal granted, were merely wrong (such as that all creatures are pure nothing). Fournier's report became part of Eckhart's still-open case file.

The pope clearly valued his new cardinal's opinion, but it was the continued urging of Eckhart's Cologne persecutor, Archbishop Heinrich, that ultimately persuaded the pontiff to move forward with the censure case. Shortly before the Dominican's death, on January 17, Ludwig had himself crowned emperor in Rome; three months later he declared John deposed for heresy, and on May 12, the emperor appointed his own pope, Nicholas V (Pietro Rainalducci of Corvaro). Within a few weeks, the Franciscans Michael of Cesena and William of Ockham both slipped out of Avignon and joined Ludwig in Rome and later in Munich. Pope John's call for a crusade against the emperor was met with derision and he was again desperate for allies, especially in Germany. If Heinrich of Virneburg insisted that the pope pursue Eckhart's case, it was a small price to pay for the archbishop's crucial loyalty.

Still, it was not until March 27, 1329—fourteen months after Meister Eckhart's death—that the eighty-five-year-old pope issued the condemnation

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we are indeed sad to report that in these days someone by the name of Eckhart from Germany, a doctor of sacred theology (as is said) and a professor of the Order of Preachers, wished to know more than he should, and not in accordance with sobriety and the measure of faith, because he turned his ear from the truth and followed fables. The man was led astray by the Father of Lies . . . [and] he presented many things as dogma that were designed to cloud the true faith in the hearts of many, things which he put forth especially before the uneducated crowd in his sermons and that he admitted also in his writings.

The pope takes a harsh tone, possibly to reassure Archbishop Heinrich, but at no point does he condemn Eckhart himself as a heretic. He also mentions the deathbed "recantation," and censures only fifteen of the twenty-eight articles as heretical "as the words sound," two others as heretical but not authenticated, and eleven more as "quite evil sounding, very rash," and likely to be misunderstood, "though with many explanations and additions they might take on or possess a Catholic meaning." The pope did not order any books to be burned, but warned that if anyone presumed "to defend or approve the same articles in an obstinate manner, we desire and order a process of heresy."

Three weeks later, on April 15, 1329, Pope John sent a copy of his bull to Archbishop Heinrich in Cologne, ordering him to have it proclaimed throughout the diocese and city of Cologne, "so that through such publication the hearts of the simple people, who are easy to mislead, and to whom Eckhart during his lifetime preached the afore-mentioned articles, might not be infected by the erroneous teaching contained in them." This—both pope and archbishop fervently hoped—would be the end of the story for the man who "wished to know more than he should."

[CHAPTER THIRTEEN]

The Man from Whom God Hid Nothing

If anyone cannot understand this sermon, he need not worry.

For so long as a man is not equal to this truth, he cannot understand my words, for this is a naked truth which has come direct from the heart of God.

GERMAN SERMON 52

Our Sweet and Sainted Teacher

In 1356, the Benedictine monk Oswald of Brentzahusen translated into Latin a work that he mistakenly attributed to the late Meister Eckhart. Sister Katie (Schwester Katrei), originally composed in the Alemannic dialect, did in fact date from the master's time in Strasbourg four decades earlier. It also contained many familiar Eckhartian elements. In the treatise, a beguine penitent, Sister Katie, has become impatient with the spiritual counseling of her Dominican confessor and asks him to teach her the most expedient way to salvation. When he demurs, she leaves to pursue a life of detachment "in foreign lands," guided only by the Holy Spirit. After a time, she returns to Strasbourg, so transformed by her experience that her confessor can barely recognize her. Yet even in her new angelic form, she has not yet attained divine union. Her confessor advises her (in good Eckhart fashion) to let go

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even of her desire for God, and after a great deal of praying and meditation she exclaims to him, "Sir, rejoice with me, I have become God!" Skeptical that her new state can last, the confessor observes as she withdraws to a corner of the church and becomes completely still, seemingly dead to all observers. After three days of frozen ecstasy, she comes back to life and claims that she is now in a permanent state of union with God, having "achieved by grace what Christ is by nature." Astounded, the confessor becomes the pupil, learning from his former "daughter" how to become God. In the course of her instructions, she confirms the reality of heaven, hell, and purgatory and denies the freedom from moral constraints proclaimed by some Free Spirit followers. At the same time, she minimizes the necessity of priests and sacraments, preferring individual guidance from the Holy Spirit.

For more than a century after Meister Eckhart's death, a variety of sermons and apocryphal stories like this one vied to define the master's legacy. The humiliated theologian of the 1329 papal condemnation was gradually forgotten; in his place emerged the venerable sage who gently guided spiritual seekers along the path to divine union. In folk poetry and fictive dialogues, "the man from whom God hid nothing" offered learned (if frequently obscure) aphorisms and encountered many would-be disciples, including "The Naked Boy," who turned out to be God himself in disguise. Many spurious sermons circulated, as did many genuine works, most famously in the collection known as *The Paradise of the Intellectual Soul*, a compendium of sixty-four sermons, half written by Meister Eckhart, the rest by fellow Dominicans. Almost all of the portrayals of the departed master were positive, even reverential.

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But what was this spiritual legacy? In works such as *Sister Katie*, the teachings of Eckhart are conflated with some more radical Free Spirit ideas, seemingly justifying Pope John XXII's concerns. A 1353 Dutch treatise, *Meister Eckhart and the Unknown Layperson*, even more directly appropriates the Dominican for a pro-beguine criticism of saints' cults and the church hierarchy. Like other religious icons, Meister Eckhart—officially discredited but more popular than ever—risked becoming a multipurpose literary figure, who seemingly endorsed a wide range of ideas and practices, some far from his actual teaching.





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Immediately after the master's death, control of the Eckhart "brand" fell to the people who had the most to lose from its tarnishing—his fellow Dominicans. Their initial reaction was one of fear and caution. Few friars openly criticized the late master, but following the pope's condemnation in early 1329, the Dominican general chapter, meeting in Sisteron, near Avignon, underscored the order's enthusiastic support for the teaching of its most orthodox and newly canonized theologian, Thomas Aquinas. Within the next two years, virtually all of Eckhart's most vocal supporters, including his provincial Heinrich of Cigno, were purged from their leadership positions within the order. Whatever copies of the master's writings that were destroyed appear to have suffered this fate at the hands of his fellow Dominicans, eager to mollify the pope and prove their dedication to orthodoxy.

At the same time, some of Meister Eckhart's followers within the order took it upon themselves to defend the master's legacy, although they took care to avoid any associations whatsoever with heretical belief. Heinrich Suso (ca. 1295–1366), who had studied under Eckhart in both Strasbourg and Cologne, was outraged by the investigation and condemnation of his master. As a young friar, Suso had undertaken the path of self-torment common to many nuns and beguines, fasting for long periods, wearing a spiked crucifix under his habit, and at one point even carving Christ's name into his own flesh above his heart. Profoundly depressed by his own unworthiness, Suso claimed that only the intervention of the "saintly Meister Eckhart" had freed him "from the hell in which he had existed for so long a time."

During the period before and after Eckhart's condemnation, Suso published two works. In the *Little Book of Truth*, he singles his master out as "one of the most learned and experienced human beings to whom God has revealed his hidden wisdom." A series of dialogues between Truth and its disciple presents a succinct primer of Eckhart's main teachings: the unfathomable nature of being, distinctions between God and the Godhead, the origins of multiplicity and of evil, the nature of true detachment and self-surrender, breakthrough, and becoming one with the divine will. Suso apparently had access to the condemned twenty-eight articles, and skillfully uses such authorities as Aquinas and Bernard of Clairvaux to convey the true understanding (and orthodoxy) of Meister Eckhart's words. Finally he explicitly

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distinguishes his revered master from those people with "a mistaken idea of freedom," who "live completely according to [their] impulses, heedless of all else, without looking ahead or behind." Such people are reckless, disorderly, and selfish, since "a person never becomes so completely annihilated in this [eternal] nothing that his senses are not aware of the difference of their origin or his reason is not aware of its free choice." Consequently, "some uneducated but intelligent people have falsely understood their teachers with respect to the lofty meanings of sacred scripture, twisting it according to their own undisciplined nature and even writing things down, but not according to the true sense of scriptures."

Yet even Suso's understanding of Eckhart's teachings deviated from his "sweet teacher" in some important ways. The younger man is dismissive of dry academic learning, which he claims nurtures vanity and egotistical pedantry. Speculative theology, which he learned from his late master, does not interest him, but rather "good actions are, without a doubt, more instructive and uplift one's heart somehow more than words alone." His book, consequently, "describes by many examples many holy deeds that really happened as depicted." Contrary to Meister Eckhart, Suso avoids metaphysical discussions (particularly anything that smacks of pantheism) and focuses on concrete and specific ascetic instruction.

The Little Book of Truth was aimed at "anyone who would like to become a good and blessed person and share a special intimacy with God," to which Suso added, "or whom God has singled out by severe suffering—as he is accustomed to do with his special friends." Like many of the nuns Eckhart counseled, his disciple reveled in corporal and psychological tribulations, enduring them in what he saw as an explicitly chivalric quest for divine wisdom. Suso's descriptions of his own agonies, many of them self-inflicted, are in fact reminiscent of the very path to God that Eckhart explicitly rejected. And while the master had been likewise wary of ecstatic visions and images in general, Suso recounts with relish his own "very painful" experiences, including an apparition of Meister Eckhart himself.

A short time later, Suso produced the *Little Book of Eternal Wisdom*, probably published not long after the pope's official condemnation of his master. This work similarly combines Eckhartian elements of letting-go-ness and

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the divine birth with conventional ascetic practices. "The more bitterly you have suffered," Suso writes, "the more worthily you will be received." Unlike Eckhart, who generally eschewed specific instructions and preferred to allow for multiple paths to God, Suso's book includes four chapters teaching the reader how to live inwardly, how to receive the Eucharist, how to have a good death, and how to praise God always. While Eckhart avoided most Christ-centered devotions, Suso devotes twenty chapters to the wonder of the Passion, the supreme manifestation of God's love for the world. So too with meditation, which the master had treated as a profoundly personal experience; Suso, by contrast, provides one hundred accessible meditative exercises with instructions.

For all his caution, Suso was one of those friars rebuked in the immediate aftermath of the papal condemnation. In 1330, he was summoned to the provincial chapter at Maastricht on charges of heresy and subsequently dismissed from his lector position in Constance. Humiliated, but unrepentant, Suso returned to Constance and began an extended period of itinerant preaching in the southern Rhine region. Here his version of Meister Eckhart's teaching enjoyed an enthusiastic reception among many beguines, nuns, clerics, and laypeople. Calling themselves the Friends of God (based on John 15:14–15), this loosely knit network of mystical seekers gradually expanded to many cities along the Rhine, all the way up to the Netherlands. Some later historians have gone so far as to consider the Friends of God a proto-Protestant sect, but in fact it appears to have been more of an extended reading group with local chapters—and a completely orthodox one at that. All the group's discussions of Eckhart carefully steered clear of the condemned twenty-eight articles.

It was in one of these Rhineland cities, Basel, that another Dominican and former pupil of Eckhart, Johannes Tauler (1300–1361), first encountered the Friends of God. Like Suso, Tauler had been an enthusiastic student of the master during his final years in Cologne and had continued to spread Eckhart's "theology of the ground" as a preacher in Strasbourg. When the proemperor city council expelled all backers of the pope in 1339, Tauler traveled to Basel, where he reconnected with Suso and other admirers of the late Meister Eckhart. Four years later, Tauler returned to Strasbourg and soon

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persuaded a wealthy banker, Rulman Merswin, to devote his life and fortune to the growing movement. Merswin funded many ventures and twenty years later bought an abandoned monastery on the island of Grünwörth near Strasbourg to serve as a retreat center for the Friends of God.

Together, the two protégés attempted to take custody of the master's popular legacy, Suso through his elegant prose, Tauler with his powerful preaching. In 1334, Suso wrote the *Clock of Wisdom*, a Latin book of mystical teachings that was eventually translated into eight vernacular languages and became one of the most popular spiritual writings of the Late Middle Ages. Toward the end of his life he published *The Exemplar*, combining revised versions of his earlier "little books" with some pastoral letters and an autobiography, the *Life of the Servant*. In many ways, his books are more similar in style to the works of female writers such as Mechthild of Magdeburg and Hadewijch of Antwerp than to the scholasticism of Meister Eckhart. But Suso's work served his master's memory well. Now purged of obscure and dangerous statements and encased in a lyrical literary style, the teachings of the master enjoyed greater popularity than they ever had during his own lifetime.

Johannes Tauler also worked hard to make Eckhart more accessible to the average person. The eighty-one of his sermons that have survived share most of the master's Neoplatonist vision of divine union but present his philosophy in very practical terms. According to Tauler, every human is divided into three parts: external, internal, and highest, or most inward. The external person lives by sensory perception and is compared by Tauler to a donkey. The internal person, or servant, is guided by reason. But only the noblest part of the person—what Eckhart called the divine spark of the soul—is capable of uniting with God. Unlike his master, Tauler thoughtfully describes how the first two persons struggle to take control and offers practical methods of letting-go one can use to allow the third to prevail. Temptations by the seven deadly sins—completely absent in Eckhart's sermons—also receive detailed attention. Tauler's explanation of the steps to divine union is true to Eckhart, but he presents it in clear, jargon-free terms that avoid any hint of pantheism. In short, Tauler produced a less original, more conventional, but also far more accessible version of his master's teachings. Implicitly, Eckhart's

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backers seem to have agreed with his critics that the master's words alone were too often confusing to the average Christian. Not surprisingly, the sanitized versions of Eckhart offered by Suso and Tauler quickly overshadowed the extant sermons and writings of their "noble master."

A Light in the Medieval Darkness

Over the course of the fourteenth century, the movement later known as Rhineland mysticism gradually gave way to a new form of lay apostolic piety known as the Modern Devotion. Like the beguines, small groups of laypeople, together with some clerics, established houses that cultivated a deeper spiritual life, through communal prayer and Bible reading. Also known as Brothers and Sisters of the Common Life, these intentional communities along the Rhine represented a powerful merger of the active and contemplative ideals. Many of the Modern Devotion's insights and practices were conveyed in the most popular book of the later Middle Ages—*The Imitation of Christ*, published anonymously in the early fifteenth century. The mysticism of the movement, however, had been thoroughly domesticated and purged of any controversial Eckhartian ideas, further contributing to the master's eventual disappearance as a spiritual authority.

Meister Eckhart's gradual fade into the background of Rhineland mysticism was understandable from another perspective. Despite the efforts of Suso and Tauler, his name remained dangerous throughout the fourteenth century. This was the period of greatest persecution for German beguines and beghards, who were often conflated with the Free Spirit sect, which in turn had been linked to Eckhart. Both Tauler and Suso went to great pains to distance their master from any heretical associations, but the stigma of the papal condemnation remained in the collective memory of Dominicans and other clergy.

Theologians who appropriated the master's work consequently did so only with great caution and even then usually without attribution. The one major exception to this tendency came in 1449, over a century after Eckhart's death. In his *Apology for Learned Ignorance*, Nicholas of Cusa (1401–64),

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a celebrated theologian and bishop, openly praised Meister Eckhart for his intelligence, creativity, and erudition. Nicholas was a fellow proponent of negative theology and was in awe of many of the insights garnered by his predecessor. Eckhart's mistake, he wrote, had been to preach to common people, who "are not able to understand these matters, with which he often dealt differently from other teachers, even though intelligent men will find in [his writings] many subtle and profitable things." Even then, 120 years after the papal condemnation, Nicholas was attacked by the Heidelberg theologian Johannes Wenck of Herrenberg for his "curious and vain" reintroduction of pantheism and other past heresies. The famous bishop brushed aside such accusations and a few years later commissioned a complete copy of Eckhart's Latin works. Nicholas took the precaution, however, of making the resulting manuscript accessible only to scholars.

By the early sixteenth century, the Friends of God were a distant memory, Meister Eckhart was mostly forgotten, and only the writings of Suso and Tauler preserved some of the master's teachings. Some Dominican chronicles vaguely referred to Eckhart as a past friar of great holiness; others omitted him altogether. Still, Eckhart's vision of an unmediated experience of God, wherein the selfish human will was replaced with divine will, did manage to reach some of the early proponents of what would become the Protestant Reformation. In 1516, the thirty-three-year-old theology professor Martin Luther was entranced by a late fourteenth-century mystical tract which he edited and published with the new name of the Theologia Deutsch. Luther especially liked the anonymous author's description of the passive nature of conversion, although neither Luther nor the text referred explicitly to Eckhart's letting-go-ness. The future reformer's greatest objection was that the Theologia Deutsch minimized the radical nature of original sin and thus denied God full credit for the divine birth within the soul (a transformation Luther would later called "justification"). Believing that Johannes Tauler was in fact the author, Luther asked his friend Georg Spalatin to send him a collection of Tauler's sermons, which the future reformer carefully annotated.

It would be misleading, however, to assign more than a peripheral influence to Eckhart or his disciples in the subsequent Protestant Reformation.

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Luther likely read at least a handful of Eckhart's sermons but preferred a "domesticated mysticism," remaining wary of spiritual "enthusiasts" throughout his life. The famed prophet of *sola scriptura* and "a priesthood of all believers" was no fan of untutored, individualistic interpretations of the Bible or expressions of the spirit. Protestant publications of Tauler's sermons did acknowledge Meister Eckhart as "a highly learned man," but most readers' encounters with his teaching remained indirect, via Tauler or Suso. A 1522 publication on mysticism included around seventy of Eckhart's sermons, but even then the master's impact was strongest at the margins of the new Protestant reforms, particularly among the radical reformers Andreas Bodenstein from Karlstadt, Valentin Weigel, and Sebastian Brant.

In the early seventeenth century, the Strasbourg poet Daniel Sudermann (1550–1631) rediscovered the master through Tauler and published the first partial collection of Eckhart's works, albeit to little effect. Sudermann also composed more than a thousand spiritual songs based on the writings, including "I rely on a groundless ground" and "Man, sink into your nothingness." About the same time, the "shoemaker theologian" Jakob Böhme (1575–1624) conducted a deeper exploration of Eckhart's teachings, which he interwove with other Neoplatonist, alchemical, and astrological concepts in his mystical masterwork *Aurora* (1612). But an Eckhart revival subsequently attempted by the bestselling Catholic convert Johann Scheffler (better known as Angelus Silesius, 1624–77) found no audience.

Perhaps the greatest indicator of Eckhart's obscurity during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is his exclusion from the *Index of Prohibited Books*, the Catholic list of censored writings created in 1559 and regularly updated thereafter. The Counter-Reformation Catholic Church remained inordinately suspicious of mysticism, as the troubled careers of subsequently sainted Teresa of Ávila and John of the Cross testify. Protestant embrace of some medieval mystics as reformers before their time—"lights in the thick darkness of medieval Christianity"—only solidified concern among Church leaders. Thus while many of Meister Eckhart's contemporaries were placed in the *Index*—Mechthild of Magdeburg, Heinrich Suso, Johannes Tauler, Jan van Ruusbroec—the master himself remained conspicuously absent.

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Intellectual Hero of the Fatherland

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The modern rediscovery of Meister Eckhart began chiefly as a response to Enlightenment rationalism. At the dawn of the nineteenth century, many German intellectuals sought a new philosophy that would approach the great truths of human existence with a combination of reason and feeling, or sensibility. The "soulless materialism" and "hyper-rationalism" coming from France left such artists and poets cold, demanding in response a profound spiritual regeneration drawn from the distinctive Geist (spirit) of the German people. Poet Friedrich von Hardenberg (1772–1801), better known as Novalis, captured the new "Romantic" spirit of the age in celebrating the "beautiful splendid times, when Europe was a Christian land, when one Christendom inhabited this humanely structured continent, one great communal interest united the far-flung provinces of this vast spiritual empire." A mystical quest for life's fulfillment was still possible in the modern world, Novalis averred, but first one had to overcome the legacy of the Enlightenment, which had "branded as heretical all imagination and feeling, placed man with difficulty at the top of the order of natural being, and turned the infinite creative music of the universe into the monotonous clattering of a gigantic mill."

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33S 34N Novalis's call for "a new humanity" was answered by the Catholic intellectual Franz von Baader (1765–1841), who came to Meister Eckhart via Tauler and the *Theologia Deutsch*, both considerably better known at the time. Perusing Eckhart's surviving German sermons, Baader discovered a profound speculative and mystical thinker, superior even to Jakob Böhme, who enjoyed a high reputation among Romantics. "Eckhart is rightly called the Master," he wrote. "He surpasses all mystics" and had been tragically underappreciated until then. It was Baader who introduced Eckhart to the great Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770–1831), who in turn incorporated the master into his 1824 lectures on the philosophy of religion. Hegel especially loved the master's famous words on divine intersubjectivity (*The eye with which I see God is the same eye with which God sees me*), which the philosopher considered the supreme expression of self-consciousness without distinction between subject and object.

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Scholarly interest in Meister Eckhart spread rapidly over the next three decades. Hegel's student Karl Rosenkranz (1805-79) dubbed him "the forefather of a specifically German philosophy" and "herald of a philosophy of the future." Rosenkranz's praise of "German mysticism" was further promulgated by Joseph von Görres (1776–1848) in his four-volume Christian Mysticism, published between 1831 and 1842. Von Görres's fourth volume coincided with the appearance of the first major work devoted to Meister Eckhart by the Danish Lutheran H. L. Martensen (1808–84). Martensen not only viewed the great master as the patriarch of all German mysticism and modern idealist philosophy, but judged German mysticism itself as the highest expression of mysticism in the entire Christian tradition. In 1857, Germanist Franz Pfeiffer (1815-68) published the most complete edition ever of Eckhart's German works, including 111 sermons, 18 treatises, numerous sayings, and odd fragments. The intellectual world was abuzz with the new edition's various implications for all modern thought. Within half a century, Meister Eckhart had gone from obscure honorary Protestant to one of the most important thinkers in German history.

Meanwhile, Eckhart's new identity as the world's first idealist philosopher was quickly complicated by allegations of pantheism and even atheism. Protestant philosophers such as Karl Steffensen (1816–88) differed only on what kind of pantheism Eckhart embraced, yet extolled the medieval master's heroic resistance to the church authority of his day. In his *History of Mysticism*, Wilhelm Preger (1827–96) conceded that "the word mysticism is already its own condemnation," but similarly acknowledged that Meister Eckhart's teachings were necessary preparation for the later Protestant Reformation. Accusations of atheism actually attracted the philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer (1788–1860), who considered Eckhart the founder of transcendental idealism and was among the first admirers to note similarities to many Hindu and Buddhist ideas.

Of course admiring Catholic intellectuals rejected such heretical characterizations, but still celebrated the distinctive German identity of Eckhart and his philosophy. In his *German Mysticism in the Mendicant Orders from* 1250–1350, church historian Carl Greith (1807–82) welcomed Eckhart's approach as an antidote to the materialism of the modern era, but also

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cautioned against the master's "daring claims, inappropriate images, and ambiguous expressions that border on false doctrine." In 1886, the Dominican Heinrich Suso Denifle (1844–1905) began publishing the Latin works of Meister Eckhart, hoping to counter any pantheist undertones in the German sermons and to present the master as an orthodox scholastic and "one of the most original thinkers of the Middle Ages." Eckhart made some errors, Denifle conceded, but he remained "the father of Christian philosophy"—far from the pantheist heretic portrayed by Protestant admirers.

The one thing that Protestant and Catholic writers could agree upon was that there was something distinctively German about Meister Eckhart's brilliance. In the newly unified Second Empire (1871–1918), which had brought together twenty-six formerly independent German entities, the theologian from Thuringia became a source of great national pride. An influential 1904 article by Leopold Ziegler praised Eckhart as a genius who started a sort of German Renaissance, long before the better-known Italian version. Pantheist, heretic, proto-Protestant—the master was now a hero to a new generation of early twentieth-century German writers. Greatly embellished portrayals of his trials in Cologne and Avignon provided the dramatic focus for novels. Popular poems and songs further promoted the anti-Catholic image of a lone warrior for truth in the benighted past. New Catholic accounts of the master's orthodoxy were dismissed by Protestant critics as "unsustainable rescue efforts" for a figure undeniably closer to Luther and all things truly German.

Only by bearing such nationalist effusions in mind can we understand the incongruous and grotesque appropriation of Eckhart by the National Socialists on the eve of their ascension to power. In 1930, thirty-seven-year-old Nazi propagandist Alfred Rosenberg published *The Myth of the Twentieth Century: An Assessment of the Spiritual-Psychological Paradigm Struggles of Our Time.* Deemed unreadable even by the party faithful, Rosenberg's *Myth* nonetheless provided an intellectual fig leaf for the most egregious Nazi policies once Hitler came to power. It described a Manichean conflict among modern Germans between two worldviews: the "Roman-Syrian-Jewish-Alpine" myth of Christianity and the new German myth of blood. Mixing in degraded elements of Darwin and Nietzsche, Rosenberg singled out the

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papacy as the architect of an insidious ideology that had enfeebled the German people for centuries but was about to be conquered by a new cosmic order based on racial supremacy. Over the next ten years the book would sell more than a million copies.

In Rosenberg's fantasy, Meister Eckhart was "the greatest apostle of the Nordic west," embodying "the greatest soul power, the most beautiful dream of the German people." All of the propagandist's information on Eckhart was second- or third-hand, with direct quotations carefully edited and inserted amid Rosenberg's rants against the Roman Church's historic attempts to poison and "Judify" the Aryan race. Eckhart was a heroic follower of Jesus who preached the freedom of the soul and will, not the sacrificial doctrine of Jewish prophecy. His work was continued by Martin Luther and other Protestant reformers, who were eventually succeeded by the Romantic poets and their cult of the individual soul—and of course the National Socialists, who would empower the German *Volkgeist* to finally conquer its alien foes.

Historians and other academics ruthlessly mocked Rosenberg's shabby scholarship, including his oversight of the seemingly pertinent fact that Eckhart had relied heavily on the teachings of the Jew Maimonides. In 1935, the Jesuit theologian Otto Karrer (1888–1976) publicly condemned Rosenberg's ahistorical portrayal of Eckhart—the Myth itself had been placed on the Catholic Church's Index of Prohibited Books the year before—then immediately fled to Switzerland, where he stayed until 1945. By contrast, Josef Quint (1898-1977), whose project to publish all of Eckhart's German works had just received government funding, prudently toed the party line. In 1937, Quint joined the Nazi party and two years later, in a speech as professor at the University of Breslau (Wrocław), he rejoiced that "the name Eckhart had become a very familiar sound in all the German lands," with the "undeniable credit" going to Rosenberg and his masterwork. Now all Germans knew this "deepest and most German thinker of the past" who possessed "the unrestrained Faustian-Nordic drive for depth." Quint continued to oversee the authoritative edition of Eckhart's German works until his death nearly forty years later, while the German Dominican Josef Koch (1885-1967) assumed responsibility for the Latin works.

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The Universal Sage

Fortunately for Meister Eckhart, most serious thinkers ignored his appropriation by German nationalists, so that his reputation suffered no harm in the eventual collapse of the Third Reich. Already in the nineteenth century, philosophers such Schopenhauer had begun to celebrate Eckhart as a universal figure of human enlightenment, far beyond a parochial source of national pride. The Dominican master's championing of intuition as a necessary complement to reason particularly resonated with Schopenhauer's interpretation of "metaphysical will." Similarly, Eckhart's description of subjectivity during the divine birth for many twentieth-century philosophers anticipated the "modern discovery of the self," evident in the antipositivist systems constructed by René Descartes (1596-1650), Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), and Karl Jaspers (1883–1969). His just man, living without a why, is the embodiment of the authentic life embraced by existentialists such as Jean-Paul Sartre (1905-80). The postmodern deconstructionist Jacques Derrida (1930-2004) wrote at length about the themes of letting-go-ness and living without a why. exploring the limitations of language even in Eckhart's own negative theology. In short, virtually all modern continental philosophers acknowledged some debt to the revolutionary approach of Meister Eckhart six centuries earlier.

No twentieth-century philosopher drew more directly on Eckhart than Martin Heidegger (1889–1976), one of the founders of phenomenology. Heidegger believed that reality was best understood through the individual subjective experience of the world's phenomena and that "representationalist" thinking was itself delusional. Scientific calculative approaches to being and reality consistently favored their own technological agendas, simultaneously revealing and hiding the world. Meister Eckhart's letting-go-ness, by contrast, opened up the thinker to a transcendent, direct experience of reality ("Being") itself. The "old Master of Learning and of Living" had long ago perceived the limitations of human reason and developed an alternative, contemplative access to the mystery of existence.

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Of course the unspoken assumption among Heidegger and other twentieth-century philosophers, all of them agnostics or atheists, was that Eckhart's insights needed to be extracted from their original and outdated religious context. The master's unknowable God had been categorized by Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) as an infantile human projection, at best "the dark self-perception of the realm beyond the ego, of the id." Freud and his fellow psychiatrists typically considered mystics as neurotic individuals suffering from morbid or hysterical personalities, accentuated by self-hypnosis. Some modern admirers of Eckhart have consequently resisted characterizing the master as a mystic and instead, like their nineteenth-century predecessors, pay Meister Eckhart the ultimate compliment of treating him like a secular contemporary, freed from the shackles of medieval religiosity.

Yet as the scholars Amy Hollywood and Ben Morgan have pointed out, modern theoretical appropriations of Eckhart's teachings have invariably interpreted them as manifestations of something other than what their author intended. This approach does not necessarily invalidate these theorists' arguments, but it does distort the historical Eckhart, who was in fact motivated by a religious vision. It also tends to patronize the man, suggesting that he apparently did not appreciate the true significance of what he was saying. How can it be that the prophet of "modern subjectivity" displayed so little concern about questions of individual autonomy and agency in describing the effects of the divine birth? It appears that Eckhart's appeal as a universal philosophical figure has less to do with the totality of his approach than with the useful parts contained therein.

Even Meister Eckhart's greatest admirer among twentieth-century theorists believed that the master's religious language could be misleading. Contrary to his former mentor Freud's dismissal of all so-called religious experiences, psychologist Carl Gustav Jung (1875–1961) proclaimed that "it is to the mystics that we owe what is best in humanity." When searching for inroads to the "deep psyche," Jung found that "only in Meister Eckhart did I feel the breath of life." "The art of letting things happen," he wrote, "action through non-action, letting go of oneself, as taught by Meister Eckhart, became for me the key opening the door to the way." For Jung, Eckhart's

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fathomless abyss of the Godhead was nothing other than the unconscious, the soul what he called the libido (not in the modern sexual sense), and the divine birth "a state of intense vitality," during which "God disappears as an object [and becomes] a subject which is no longer distinguishable from the ego." This intersubjectivity, also appreciated by Heidegger, was the focus of a chapter in Jung's influential *Psychological Types* (1921), where he described Eckhart's pivotal insight of "a reciprocal and essential relation between man and God, whereby man can be understood as a function of God and God as a psychological function of man." Jung's secular adaptation of Eckhart's religious philosophy is certainly among the most coherent modern interpretations, but is it one that the master himself would have appreciated?

Of course Eckhart's greatest appeal should be to modern Christians, but this has not always been a straightforward matter. Roman Catholics have always been attentive to the "dangerous" parts of the master's teaching, particularly those sermons on the Godhead that appear pantheistic. Eckhart's brief appropriation by the Nazi regime did him no favors among Catholics in the Reich or abroad, despite the Vatican's consistent rejection of such an association. Only in recent decades, especially since the endorsement of the famous monk Thomas Merton (1915–68), have Eckhart's writings gained a broader public among Catholics, including the last three popes. In 1986, an Eckhart commission set up by the Dominican master concluded that "on the basis of our studies it is already clear to us that a reconsideration of the teaching of Meister Eckhart is justified." The order's 1992 request to the then head of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith, Cardinal Joseph Ratzinger (later Pope Benedict XVI), was not answered until 2010, when Master Timothy Radcliffe explained:

We tried to have the censure lifted on Eckhart... and were told that there was really no need since he had never been condemned by name, just some propositions which he was supposed to have held, and so we are perfectly free to say that he is a good and orthodox theologian.

This response, if accurate, is a far cry from rescinding *In agro dominico*, let alone proclaiming Meister Eckhart a Doctor of the Church. Perhaps the

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magisterium still considers the master's dramatic language too vulnerable to misinterpretation by the faithful.

Despite Eckhart's longtime reputation as an honorary Protestant and his enthusiastic reception among nineteenth-century Romantics and Idealists, mainstream Protestants, particularly German Lutherans, have been slower to embrace the master fully because of his association with "Catholic" mysticism. The great church historian Adolf von Harnack (1851–1930) proclaimed that "mysticism can never be made Protestant without slapping history and Catholicism in the face." As theologian Karl Barth (1886–1969) argued, mysticism propagates a path to salvation "that completely bypasses the biblical history of salvation and the Last Days." Since the 1960s, Protestant believers have been worried less by the Catholic context of Meister Eckhart and other mystics than by the latter's growing association with several New Age—and presumably unscriptural—approaches to enlightenment. That cautiousness continues today, although many American Protestants, including evangelicals, are increasingly discovering worthwhile spiritual insights in the words of the medieval master.

Most commonly since the mid-twentieth century, the master has been praised as a bridge to Asian religions and philosophies. In his correspondence with Thomas Merton, Japanese scholar D. T. Suzuki (1870–1966) called Eckhart "the one Zen thinker of the West." The just man's inner Christ nature described by the medieval master looks remarkably similar to the internal Buddha nature of Mahayana tradition, as does Eckhart's combination of the contemplative-active life of love. Letting-go-ness lines up nicely with the Zen "no-mind" (wuxin) as well as the Taoist "no action" (wuwei). The Buddha also remained wary of human God-talk and aspired to a unity with the ultimate similar to Eckhart's deification. The many resemblances are indeed striking.

Several modern observers have also noted Meister Eckhart's kinship with parts of the Hindu tradition, particularly the Advaita Vedanta school. The Tamil writer Ananda K. Coomaraswamy (1877–1947) exclaimed that "Eckhart's Sermons might well be termed an Upanishad of Europe," noting the master's "astonishingly close parallel to Indian modes of thought; some whole passages and many single sentences read like a direct translation from

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Sanskrit." Here too, some Eckhartian terms seem to have other religious equivalents, such as Brahman for the ground, and *neti neti* (not this, not this) for the ineffability of the divine mystery. Above all, both Eckhart and the Vedanta school emphasize the necessity of intuition to experience the entirety of reality, which then leads to loving kindness.

Both Islam and Judaism also have their own strong mystical traditions and here too many notable similarities to Meister Eckhart's teachings emerge. Like Eckhart, his near contemporary, the great Sufi master Ibn Arabi (1165–1240) sought a religious philosophy that would above all be practical for genuine spiritual seekers. His Perfect Human, like Eckhart's Just Man, has realized the divinity within—the inseparableness from the divine essence in the eternal Now-and has dedicated himself or herself to a life of perfect love. The fantastically popular Sufi poet Jalal ad-Dīn Rūmī (1207–73) prefigures his Christian counterpart's language and message even more strikingly. With evocative images and meticulously crafted phrasing, Rumi describes his own relentless pursuit of union (fanā) with "the Beloved." The experience of this mystery, which most non-Sufis reject as heretical, is like no other. Coincidentally, a Jewish contemporary of Eckhart and Rumi, the mystic and philosopher Abraham Abulafia (1240-91), taught a similar kind of divine union, known as meditative Kabbalahism, which remains likewise controversial among modern Jews.

Meister Eckhart's seemingly universal applicability among the virtually all the world's religions accounts for his particular popularity in the rapidly growing belief in religious syncretism, also known as perennialism (and sometimes religious pluralism). This is the conviction that all the world's religions share a common essential truth, which has since been fractured into various rituals, doctrines, and other structures. Given that Meister Eckhart in fact sought such a universal religious philosophy, it's little surprise that he has proven such a superstar among its adherents. The Neoplatonist Agostino Steuco (1497–1545) coined "perennial philosophy" to describe a common, transcendent truth evident in both classical Greek philosophy and later religious traditions. Steuco's idea lay largely dormant until spreading among the Deists of the eighteenth century and even more spectacularly among the Transcendentalists, Universalists, and Theosophists of the nine-

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teenth century. In 1945, Aldous Huxley (1894–1963) published *The Perennial Philosophy*, in which Eckhart plays a prominent role, taking the universalist perspective into popular culture. Since then, perennialism has become closely associated with various New Age writers as well as some ecumenists among Christian denominations.

At least on the surface, Eckhart could qualify as the patron saint of the perennial movement. Like its modern advocates, he rejected the materialism of human society to seek a hidden, spiritual truth. He was also remarkably inclusive in his sources for past wisdom, consulting not just Christian thinkers, but also Jews, Muslims, and ancient pagans. Although a Christian (and member of the clergy!), he stressed individual, internal transformation over external rituals or doctrines. His approach was egalitarian, not requiring a high degree of learning or other special gnosis. And above all, his sermons were practical and encouraging, full of colorful metaphors, memorable aphorisms, and answers to anticipated questions. There was but one goal, union with God, which modern followers refer to as ultimate reality—and Eckhart would not disagree with the characterization.

Was Meister Eckhart a perennialist before his time? At first glance, the resemblance to a modern spiritual teacher, such as his namesake Eckhart Tolle (b. 1945), is quite striking. Tolle's earliest mystical influence was the prolific German writer Joseph Anton Schneiderfranken (aka Bô Yin Râ; 1876–1943), a profound admirer of Jakob Böhme, who in turn was of course shaped by his reading of Meister Eckhart. Although Tolle only explicitly mentions the master a few times, the influence of the medieval sage is pervasive. In *The Power of Now* (1999), Tolle writes at length of both mindfulness and surrendering (letting go of) the "false self," so as to experience "the Source" (ground) and "the Unmanifested" (silent, apophatic God) in "the eternal Now." "The One" who existed before the Big Bang similarly is present in the "isness" of all things, including of course humans. Like the master, Tolle teaches that experiencing the divine essence within will transform the seeker, leading to a life of joy and compassion. He also skillfully anticipates a reader's potential questions within the text and provides reassuring answers.

But appearances can be misleading. Tolle's main goal—and this accounts in large part for his popular success—is therapeutic: healing the "pain body"



33S 34N of its "negativity," typically manifested in addictions and unhappy relationships. His "timeless wisdom" draws on an impressive all-star cast—the Buddha, the Tao Te Ching, Jesus, Ruant, the Tibetan Book of the Dead, Marcus Aurelius, the Gnostic Gospel of Thomas, and so on. His prose is straightforward, conversational, and mixes in contemporary references from movies and popular music. At times he translates his points into "theistic language," but he carefully avoids—in good perennialist fashion—endorsing any specific religious doctrines. "Salvation" consists of freedom from "the psychological need of the past for your identity and future for your fulfillment." In language reminiscent of Meister Eckhart, Tolle explains:

Rumi

You find God the moment you realize that you don't need to seek God. So there is no only way to salvation: Any condition can be used, but no particular condition is needed. However, there is only one point of access: the Now. There can be no salvation away from this moment. You are lonely and without a partner? Enter the Now from there. You are in a relationship? Enter the now from there.



Not only will such a transformation bring inner peace, we are told, it will strengthen the immune system and slow down the aging process.

To be fair, Tolle never claims to be the modern incarnation of Meister Eckhart. But his indirect, secularized, self-help application of the master's insights is currently making more inroads than any other representation, particularly among the growing number of "spiritual but not religious" individuals in the West. Like the philosophers of the twentieth century, contemporary spiritual teachers such as Tolle unquestionably bring the teachings of Meister Eckhart to a wider audience, but also like these predecessors, they extract him from his original religious context, intentionally disregarding or reconfiguring some of his distinctly Christian interpretations.

Appropriation of this latest nature is an inherent risk to every public thinker, although Eckhart seems to have endured more than his fair share of diverse interpretations and applications over the years. An optimist could say that this result is a tribute to the rich, transcendent nature of his teaching. A pessimist might counter that it is the frequent ambiguity and obscu-

THE MAN FROM WHOM GOD HID NOTHING

rity of the master's words that have condemned him to such a fate. A historian can concede that while both views have merit, Eckhart died convinced that he had neither said nor written anything contrary to the Catholic faith—"insofar as" he understood it. The fate of those teachings, he believed, was in the hands of a just God, just like the outcome of his own lifelong quest to be united with that God in eternity.

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The Wayless Way

Whoever is seeking God by ways is finding ways and losing God, who in ways is hidden. But whoever seeks for God without ways will find him as he is in Himself, and that man will live with the Son, and he is life itself.

GERMAN SERMON 5B

Making Room for God

During Meister Eckhart's ten years in Strasbourg and subsequent four years in Cologne, he preached his "method" of divine union to thousands of people—nuns, beguines, and fellow friars, but also craft workers, bankers, merchants, lawyers, soldiers, parish priests, farmers, servants, widows, manual laborers, and assorted travelers, including pilgrims. He spoke to congregations in the Dominican churches of both cities, as well as male and female cloisters and other churches up and down the Rhine that invited him. He also counseled interested individuals privately, often as a confessor. The German sermons that have survived from this period, in fact, were meticulously transcribed by some of his devoted followers and in some instances edited by the master himself before circulation.

In recasting his religious philosophy for an audience of average men and women, Meister Eckhart distinguished himself from other preachers in some notable ways. Unlike the typical Dominican or Franciscan friar, he did

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not dwell in his sermons on sin and its eternal punishment in the torments of hell. He did not tell colorful anecdotes about the saints, like Berthold of Regensburg, or entertaining morality tales about religious scoffers who get their comeuppance in the end. There is, in fact, little drama or humor in the sermons that have survived. Nor were there any prophetic visions or descriptions of eternal bliss in an extended description of heaven. For those listeners seeking sensations of remorse or joy, let alone diversion of any sort, Eckhart would have been an acute disappointment.

At the same time, the Dominican master had one major draw that few if any of his contemporaries could match: he offered to show people how to directly experience God. The hunger for authentic and unmediated experience of the divine remained as strong in the early fourteenth century as it had been a hundred years earlier. People of all backgrounds continued to seek out God in the midst of their lives and in the religious options before them. Thanks to his impeccable scholarly credentials, Meister Eckhart enjoyed the authority to describe in poetic language the practical steps that led to divine union, or what he sometimes daringly called "becoming God." Seekers had to be willing to engage with his intellectually challenging—some might say impenetrable—way of speaking. But for those who persevered, the usual stories from the pulpit about dismembered martyrs paled in comparison.

Not that Meister Eckhart was the first preacher of his day to discuss ways into God. In his own sermons he identified two widely acknowledged methods, which he contrasted with his own "third way." One [way] is to seek God in all creatures with manifold activity and ardent longing. The most famous recent advocate of this via positiva was St. Bonaventure, like Eckhart a learned theologian and admirer of St. Augustine as well as a mendicant administrator. Bonaventure, though, was a Franciscan who embraced the affective piety of his order's founder, in which one began by loving the created world and other humans and progressed to loving the Creator Himself. In his Soul's Journey to God, Bonaventure described—in Latin and chiefly for his fellow Franciscans—six successive levels of illumination, beginning with the apprehension and perception of beauty in nature and fellow humans by the physical senses, followed by intellectual and spiritual contemplation up the





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ladder of creation, and culminating in an encounter with the divine source of all. This approach appealed to many Christians of the day and was expanded upon in such instructional works as David of Augsburg's Seven Stages of Prayer and Rudolf of Biberach's Seven Roads of Eternity. Dante Alighieri was its most famous contemporary proponent and his Divine Comedy the most enduring dramatization of the pathway to God through ever-expanding love.

While never impugning Bonaventure or any of his fellow Franciscans by name, Meister Eckhart rejected seeking God through the external world and senses. The Creator was in all things, he agreed, but He could not be directly encountered in this way. Human will, as he had argued against the Franciscan Gonsalvo in Paris, too readily attached itself to images and intermediaries, preventing genuine access to the divine. Even poverty, the supreme virtue of the Franciscans, could become an idol. Preaching on the feast of St. Francis, Eckhart directly challenged his rival mendicants on this score, arguing, I used sometimes to say (and it is quite true) that whoever truly loves poverty is so desirous of it that he grudges anyone having less than he has. And so it is with all things, whether it is purity, or justice, or whatever virtue he loves, he wants to have to the highest degree. Rather than look to the created world, He who would see God must be blind. Rather than seeking God's voice in the conversation of men, anyone who wishes to hear God speaking must become deaf and inattentive to others.

The second way into God was through an ecstatic episode, such as the rapture of St. Paul, who wrote of "a man [who] was caught up and heard such words as may not be uttered by men" (2 Corinthians 12:2). Experience of this nature was a rare gift, bestowed only on a select few throughout the Church's history, perhaps including certain contemporary nuns and beguines. This way, however, like that of Bonaventure, yielded only an external and partial view of God. You should understand, explained Eckhart, that in a similar ecstatic experience St. Peter stood on the circle of eternity, but was not in unity beholding God in His own being. In other words, there was no full union between the seeker and the divine, no direct experience of God's essence.

The third way, the master concluded, is called a way, but is really being at home, that is: seeing God without means in His own being. . . . Outside of this way

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all creatures circle and are means. But led into God on this way by the light of His Word and embraced by them both in the Holy Spirit—that passes all words. This third way—not really a way—offered much more than either affective piety or special revelations could ever promise, and, unlike those two paths, Eckhart's third way was accessible to all seekers. How marvelous, to be without and within, to embrace and be embraced, to see and be the seen, to hold and be held—that is the goal, where the spirit is ever at rest, united in joyous eternity! Such complete immersion in the Godhead, according to Eckhart, was the ultimate transformative experience sought by all humans.

But how could the seeker be at home in this way? Is it better to do something toward this, to imagine and to think about God?—or should he keep still and silent in peace and quiet and let God speak and work in him, merely waiting for God to act? Here Meister Eckhart is at his most innovative, providing genuine instruction but at the same time arguing against a formulaic striving for God. He depicts, rather, a kind of anti-striving, in which the individual progressively lets go of all the impediments to divine union and then awaits the divine birth, an event of pure grace. This is the process of letting-go-ness, the approach that Eckhart first identified as prior in Erfurt and refined over the course of the next twenty years.

Where Bonaventure and other Franciscans wrote of gradually elevating the soul to God, Eckhart preached of stripping the soul down to its bare essence. God was not to be found "out there," but within. As in his reading of the Bible, Eckhart worked as a spiritual excavator, going deep below the surface of things to get at the core truth that was God. When Jesus preached "Blessed are the poor in spirit" (Matthew 5:3), he did not just mean the physically destitute but the internally liberated individual who wants nothing, knows nothing, and has nothing. The ultimate preparation for an experience of the divine birth was not the accumulation of good deeds and knowledge but rather a self-emptying of all images and desires—even the desire for God—a radical letting-go of virtually every aspect of individual identity that verged on self-annihilation.

Such complete detachment or cutting away (MHG abgescheidenheit) had been the goal of Christian monks and nuns for over a millennium. Tradition dictated that achieving it required many years of sacrifice and suffering, and

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the inexhaustible resilience to rebound from countless personal setbacks. Yet Meister Eckhart reassured his listeners that to reach this state of total detachment all you need is right intention and free will. With such a pronouncement, he seems to embrace the kind of easy piety that foes of the new apostolic movements feared and condemned. No one should think it is hard to come to this, even though it sounds hard and a great matter. It is true that it is a little difficult in the beginning in becoming detached. But when one has got into it, no life is easier, more delightful or lovelier. Moreover, Eckhart claimed, any sincere believer, regardless of status, could succeed:

And so I say again, as I said before, there is no one here so coarse-grained, so ignorant, or unprepared but if, by the grace of God, he can unite his will purely and totally with the will of God, then he need only say with desire, "Lord, show me your dearest will and strengthen me to do it!" and God will do so as truly as he lives.

But what Meister Eckhart assumes—though he clarifies it less frequently—is that his listeners have already internalized the teachings of conventional piety and conformed their lives accordingly:

Now I say, as I said before, that these words and this act are only for the good and perfected people, who have so absorbed and assimilated the essence of all virtues that these virtues emanate from them naturally, without their seeking; and above all there must dwell in them the worthy life and lofty teachings of our Lord Jesus Christ.

Before one can transcend traditional piety, one must have absorbed its values as second nature. Nonetheless, seekers should never confuse the means of piety with its ends. If anyone were to ask me, Why do we pray, why do we fast, why do we do all our works, why are we baptized, why (most important of all) did God become man?—I would answer, in order that God may be born in the soul and the soul be born in God. For this reason all the scriptures were written and for that reason God created the world and all angelic natures.

The advanced seeker has already completed three of the four steps into God

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described by Eckhart. The first is that fear, hope, and desire grow in [the soul]. In the beginning of the good life, the master concedes, even fear is useful to a man and gives him access to love. Similarly, for a man to have a peaceful life is good, but for a man to have a life of pain in patience is better; but that a man should have peace in a life of pain is best. Only then can the soul take the second step, where fear and hope and desire are quite cut off, before coming to the third stage . . . a forgetfulness of all temporary things. In that sense, all—or virtually all—conventional Christian teachings and practices formed the prelude to the divine union Eckhart preached. The ultimate goal of these preliminary stages, as he had stressed to Dominican novices, was humility, which makes a man greatest of all: whoever has this most deeply and perfectly has the possibility of gaining all perfection. His sermons were aimed at those people who had already attained this deep level of humility, individuals who considered themselves pious Christians but hungered for more. For such men and women, he promised, divine union was a short step away; for those still immersed in selfish lives, Eckhart offered no quick fix. Unfortunately this was a key distinction that a casual listener—or inquisitor—might miss.

The remaining challenge for advanced believers, according to Eckhart, was letting go of their own piety, at least as a source of pride or self-esteem. The only acceptable objective is to know God, and this must be a pure and selfless desire. The just man seeks nothing in his works: for those who seek anything in their works or work for any "why" are thralls and hirelings. . . . Indeed, even if you create an image of God in your mind the works you do with that in view are dead and your good works are ruined. At one point Eckhart explicitly addresses the self-identified godly in his audience, all those who are bound with attachment to prayer, fasting, vigils, and all kinds of outward discipline and mortification, pleading with them to sever

all attachment to any work that involves the loss of freedom to wait on God in the here and now, and to follow Him alone in the light wherein He would show you what to do and what not to do, every moment freely and anew, as if you had nothing else and neither would nor could do otherwise . . . for otherwise you will have no peace.

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The same purity of intention applied to prayer. Anyone who desires something from God is a merchant—the ultimate put-down for his pious listeners.

If one prays for [anything] but God alone, that can be called idolatry or unrighteousness. . . . When I pray for nobody and for nothing, then I am praying most truly, for God is neither Heinrich nor Conrad. If we pray to God for [anything] else but God, that is wrong and faithless and a kind of imperfection, for it is to set up something beside God.

Petitionary prayer, in Eckhart's eyes, was both foolish and selfish: If you are sick and pray to God for health, then health is dearer to you than God, and He is not your God. From the divine perspective, Eckhart preached, the great majority of individual requests were also ridiculously petty, as he illustrated with a contemporary analogy:

Suppose I came to the pope a hundred or two hundred miles and when I came into his presence I were to say, "My lord, Holy Father, I have traveled about two hundred miles with great difficulty and expense, and I beg you-and this is what I came for—to give me a bean;" truly, he and whoever heard it would say, and rightly, that I was a great fool.

Even noble requests, ostensibly bringing one closer to God, stumbled over themselves and became substitutions for what should be the sole objective.

Anyone who seeks anything in God, knowledge, understanding, devotion, or whatever it might be—though he may find it he will not have found God: even though he may indeed find knowledge, understanding, or inwardness, which I heartily recommend—but it will not stay with him. But if he seeks nothing, he will find God and all things in Him, and they will remain with him.

Letting go of the image of God as a heavenly wish granter was no easy matter, especially given how deeply ingrained this idea was in the

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Christianity of the day. Yet according to Eckhart, this prevailing attitude constituted a fundamental misunderstanding of the nature of both God and prayer. Looking for something with God [is] treating God like a candle with which to look for something; and when you have found what you were looking for, you throw the candle away.

The most powerful prayer, he revealed, one well-nigh omnipotent to gain all things, and the noblest work of all is that which proceeds from a bare mind. Only when the seeker had made his or her mind free (MHG ledic, vri, lûter, blôz) of all images, literally un-pictured (entbildet), could he or she learn, firstly, how to pray to God. . . . for God is above names and ineffable. In other words, the seeker should pray for union with a mysterious, imageless God, not the anthropomorphized old man with a beard or any other imagined being. Yet ironically, the master provides one particularly memorable image to convey the imageless encounter: Strip God of all his clothing—seize Him naked in his robing room, where He is uncovered and bare in Himself. Then you will "abide in Him."

The gap between this God of the scholastics and the God of most people was considerable. Transcending the divine images that saturated fourteenth-century Christianity represented a formidable challenge that was probably beyond the average churchgoer. Yet according to Meister Eckhart only those seekers who were willing to let go of all the conventional structures of religion—to let them fall away like obsolete scaffolding—could be truly open to the divine birth within. Whatever is familiar to you is your foe, he warned. Even the focus on "God" Himself prevented the seeker from experiencing the infinite ground of being beyond the human idea of the Creator, leading Eckhart to make the seemingly shocking proclamation, therefore I pray to God to make me free of God, for my essential being is above God, where God is understood as the origin of creatures.

The final and perhaps greatest barrier to the divine birth within was the self, what we would today call the ego. Cease to be this or that, he advised, and to have this and that. Our Lord, Eckhart reminded his listeners, says, "He who would be my disciple must abandon self;" none can hear my words or my teaching, unless he has abandoned self. Yet how few otherwise pious seekers were able to accomplish this feat! It is lamentable how some people think themselves very lofty and quite one with God, and yet have not abandoned self, and cling to such petty

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things in joy and sorrow. They are a long way from where they imagine themselves to be. Eckhart compared a seeker who continued to hold on to his or her personal identity to a sick man with a thick coating on his tongue, who is unable to really taste food or wine: As long as you mind yourself or anything at all, you know no more of God than my mouth knows of color or my eye of taste.

When some of his listeners expressed frustration to Meister Eckhart that they had practiced worldly detachment yet received no inwardness nor devotion nor rapture nor any special consolation from God, he admonished them that they were still not letting go of all that is not God. If you would know truth clearly, Boethius had counseled, you must cast off joy, and fear, and expectation, and hope, and pain. Each of these attitudes, Eckhart explained, was a means, and thus an impediment to experiencing the divine directly. Similarly, memory, understanding, and will, they all diversify you, and therefore you must leave them all: sense perceptions, imagination, or whatever it may be in which you find or seek to find yourself. After that, you may find this birth, but not otherwise—believe mel Do not imagine, the master added, that your reason can grow to the knowledge of God. If God is to shine divinely in you, your natural light cannot help toward this end. Human reason, to the contrary, often posed additional barriers to the divine experience.

The way to reach God, in short, was to stop pursuing Him, at least with the intellect and all its desires, for as long as you want more and more, God cannot dwell or work in you. Occasionally Eckhart seemed to approach the heretical self-annihilation described by Marguerite Porete: therefore a man must be slain and wholly dead, devoid of self and wholly without likeness, like to none, and then he is really God-like. But "destroying the old man" was a perennial Christian theme. What was novel was the apparent prioritizing of a radical internal "poverty" over external poverty—a difficult goal but one accessible to all seekers. Meister Eckhart sympathized with popular reactions to such greater spiritual demands but was unwavering on their necessity:

A man once came to me—it was not long ago—and told me he had given up a great deal of property and goods, in order that he might save his soul. Then I thought, Alas! How little and how paltry are the things you have given up. It is blindness and folly, so long as you care a jot for what you have given up. But if you have given up self, then you have really given up.





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The true seeker must therefore be intrepid and continue forward in the midst of doubts.

In all a man does he should turn his will Godward and, keeping God alone in mind forge ahead without qualms about its being the right thing or whether he is making a mistake. If a painter had to plan every brush-stroke with the first, he would paint nothing.

The Divine Birth

Meister Eckhart's mature understanding of *letting-go-ness* was comprehensive. Not only must the sinner let go of the world and sin, but also of all the traditional remedies proposed by the Church: pious acts of devotion and petitionary prayer aimed at flawed human notions of "God." The seeker had to let go of all images, desires, and thought itself. Only then was he or she ready for the final step in Eckhart's way to God, which is to be silent and let God work and speak within. Typically, the seeker was more aware of God... in a quiet place, but that requirement, Eckhart clarified, reflected human imperfection more than divine nature, for God is equally in all things and places. Most important, he continued,

all your activity must cease and all your powers must serve [God's] ends, not your own.... No creaturely skill, nor your own wisdom nor all your knowledge can enable you to know God divinely. For you to know God in God's way, your knowing must become a pure unknowing, and a forgetting of your self and all creatures.

Now you might say, "Well sir, what use is my intellect then, if it is supposed to be empty and functionless? Is that the best thing for me to do—to raise my mind to an unknowing knowledge that can't really exist? For if I knew anything at all it would not be ignorance, and I should not be empty and bare. Am I supposed to be in total darkness?"

Certainly. You cannot do better than to place yourself in darkness and in unknowing.

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Eckhart knew well the potential terror of such an internal state, without rules, directions, goals, or other points of reference. Sir, you place all of our salvation in ignorance! But the master remained adamant, demanding the leap of faith that would allow God to enter.

Now you might say, "Oh sir, is it really always necessary to be barren and estranged from everything, outward and inward . . . if a man is in such a state of pure nothingness, is it not better to do something to beguile the gloom and desolation, such as praying and listening to sermons or doing something else that is virtuous, so as to help himself?"

No, be sure of this. Absolute stillness for as long as possible is best of all for you. You cannot exchange this state for any other without harm. That is certain. You would like to partly prepare yourself and partly let God prepare you, but this cannot be.

There was no turning back from this ultimate letting-go, the culminating point of existence, and if you give way to the impulse to turn back, you are bound to lapse into sin, and you may backslide so far as to fall eternally.

These are unexpectedly harsh words from the normally encouraging master. How could he be so certain that such self-emptying would lead to the desired divine union? The answer lay in Eckhart's understanding of the very nature of the soul and its intrinsic link to the divine.

I have a power in my soul which is ever receptive to God. I am as certain [of that] as that I am a man, that nothing is so close to me as God. God is closer to me than I am to myself: my being depends on God's being near me and present to me.

This power is variously named by Eckhart as the divine light of the soul, the head of the soul, the husband of the soul, the guardian of the spirit, the light of the spirit, the imprint of divine nature, a citadel, a tiny drop of intellect, a twig, and, most famously, a little spark. The masters, he notes, say this [power] is nameless, and indeed Eckhart concedes that it is neither this nor that; and yet it is something that is more exalted over "this" and "that" than are the heavens above the

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earth. It is uncreated and uncreatable, a piece of divine and celestial nature. This power alone is free, and it touches neither time nor flesh, flowing from the spirit, remaining in the spirit, altogether spiritual. Like its divine source, this power knows neither time nor other human distinctions, such as here and now.

Eckhart's descriptions of *the divine spark* harken back to his longtime search for a universal religious philosophy. Pagan and Christian sages alike, he believed, particularly those influenced by Neoplatonism, had long recognized this elusive spiritual core in all human beings and struggled to pin down its nature.

There is a fine saying of one pagan master to another about this. He said, "I am aware of something in me which shines in my understanding; I can clearly perceive that it is something, but what it may be I cannot grasp. Yet I think if I could only seize it I should know all truth." To which the other master replied, "Follow it boldly! For if you could seize it you would possess the sum total of all good and have eternal life! St. Augustine spoke in the same sense: 'I am aware of something within me that gleams and flashes before my soul; were this perfected and fully established in me, that would surely be eternal life!'

The entire point of radical self-emptying and letting-go was to eliminate the mental noise and other distractions that obscured this power, which naturally sought out the sweetest, the highest, the best. The theological term for this power, Eckhart explained, was synteresis (Greek "careful watching"), what we today might call the moral compass, or more simply the conscience. It was the part of the soul that always pointed toward God but was often drowned out by selfish desires. Eckhart compared the liberated divine spark to the flame of a candle, burning brightly and more clearly the farther it springs from the wick.

Ironically, the "imageless" preacher relied on several metaphors to convey the ideal precondition of the soul necessary for the divine spark to achieve its end. One was the absolute silence necessary to hear the Word, the creative work of God.

The heavenly Father speaks one Word and speaks it eternally, and in the Word He expends all His might and utters His entire divine nature and all creatures in the Word. The Word lies hidden in the soul, unnoticed and unheard unless room is made for it in the ground of hearing, otherwise it is not heard; but all voices and all sounds must cease and perfect stillness must reign there, a still silence.

The nature of a word is to reveal what is hidden, Eckhart preaches, which is why the author of the book of Wisdom (18:14–15) wrote, "In the middle of the night when all things were in a quiet silence, there was spoken to me a hidden word. It came like a thief by stealth." This secret and hidden word (verbum absconditum) is in fact the Word, the divine logos of creation embodied in Christ, which when "heard" joins the Creator and creature in complete union. It is the voice crying out in the wilderness (Matthew 3:3), the sole source of hope in the inner desert generated by the seeker.

Another favored representation of the soul before union was the image of complete darkness. Only when the soul is deprived of all images can the *simple, pure light* of the divine spark be perceived. Here Eckhart sides with the description of divine illumination offered by Pseudo-Dionysius:

Anything you see, or anything that comes within your ken, that is not God, just because God is neither this nor that. Whoever says God is here or there, do not believe him. The light that God is shines in the darkness. God is the true light: to see it, one must be blind and must strip from God all that is "something."

For Eckhart, this "blindness" was more than simply shutting one's eyes to creation, it was emptying one's mind of all images, so that the divine light can shine into that place I have often spoken of: this is so pure and transcendent and lofty that all lights are darkness and nothing compared with this light.

By far Eckhart's favorite metaphor for the divine spark's work in the soul was the *divine* (also *eternal*) *birth*. The birth of the Son in the ground of the soul of the believer had been a theme of early Christian teaching, dating

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back to the second century CE. Clement of Alexandria, Hippolytus, and especially Origen all wrote of Jesus being "born again" in the heart of the believer. For Origen, this event was based on acquired knowledge of the Word, while in the works of Maximus the Confessor the divine birth was the product of a virtuous life. Eckhart either knew these teachings directly or via contemporaries as Albert or Bonaventure. But his own understanding of the divine birth was distinctive, stressing instead the internal silence and emptiness that made it possible.

Like the Blessed Virgin herself, the soul of the seeker had to be pure and uncorrupted. Only the higher power of the divine spark remained unpolluted by creaturely thinking, yet even here some unwanted alloys needed to be stripped clean. I have often said that the soul cannot be pure unless she is reduced to her original purity, as God made her, just as gold cannot be made from copper by two or three roastings: it must be reduced to its primary nature. Like the alchemist's elixir, the distilled essence of the divine spark makes possible the very act of creation, of birth.

To be ready to receive God's most beloved will and to do it continually, Eckhart clarified, I would be a virgin, untrammeled by any images, just as I was when I was not. . .Since according to the masters union comes only by the joining of like to like, therefore a man must be a maiden, a virgin, who would receive the virgin Jesus. As in his embrace of spiritual poverty, Eckhart distinguishes between external virginity and chastity—as in the case of those under religious vows—and internal purity, a complete letting-go of all mental attachments.

The stillness and darkness of the desert night, the utter emptiness of a virgin mind, all made a direct encounter with God inevitable. And here, Eckhart revealed, was the greatest irony of the long quest for God: the ultimate role reversal of seeker and sought. The final step for the human seeker was in fact pure passivity, a total *letting-go-ness* that Eckhart called *potential receptivity*. The ultimate *breaking through*, he explained, was not made by the seeker coming to God, but by God coming to the seeker.

You need not seek Him here or there, He is no further than the door of your heart; there He stands patiently awaiting whoever is ready to open up and let

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Him in. No need to call to Him from afar: He can hardly wait for you to open up. He longs for you a thousand times more than you long for Him.

The divine spark provided the gateway but the initiative came from the divine creator Himself.

The seeker who has fully let go of all images and thoughts is irresistible to God. Whenever a man humbles himself, God is unable to withhold His own goodness; He is obliged to sink Himself, to pour Himself out into that humble man, and to the meanest of all He gives Himself most and gives Himself wholly. Some of Eckhart's fellow theologians recoiled at the notion of limiting divine freedom in this way, but the master insisted on underscoring the divine compulsion to love:

God's comfort is pure and unmixed: it is perfect and complete, and He is so eager to give it to you that He cannot wait to give you Himself first of all. God is so besotted in His love for us, it is just as if He had forgotten heaven and earth and all His blessedness and all His Godhead and had no business except with me alone, to give me everything for my comforting. And He gives it to me complete, He gives it to me perfectly, He gives it to me most purely, He gives it all the time, and He gives it to all creatures.

Eager to press home his point, Eckhart reaches for some of his characteristic hyperbole.

If anyone were to rob God of loving the soul, he would rob Him of His life and being, or he would kill God, if one may say so; for the self-same love with which God loves the soul is His life, and in that same love the Holy Ghost blossoms forth, and that same love is the Holy Ghost.

The divine birth, after all, was God's chief aim. He is never content till He begets His Son in us. And the soul, too, is no way content until the Son of God is born in her. This, Eckhart explained, was the true meaning of the gospel text, "God sent His only-begotten Son into the world." You should not take this to

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mean the external world, as when he ate and drank with us, but you should understand it of the inner world. In other words, we are an only son whom the Father has been eternally begetting out of the hidden darkness of eternal concealment.

Eckhart's astonishing expansion of the Incarnation of Christ does not deny the historically unique identity or mission of the Savior but rather makes a distinction between Jesus's carnal birth—about [which] you have been told plenty—and the eternal birth or the eternal Word . . . spring[ing] from the essential mind of [God] the Father. In this latter respect, God is ever at work in the eternal now, and His work is the begetting of His Son. He is bringing him forth all the time.

And so, if a man is to know God—and therein consists his eternal bliss—he must be, with Christ, the only Son of the Father. . . . True, you remain clearly distinguished in your carnal birth, but in the eternal birth you must be one, for in God there is no more than the one natural spring.

And so, he attempted to clarify, if you ask me, since I am an only son whom the heavenly Father has eternally begotten, whether I have eternally been that son in God, my answer is: Yes and no. Yes, a son in that the Father has eternally begotten me, not a son by way of being unborn [i.e., eternal].

Eckhart was treading on dangerous ground here, risking that some of his listeners might not appreciate his fine distinction between the way that Jesus was the unique Son of God and the way that the righteous seeker was also God's son. Still the preacher pursued his point with abandon: For between your human nature and his there is no difference: it is one, for it is in Christ what is in you. That is why I said in Paris that in the righteous man all things are fulfilled that holy scripture and the prophets ever said of Christ: for, if you are in a right state, then all that was said in the Old and New Testaments will be fulfilled in you.

These were heady words for any simple seeker in the audience. Was Meister Eckhart actually saying that a experiencing the divine birth in the soul made one divine? This was far more than any other way to God promised—but could it actually be true?



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Becoming God

For Eckhart, the eternal birth was the seeker's return to his or her true nature. But what was this true nature and how was it affected by the divine union? The divine birth, the master explains, is a profoundly intimate and intersubjective experience, in which the boundaries between the self and God become blurred. The actors and the act become indistinguishable from one another. The divine birth in the seeker's soul is a mutual event: the opening and the entering are a single act. The resulting self-awareness is likewise shared, to the extent that there is but one perspective. You must know, Eckhart explains, that this is in reality one and the same thing—to know God and to be known by God, to see God and to be seen by God. Or in his more famous—and provocative—formulation: The eye with which I see God is the same eye with which God sees me: my eye and God's eye are one eye, one seeing, one knowing and one love.

The state Eckhart described was more than immersion. One should not think of the soul as a piece of wood in a tub of water, he cautioned, for these were united but not one with one another . . . where there is water there is no wood, and where there is wood no water. Nor, conversely, was the soul like a vessel in the conventional sense: Spiritual vessels are different from physical vessels . . . whatever is received in that is in the vessel and the vessel in it, and it is the vessel itself. Whatever the spiritual vessel receives, is its own nature. The soul in God, Eckhart underscored, is nothing like God, but instead is of the same essence. Just as God is everywhere, the transformed soul is everywhere. Whatever is in God, is God, it cannot drop away from it.

Thus the seeker does and doesn't become God in a conventional or literal sense. It would be more accurate to say that the divinized soul participates in God, while keeping its own distinctive and derivative identity. Human existence, after all, is borrowed from God, who is the face causing the reflection in the mirror. It is a question difficult to answer, Eckhart concedes, how the soul can endure it without perishing when God presses her into Himself. Yet the distinction between Creator and created does not totally disappear. Eckhart also carefully distinguishes between the inner man, who experiences divine

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union, and the outer man, who continues to live in the world. The inner man, or bare substantial being, coexists with God in the ground; the outer man, or personal being, shares of this substance but remains a worldly creature, reliant on divine grace throughout its earthly existence.

For Eckhart, divine union was not some optional upgrade; it was the very purpose of human existence. I have said before and say again that everything our Lord has ever done he did simply to the end that God might be with us and that we might be one with Him, and that is why God became man. It would be of little value for me, he proclaimed elsewhere, that "the Word was made flesh" for man in Christ as a person distinct from me, unless he was also made flesh for me personally so that I too might be God's son. Yet the idea that such a union could be achieved on earth remained a controversial claim, especially among theologians and church leaders. The universal accessibility of such a state posed even more troubling questions about the roles of clergy and sacraments. And what were the consequences for an individual who achieved such union—were they truly "free in the spirit," as some contemporaries claimed St. Paul had promised? Meister Eckhart's wayless way to God obviously came out of a deep Christian tradition, but where it was headed was less obvious to his audiences, and perhaps even to the master himself.

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¶ CHAPTER ELEVEN ▮

Living Without a Why

The just man has such need of justice that he cannot love anything but justice. If God were not just—as I have said before—he would care nothing for God.... If the devil were just, he would love him insofar as he was just, and not a hair's breadth more.

GERMAN SERMON 41

The Seeker Transformed

The divine birth represented for Meister Eckhart what the chivalric romances of his youth would have called his Holy Grail. Like a questing knight, after many years of journeying he had at last discovered the pure and shining prize he sought. This treasure, he realized early on, lay not in the wider world he had shunned at the age of sixteen, nor, he eventually decided, in the daily discipline or good works of a pious friar. Like Parzival and other great seekers, he looked increasingly within himself for answers, gradually letting go of all images and notions of his divine quarry, until the only way left to "know" the God he sought was in a direct encounter. The God Eckhart found was not reached by the intentional suffering and ecstatic visions of mystical nuns or beguines, but by his final letting go of the pursuit itself, whereupon that spark of divinity within broke through and filled his being. The result was a divinized person (homo divinus), what Eckhart called the "just" or the "noble" person.

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But at what cost this prize? Had the Parisian master unwittingly strayed into the heretical territory of religionless spirituality, the "auto-theism" of Marguerite Porete? Worse yet, was he unwittingly leading scores of the trusting faithful to their own perdition? Whatever his private reflections, Eckhart the public preacher showed no doubts that the divine birth constituted the fundamental truth of the gospels and of all Christianity. It was his pastoral duty to share this version of the good news with the world. Yet at the same time he was no isolated naïf. As a longtime administrator with some degree of worldly experience, Eckhart knew that he was presenting a novel and potentially hazardous interpretation of the quest for salvation. Out of some combination of conviction and self-confidence he regularly courted danger with his provocative exclamations. Preaching the divine birth to "the common people" was daring enough, but Eckhart went still further, attempting to convey his unconventional notions of God and the Godhead and of an active spirituality based not on the quest for salvation but on the "why-less" nature of Creation itself. The just man transformed by the divine birth became in that sense not just like God but God Himself—a seemingly heretical notion by any traditional theological standard.

Without full knowledge of the master's taste for hyperbole or of the way Eckhart qualified his most outrageous statements, his contemporaries might be forgiven for seeing more than a passing resemblance to the notorious Free Spirit heresy and its talk of self-divinization and freedom from conventional morality. Eckhart was aware of this risk and tried to head it off by invoking his theological hero Augustine, who claimed that when a man accommodates himself barely to God, with love, he is un-formed, then in-formed and transformed in the divine uniformity wherein he is one with God. "One with God" was a familiar and sufficiently vague phrase that kept his sermon safely within the bounds of orthodoxy, but Eckhart seemed intent on pushing his luck, adding, when [that man] is one with God he brings forth all creatures with God, bestowing bliss on all creatures by virtue of being one with Him.

What were the moral obligations of an individual who had been thus transformed by the *divine birth*? Here too the master treads perilously close to the alleged "spiritual liberty" of Marguerite Porete. *The truly humble man*, according to Eckhart, *has no need to pray to God for anything*.

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This man now dwells in unhampered freedom and pure nakedness, for he needs undertake and take on nothing small or great—for whatever belongs to God belongs to him. . . . This humble man has as much power over God as he has over himself, and all the good that is in all the angels and all the saints is as much his own as it is God's own.

The spiritual perfection resulting from the *divine birth* in the soul, according to Eckhart, was not a rejection of human nature but a fulfillment of its true potential.

Some contemporaries heard in Eckhart's words an endorsement of the Free Spirit heresy, the idea that those who had experienced union with God could never lose divine status and were thus at liberty to live as they chose, eschewing good works and Christian ritual—and even committing sin—without consequence. But once again, Eckhart's penchant for shocking statements made things unnecessarily hard for him. His teachings on the effects of the divine birth were in fact among his most orthodox beliefs. Contrary to adherents of the Free Spirit heresy, the liberty preached by Eckhart did not make Christian virtues superfluous but rather inevitable. Some people, Eckhart preaches, hope to reach a point where they are free of works, [but] I say this cannot be. The individual transformed by the divine spark does not need to do any good works to reach heaven, but chooses to do them because of his or her new divine nature. Nor do sexual promiscuity or other sins suddenly become blameless—quite the opposite.

In very truth I believe, nay, I am sure, that the man who is established in this cannot in any way ever be separated from God. I say he can in no way lapse into mortal sin. He would rather suffer the most shameful death, as the saints have done before him, than commit the least of mortal sins.

As if to anticipate the accusations of future inquisitors, the master explicitly refutes any antinomian interpretation of his words.

Some people say, "If I have God and the love of God, then I can do what I like." They have not grasped this aright. So long as you are capable of doing

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anything that is against God and His commandment, you have not the love of God, though you may deceive the world into thinking you have. . . . just like a man whose legs are tied so that he cannot walk, so a man who is in the will of God can do no wrong.

Did this mean that transformed seekers became spiritual automatons or puppets? Not so, Eckhart responded, explaining that the divine birth allowed seekers to know God and God's will so intimately that they were strongly inclined to do good works and live morally, but they still lived within the world and were subject to its temptations. Still possessed of free will, they had to choose moment by moment to follow the righteous path, and for most, missteps were inevitable. In other words, the inner experience of union with God is the highest perfection of the spirit to which man can attain spiritually. Yet, this is not the highest perfection that we shall possess forever with body and soul.

In Catholic tradition that ultimate experience is limited to those few extraordinary individuals known as saints. Only the saints, Eckhart proclaimed, experienced the divine birth to such a degree that the outer person was transformed as completely as the inner spirit. Only the saints were capable of living a purely holy life. Most just people, and here Eckhart clearly included himself, could but aspire to such perfection in this life.

It may well be that those who are on the way to the same good but have not yet attained it, can recognize these perfected ones of whom we have spoken, at least in part. Indeed if I knew one such man, I would give a minster [large church] full of gold and precious stones, if I had it, for a single fowl for that man to eat . . . but note, you must pay good heed, for such people are very hard to recognize.

For those saints, individual identity, what Eckhart calls personal being, is preserved but the outer man has been completely subsumed by the inner man, which shares the same essence as God. For most people who have experienced the divine birth, however, the outer man continues to live by his own support, albeit benefiting from the influx of grace from the personal being in many

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manifestations of sweetness, comfort, and inwardness, and that is good: but it is not the best. The just man still remains separated from the Godhead by his worldly external nature. Sanctification may not come until much later in life or after death. In other words, for the great majority of spiritual seekers, the divine birth marks not the end of the individual's journey to God, but its true beginning.

Living and Loving

What will the rest of that journey look like? Meister Eckhart's long association with the contemplative tradition has frequently obscured his advocacy of the active Christian life. Yet in his preaching, the aftermath of the divine birth is even more significant than all of the preparation that made that experience possible. Take his characterization of the soul, which in both Latin and German is a feminine word (anima; Seele). In Eckhart's hands, that seemingly random lexicological fact is transformed into an extended metaphor on the birth of Christ in the soul, which depends on the soul first becoming pure and virgin, like the Blessed Mother herself. In his freewheeling translation of Luke 10:38, he preaches Our Lord Jesus Christ went up into a citadel and was received by a virgin who was a wife. Now mark this word carefully, he stresses, it must of necessity be a virgin, the person by whom Jesus was received. (In German this last word, empfangen, can also mean "conceived," an intentional pun on Eckhart's part.) "Virgin" is as much as to say a person who is void of alien images, as empty as he was when he did not exist. The master is referring, of course, to his central teaching of letting-go-ness, whereby the individual's soul becomes "naked" and "empty," ready to receive the Word of God via the divine spark. Only a completely detached and pure soul can experience the divine birth.

The resulting union is ineffably wondrous, Eckhart agrees, but it is far from the end of the seeker's journey.

Now attend, and follow me closely. If a man were to be ever virginal, he would bear no fruit. If he is to be fruitful, he must be a wife. "Wife" is the noblest title one can bestow on the soul—far nobler than "virgin." For a man

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to receive God within him is good, and in receiving he is virgin. But for God to be fruitful in him is better, for only the fruitfulness of the gift is the thanks rendered for that gift, and herein the spirit is a wife, whose gratitude is fecundity, bearing Jesus again in God's paternal heart.

This is my commandment, Eckhart invokes John 15:12, that you love one another as I have loved you. Yet Christians should not see love as a duty or as a means to salvation: Properly considered, love is more a reward than a behest. Good works—the master again stresses—are the natural fruits of the divine birth, not its prerequisites. Of course the faithful seeker will attempt to lead a life of love before union, but it is only that direct encounter with the Godhead that makes such a life truly possible. Having experienced the depths of God's love, the transformed individual now avidly seeks opportunities to express that love.

In explaining the proper relationship between the contemplative (inner) life and the active (outer) life, Eckhart turned again to a contrast between two women, this time historical figures from the gospel of Luke (10:38–42; also John 11:1–2):

In the course of their journey [Jesus] came to a village, and a woman named Martha welcomed him into her house. She had a sister called Mary, who sat down at the Lord's feet and listened to him speaking. Now Martha, who was distracted with all the serving said, "Lord, do you not care that my sister is leaving me to do the serving all by myself? Please tell her to help me." But the Lord answered: "Martha, Martha," he said, "you worry and fret about so many things and yet few are needed, indeed only one. It is Mary who has chosen the better part; it is not to be taken from her."

To most fourteenth-century Christians, this translated into a biblical endorsement of the monastic life over the distracted life of a layperson. Eckhart himself voiced a version of this reading in his Latin commentary on the gospel of John: As long as we are not like God and still undergoing the birth by which Christ is formed in us, like Martha, we are restless and troubled by many things.

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In a later vernacular sermon, however, Eckhart dramatically reversed the traditional exegesis of the passage, claiming that Martha was in fact more deserving of our admiration and imitation. Mary, he argued, embodied the first phase of the spiritual life—young, innocent, open, full of unspeakable longing. Martha, by contrast, was mature and full of wise understanding, which knew how to do outward works perfectly as love ordains. Her words about Mary were no angry retort, Eckhart explained, but more like teasing. She saw how Mary was possessed with a longing for her soul's satisfaction. Martha knew Mary better than Mary knew Martha, for she had lived long and well, and life gives the finest understanding.

As Eckhart had advised his novices back in the Erfurt priory to do, Martha came to know herself first, before she came to know God. She knew the world and its temptations, as well as her own internal struggles. She also knew the eternal light, and the compunction to serve others, hence her annoyance with her sister who sat there a little more for her own happiness than for spiritual profit. Jesus's response to Martha's plea was not a rebuke but a reassurance that Mary would become as she desired. . . . She was filled with joy and bliss and had only just entered school, to learn to live. Martha, on the other hand, was so well grounded in her essence that her activity was no hindrance to her: work and activity she turned to her eternal profit. And this, Eckhart reveals, is why the Lord named her twice ("Martha, Martha"): He meant that every good thing, temporal and eternal, that a creature could possess was fully possessed by Martha.

For a lay audience accustomed to accepting an inferior spiritual status, Eckhart's words must have come as an unexpected but welcome validation. The cloistered life of chastity, poverty, and obedience had its place in preparing for the divine birth, but ultimately it was a life lived for others that mattered most. The divine path he preached not only didn't denigrate the active life but raised it up as the ultimate goal of all contemplation. Just people went forth and performed good works not to earn God's favor or for any other reason, but because having experienced the divine birth within their souls and attained unity with God, they could not do otherwise. This was the meaning of living without a why, a phrase Eckhart did not invent but likely picked up from Beatrice of Nazareth or Marguerite Porete. In the same way as God acts, so the just [person] acts without why; and just as life lives for its own sake and asks

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for no why for which to live, so the just [person] has no why for which to act. Following the divine birth, the seeker merely expresses the divine nature that has become his or her own: God and I are one. Through knowledge I take God into myself, through love I enter into God.

The just person—unlike the scholastic—had learned to stop questioning everything: Why life? Why God? Why me? The just person no longer thought of the world in instrumentalist terms, doing something in order to achieve or receive something. Like God, he or she acted without thinking of justification.

If someone asked [the just man]: "Why do you love God?" [he would respond]—"I don't know, for God's sake."—"Why do you love the truth?"—For truth's sake."—Why do you love righteousness?"—"For righteousness' sake."—"Why are you living?"—"Indeed, I don't know! [but] I like living."

Love itself has become an irresistible force. The just person no longer has any attachments whatsoever, but rather loves all of creation equally and indiscriminately, in conformance with his or her divine nature. You must love all men equally, respect and regard them equally, and whatever happens to another, whether good or bad, must be the same as if it happened to you. Eckhart realized that such a state of equanimity (gelîchkeit) seemed virtually impossible, but for the truly transformed individual it was completely natural. Jesus himself, Eckhart reminded his listeners, preached: "He who leaves father and mother and sister and brother, farm and fields or anything else, shall receive a hundred fold and eternal life" (Matthew 19:29; Mark 10:29-30). The transformed individual can accept a friend's death or his own eyes being plucked out without resistance or protest. Though it should entail all the pains of hell, of purgatory, and the world, the will in union with God would bear all this eternally, forever in hellish torment, and take it for its eternal bliss. One need only look to the example of the Savior Himself. When Jesus is led before Pilate, like a lamb led to the slaughter, he does not open his mouth (Isaiah 53:7), despite the governor's repeated accusations. Like the just man, the mute "King of the Jews" simply knows that he is the Son of God and feels no compunction to assert this truth.

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The person who had experienced the divine birth also came closer to experiencing the Eternal Now of God. Freed from the why of cause and consequence, the just man no longer lived between "before" and "after," between past and future. He lived in the instant, or as Eckhart calls it, in this present now. This was not an ecstatic flight from the world, as described by many Neoplatonists, but to the contrary a full immersion in the cares and suffering of the world. Since the transformed inner man was still encased in the outer man, this experience was not completely freed from the temporality of the world. But it did permit the just person to appreciate the essential shared being with fellow humans and other creatures, freed from the tyranny of time.

In some ways, the just person's state of equanimity is reminiscent of Stoic apathy—the complete eradication of all emotions from the inner self, robbing pain and misfortune of their ability to distress us. But Eckhart did not seek to eliminate a powerful emotion such as empathy so much as to universalize it. For the *just man*, love was an overwhelming and unifying force. Certainly the self-knowledge advocated by Stoics had helped prepare him for the divine birth, but it was the divine essence that now filled him that overcame all suffering. The serenity he displayed might look like that of the accomplished Stoic on the surface, but it sprang from the certainty of unity with all fellow humans, not willful separation from them. Eckhart compared the abiding guidance of the divine birth to a nearby lightning strike that we intuitively turn toward.

So it is with all in whom this birth occurs, they are promptly turned toward this birth with all they possess, be it never so earthy. In fact, what used to be a hindrance now helps you most. Your face is so fully turned toward this birth so that, no matter what you see or hear, you can get nothing but this birth from all things.

The bond between the divine essence and active love was so strong because "God is love," in the words of 1 John (4:8). God is love because he is totally lovable and total love. God is all the best that can be thought or desired by each and every person—and more so. The active Christian life that followed the divine

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birth was not the logical outcome, but rather the inevitable outcome. This was the good news of the Scriptures, Eckhart proclaimed, and in preaching a life of joyous action he was merely serving as a guide for others on how to become an authentic person.

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Reimagining Salvation

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Living without a why is undoubtedly a noble goal, but how attainable was it for the average seeker? Even more fundamentally, how understandable was Meister Eckhart's description of it for the ordinary Christian of his day? The master frequently contradicted himself on this question, suggesting that he himself remained of two minds about the accessibility of his message (occasionally reassuring listeners if you can't understand it, don't worry, because I am going to speak of such truth that few good people can understand). It's possible that certain sermons were aimed at more advanced members of his audiences, but his Dominican training would have recoiled at any hint of elitism. More typically, Eckhart made universally high demands on all his listeners, assuming adequate training in basic Christian doctrine, the ability to distinguish when the master was employing hyperbole or metaphorical language, as well as an open heart motivated by genuine and pious intentions. For such individuals, who also shared his desire for a profound experience of God, all talk of the divine birth and its aftermath remained safely within the boundaries of church orthodoxy.

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But what about the rest of his audience? Were most people able to understand the master's words, much less carry them out in their own spiritual journeys? What guidance did the master offer the less spiritually adept? This was the basis of later criticisms of Eckhart's preaching that he made little

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dedicated some of the hundreds, perhaps thousands, of sermons he delivered over the course of his long life to the usual topics of sin and repentance, aimed at the lowest common denominator in his audiences. In that respect,

accommodation to "simple and uneducated" listeners, who were prone to

misunderstand many of his ideas. It's possible, of course, that the master

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the collection of some 150 examples that survived might in fact be a



nonrepresentative sample, preserved only because of their treatment of "higher" questions such as divine union. But Eckhart's provocative discussion of such questions was in fact the basis for his popular reputation as well as his own identity as a teacher. His message may have been obscure at times but he sought to spread it as widely as possible. It was not secret knowledge in the sense of the ancient Gnostics, but his version of "the good news" preached by Jesus.

Eckhart's confidence in the spiritual capabilities of his audience also helps account for his apparent uninterest in addressing any ethical questions in his sermons. He speaks of "good works" and "love" for the most part as general concepts, only rarely describing them more specifically in terms of "dos" or "don'ts." Yet this is exactly the type of direction sought by average Christians raised to avoid sin, accumulate merit, and thus get to heaven. Perhaps Eckhart believed that the basics of Christian morality were so universally understood that he need not devote any attention to rearticulating them. And certainly those who experienced the divine birth he described did not require direction on how to love, given that they were filled with the divine essence. His calling, like that of John the Baptist, was to prepare the way of the Lord, to teach his fellow Christians how to experience God. The rest, he apparently believed, would take care of itself.

And yet Eckhart's preaching had some profound implications for Christianity as understood in his day. Unquestionably the most fundamental shift in the master's salvation scheme was his reconceptualization of good and bad deeds alike. Like his hero Augustine, Eckhart viewed evil as simply the privation, or absence, of good. As the bishop of Hippo had written against the dualist Manicheans, evil has no substance of its own, any more than does darkness (the absence of light). Eckhart concurred: Do you want to know what sin is? Turning away from felicity and virtue, that is the origin of all sin. And in so turning away from God, he preached, the sinner moved outside of the divine field of vision. God cannot know sin or evil any more than the light can know the darkness. God knows nothing outside of Himself; His eye is always turned inward into Himself. What He sees, He sees entirely within Himself. Therefore God does not see us when we are in sin. So while God makes merry and laughs at good deeds . . . all other works which are not done to God's glory are like ashes in God's sight.





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This was a shocking revelation for fourteenth-century Christians who came of age amid incessant jeremiads and ubiquitous artworks portraying an angry, vengeful God, one who seemed unambivalently obsessed with punishing the multitude of human sins committed against Him. Eckhart's God—pure being, pure love—seeks out only those parts of Himself to be found within His creation, including the divine spark in every person. He is not oblivious to human transgressions, but is the very essence of mercy: God always rewards more than he should and punishes less than he should. Stressing the magnitude of divine forgiveness, Eckhart even declares that God likes forgiving big sins more than small ones. The bigger they are, the more gladly and quickly He forgives them.

In a religious culture centered on the overcoming of sin and evil, Eckhart sounded a singularly optimistic note about the human potential for reaching God. But his approach remained essentially metaphysical rather than pastoral, focused more on the cosmic big picture than on immediate needs for moral guidance. The objective of most of his fellow Dominican preachers was to provoke in their listeners visceral pangs of overwhelming remorse for personal sins, emotions that would lead to confession, penance, and reformed lives. Eckhart the Parisian master, by contrast, spoke of evil in a more abstract manner, as a necessary part of human nature but more a mistaken detour than a vicious rejection of God. Sin, he believed, was simply a perversion of humans' natural inclination toward good: If a man slays another, he does so not in order to do evil: he thinks that as long as the other lives, he will not be at peace with himself: accordingly he will seek his desire in peace, for peace is something we love. Even original sin could not obscure the divine light that shone in every individual, regardless of character or circumstances. In every work, even in an evil, I repeat, in one evil both according to punishment and guilt, God's glory is revealed and shines forth in equal fashion. Eckhart's discussions of sin and evil all share this lofty perspective, relying on scholastic theorems rather than the concrete examples most listeners were accustomed to:

Should anyone ask what God is, this is what I should now say, that God is love, and in fact so loveable that all creatures seek to love His loveableness,





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whether they know it or not, whether they wish to or not. . . . there is no creature so worthless that it could love anything evil.

Obviously Eckhart believed in Satan and hell, but just as obviously his images of both—like his descriptions of God and heaven—were dramatically different from those of other preachers.

The question is asked, what burns in hell. The masters generally say it is self-will. But I declare in truth: nothing burns in hell . . . just because God and all those who stand before His face have on account of their true blessedness something which they who are separated from God have not, this very not torments the souls in hell more than self-will or any fire.

This unquenchable desire to be united with God for all time, Eckhart preached, was a worse punishment than any of the torments that artists or poets could dream up. (Of course he had not read his contemporary Dante's *Inferno.*) So too in life, choosing evil provided its own punishment:

Now you might say, "Bad people have a good time, they get their way more than other people." Solomon says, "The evil man should not say, 'What harm will it do me if I do evil and it does not hurt me?' or 'Who would do anything to me on that account?' The very fact that you do evil is to your great harm and causes you enough pain."... And if God were to give [the sinner] all the sorrow in the world, He could not afflict him more harshly than he is afflicted by being a sinner.

Just as sinning was its own punishment, Eckhart preached that performing good works was its own reward. This too was a jarring message for pious listeners who aspired to attain the rewards and avoid the punishments of the afterlife. In some ways, the master's attitude toward good works presaged that of Martin Luther two centuries later. Both believed, for instance, that conventional acts of piety could only indirectly affect the soul's progress toward true union with God. In Eckhart's view, acts of asceticism and detachment might assist in the self-emptying required to make way for the

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divine birth. For Luther, the seeker's frustrated attempts to achieve salvation by practicing such works might reveal the radically corrupt nature of all humans and the absolute necessity of divine help. Similarly, both men believed that the subsequent transformative moment—what Eckhart calls the divine birth and Luther refers to as justification by faith—was made possible only by divine grace, by God coming to the seeker. Finally, both Luther and Eckhart saw the good works that follow that moment as the natural outpouring of the soul's transformation. But while Luther characterized the resulting pious life as a form of gratitude (and quickly became wary of talk about "becoming God"), Eckhart insisted that the truly pious life lacks any cause, any "why"—even gratitude—and instead flows forth as the inevitable product of God's divine nature now dwelling within the soul. All good works, he seems to say, belong to God, since it is the divinity within that makes them possible, transforming the individual seeker into an active vehicle for God's love.

Again, Meister Eckhart does not provide his listeners with much guidance on what genuinely good works based only on divine love might look like. He does, however, explicitly discourage many so-called good works intended to help the seeker accumulate merit, namely fasts, vigils, prayers, and the rest. If such officially ordained activities aid in letting-go-ness, then they might be valuable, but Eckhart rejects all popular notions of "achieving" salvation through external acts of piety. Pilgrimages to venerate shrines and their sacred relics presumably fell into this ambivalent category, as the master at one point asks, People what is it you are seeking in dead bones?, If visiting a shrine helped a seeker get in the right state, then it was acceptable; otherwise it risked being idolatrous.

This was Eckhart's general rule: any external act that prepared the way for the divine birth was good; any act that sought something other than God was bad. Thus the master praised Holy Communion, God's entering into human beings through the sacrament of the altar, as a prefiguring of the divine birth and castigated those unworthy [and] unbelieving people who do not believe that this bread on the altar can be transformed, that it can become the gracious body of our Lord and that God can bring this about. Eucharistic devotions

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were becoming increasingly prominent in the fourteenth century, and in this sense Eckhart was perfectly in tune with his times.

Eckhart's position on that other staple of medieval piety, petitionary prayer, was a different matter entirely. Nearly all of Eckhart's contemporaries believed in the efficacy of petitionary prayer, prayer that asks God for something—to heal a sick loved one or safeguard crops or strengthen the petitioner's faith. And nearly all those who uttered such prayers believed that enlisting the help of a heavenly intermediary—be it an esteemed saint, the Blessed Virgin, or Christ Himself—increased the likelihood that God would hear and grant their requests. Eckhart, by contrast, saw no need for intermediaries but held that the divine spark within each human, eager to be reunited with its Creator, put every soul in direct contact with God. This divine union, moreover, was the only acceptable objective of any prayer; all others were not only petty and selfish but ultimately pointless, since everything that happens is part of God's plan.

On the Edge of Orthodoxy

The Christianity of fourteenth-century Europe was built on fostering a clear understanding of what constituted sins and what constituted good works. Meister Eckhart sincerely believed his preaching to be orthodox, yet his apparent disregard for external acts of piety understandably confused, frustrated, and even angered some listeners. If preparing for the divine birth was the only legitimate work of a devout seeker, then many conventional forms of devotion—such as going to mass or practicing various penitential acts—seemingly became pointless or even dangerous, as they might contribute to a false sense of spiritual progress. More troubling still, the rewards Eckhart promised were far greater than those proclaimed by most preachers. Not only heaven, the master seemed to imply, but divinity itself lay within the grasp of any genuine believer, no matter how lowly or simple. It's inconceivable that a man of Eckhart's intelligence and experience could not have expected significant resistance, from laypeople and clerics alike.





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And indeed, his apparent rejection of petitionary prayer and aversion to many external acts of devotion would eventually cause Eckhart difficulties. Far more controversial, though, were his teachings about "becoming God." In large part, as usual, these problems were of his own making. To the trained theologian, it was obvious that all beings were at their core divine, since most scholars agreed with him that God was equivalent not only to love but to existence itself. As he attempted to explain to a no doubt flummoxed, non-scholarly audience, God knows nothing but being, He is conscious of nothing but being: being is His circumference. God loves nothing but His being. He thinks of nothing but His being. This was merely a circumlocutory way of saying that all existence was from God and thus all creatures shared in His divinity, a not unorthodox view. Yet the master could not refrain from incautiously adding, I say all creatures are one being—a statement that, when he was later confronted with accusations of pantheism, Eckhart admitted sounds bad and is wrong in this sense.

Still, he argued, both being and love—aka God—were undeniably universal, shared by all creatures. Feeling I have in common with beasts and life even with trees. Being is still more innate in me, and that I share with all creatures. . . . Love is noble because it is universal. This is what Eckhart means when he says that whatever is in God, is God, even animals and stones. All things have the same origin, what he calls the same primal outflowing (MHG ursprunc; Latin ebullitio): God gives to all things equally, and as they flow forth from God they are equal: angels, men, and all creatures proceed alike from God in their first emanation. . . . Now all things are equal in God and are God Himself.

Again, Eckhart's position is not pantheist (all things are God), but panentheist (God is in all things)—not necessarily a heretical view. And seeing that God transforms such base things into Himself, he asks, what do you think he does with the soul, which He has dignified with His own image? For while all creatures share in existence through God, only humans (and angels) have the capacity to share in God's essence through thought. This transformation was the very fulfillment of human existence. Why did God become man?, he asks rhetorically, answering: That I might be born God Himself. The incarnation was the greatest good God ever did for man, allowing humans to know God's being and love directly and thereby become God: St. Augustine says, what a man loves,

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that he becomes in love. Should we now say that if a man loves God he becomes God? That sounds as if it were contrary to faith . . . but so it is true in the eternal truth, and our Lord Jesus Christ possesses it.

Eckhart insisted that these and his other statements on God as being stayed well within the limits of orthodoxy, even if they weren't always comprehensible to average listeners. He could not make the same claim, however, for his teachings on the ground or the Godhead. This novel doctrine went beyond the bounds of Catholic doctrine and into the realm of controversy, possibly even heresy. The ground, as Eckhart conceived of it, was beyond even God. It was the primordial place of origin, the state of ultimate nonexistence, from which God—and by extension all human souls—sprang into being. The divine birth, for all its importance, was merely a preliminary step toward the soul's ultimate goal: to return to the Godhead or ground, a process Eckhart called breaking through.

In fact I will say still more, which sounds even stranger: I declare in all truth, by the eternal and everlasting truth, that [the divine spark] is not content with the simple changeless divine being which neither gives nor takes: rather it seeks to know whence this being comes, it wants to get into its simple ground, into the silent desert into which no distinction ever peeped, of Father, Son, or Holy Ghost . . . for this ground is an impartible stillness, motionless in itself.

In this sense, both soul and Creator share the same ultimate purpose—to return to their origin in the Godhead, to unbecome. They meet and unite in that strange and desert place [which] is rather nameless than possessed of a name, and is more unknown than it is known. This is the mysterious and secret ground of existence, deep within the nature of both God and the human soul.

In Neoplatonic terms, the ground was the place of origin to which the enlightened soul must inevitably return, the hidden darkness of the eternal Godhead. It is this belief in a common origin and point of destination—the ground—that leads Eckhart to make some of his most startling assertions. A great master says that his breaking-through is nobler than his emanation (or creation) and this is true, the master confirmed from his own experience. As a



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33S 34N creature, Eckhart preached, even after experiencing the divine birth, he could merely declare "there is a God,"

... but in my breaking-through, where I stand free of my own will, of God's will, of all His works, and of God himself, then I am above all creatures and am neither God nor creature, but am that which I was and shall remain for evermore. . . . Then I am what I was, then I neither wax nor wane, for then I am an unmoved cause that moves all things.

These were bold—and to some listeners potentially heretical—words. At the moment of *break-through*, both the individual soul and its Creator are stripped naked of all their distinctions and properties, down to the ground of being they share. The soul is *transported* (literally "translated") *into the naked being of God*. Notions of "self" and "God" seem to melt away as God Himself is *uncreated*. To aim for total self-annihilation, in the manner of Plato's *henosis*, was indisputably heretical in the eyes of the Church. Eckhart studiously avoided talking about the process of *breaking-through* in such terms, but his *un-creation* of both soul and God treads perilously close. Even more daringly, Eckhart also seems to imply that man himself is the origin of God:

In my birth all things were born, and I was the cause of myself and all things: and if I had so willed it, I would not have been, and all things would not have been. If I were not, God would not be either. I am the cause of God's being God: if I were not, then God would not be God.

This is as far as the master will go in this seemingly heterodox direction. Aware that his words might be so construed, he quickly adds but you do not need to know this, and he concludes the same sermon with a reassurance: If anyone cannot understand this sermon, he need not worry. For so long as a man is not equal to this truth, he cannot understand my words. Yet Eckhart himself clearly believed this naked truth which has come direct from the heart of God. The concept of the ground or the Godhead—with its apparently heretical implications—lay at the heart of all his other teachings. And it was here, beneath the surface of his supposedly traditional theology, that subsequent

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inquisitors would rightly detect a direct challenge to several fundamental Catholic teachings. Eckhart would have denied this, of course, but the radicalism of his approach to spirituality went far beyond occasional references to the ground. If the path to divine union was essentially a private, internal one, what need was there for religion itself? Again, if the master considered such a dangerous query, he never expressed it explicitly. But some of his listeners clearly did. Formulating a credible answer to this legitimate question would dominate what remained of Meister Eckhart's life as well as his legacy to this day.

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In whatever way you find God most, and you are most often aware of Him, that is the way you should follow. But if another way presents itself, quite contrary to the first, and if, having abandoned the first way, you find God as much in the new way as in the one that you have left, then that is right. But the noblest and best thing would be this, if a man were come to such equality, with such calm and certainty that he could find God and enjoy Him in any way and in all things, without having to wait for anything or chase after anything: that would delight me! For this, and to this end all works are done, and every work helps toward this. If anything does not help toward this, you should let it go.

THE MASTER'S LAST WORDS

basic assumptions about his impact. Was he, for instance, ever really that dangerous? Remember that in his own day, Eckhart's number of listeners, let alone avid followers, remained small, perhaps a few thousand at most. While many Christians shared his goal of a more spiritually authentic life, only those relative few who regularly heard him preach in the churches of the Rhineland could have fathomed his "highly subtle" philosophy and attempted to put it into practice. Because Eckhart lived more than a century before the advent of the printing press, copies of the master's sermons and writings—all painstakingly written by hand—appear to have circulated only among a small number of admirers in monasteries and convents. He repeatedly rejected radical interpretations of "spiritual liberty" and was

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33S 34N never once accused of openly challenging the clerical hierarchy of the church or denigrating its sacraments. When, toward the end of his life, Eckhart became caught up in the beguine and Free Spirit maelstrom, he was never considered a heretical leader or abettor. Rather, he fell victim to a convergence of toxic circumstances, where the desperate accusations of two renegade friars caught the interest of a zealous archbishop, who happened to enjoy the backing of his political ally, the pope. Even after Meister Eckhart's death and the papal condemnation of the twenty-eight articles, the Friends of God and other disciples continued their discussions of his teachings without threat of persecution. The only genuine danger Meister Eckhart seemed to pose during his time was to his own reputation—which eventually recovered in the modern era.

In some ways, given our advanced means of communication, he poses a greater threat today. Many twenty-first-century people would consider any "mystic" dangerous, or at least seriously misguided. As William James already observed a century ago, "the words 'mysticism' and 'mystical' are often used as terms of mere reproach, to throw at any opinion which we regard as vague and vast and sentimental and without a base in either facts or logic." One of the reasons Kurt Flasch and other modern philosophers have waged a sustained campaign to "de-mysticize" Meister Eckhart is that they worry no one other than "spiritual fringe groups" will take him seriously unless this modern stigma is removed. Or—worse yet—that the master will be appropriated by such groups and his words used to support their dubious agendas. In the rationalist paradigm that currently dominates Western thought, there is no reality beyond that which can be measured "objectively." In the eyes of many contemporary educated people, bestowing credibility on a so-called medieval mystic would be a dangerous intellectual step backward.

Yet despite modern suspicion of "mysticism" (a term Eckhart himself never used), the great majority of the world's population recognizes the essential ambiguity and uncertainty—the mystery—of human existence. Whether religiously oriented or not, many people remain open to the possibility that some combination of reason and intuition might provide direct access to "something more" than what we can experience with our five senses, imagine with our limited reason, and describe with our language.

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This is the possibility that Meister Eckhart speaks to in his teachings. This is one of the reasons he has become so popular in the modern era, where totalizing ideologies of all stripes have become increasingly suspect.

There are other reasons as well, most of them not that different from the reasons Eckhart's contemporaries found him compelling. He presents the way to spiritual fulfillment as a common journey accessible by many paths. He offers a direct, unmediated experience with the oneness of existence, accessible to anyone with sincere intentions. His profoundly egalitarian approach does not privilege anyone by outward religious or social status and does not require any special powers. Above all, Meister Eckhart's path to the God within, as we have seen, is compatible with virtually every major religious tradition and many secular philosophies as well.

This nearly universal religious compatibility, however, potentially makes Eckhart dangerous in another way, particularly to members of certain Christian faith communities. If, as Eckhart seems to suggest, this personal transformation is all that really matters in life and it can be pursued individually, what is the need for the doctrines, rituals, and communal experiences of a particular religion or denomination? Especially for some members of evangelical churches, the universalist (and panentheist) nature of the master's preaching—his apparent embrace of "religionless spirituality"—can work against him. So-called hard exclusivists vehemently resist the inroads of "soft" perennialism and religious pluralism embodied in the New Age enthusiasm for many of Eckhart's controversial statements. In these believers' eyes, there is no further interpretation required for the salvation specifically preached by Jesus and the apostles in the Bible.

Other more ecumenically minded Christians welcome the teachings of Eckhart. Franciscan Richard Rohr, for example, believes that his own wisdom tradition (in this case Roman Catholicism) is deep and strong enough to withstand the doctrinal challenges of Eckhart's approach. Some admirers, such as the former Dominican Matthew Fox, go still further, veering into perennialist territory while supposedly staying anchored in a religious tradition. In Fox's Creation Spirituality, Eckhart is a "Mystic-Warrior" who "touches the depths of Western culture's wisdom, which connects to the depths of Eastern wisdom."





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33S 34N Of course Meister Eckhart encountered the same range of reactions among the Christians of his own day, from those who thought him an abettor of the Free Spirit heresy to those who accepted his own repeated assertion that everything he preached was entirely compatible with Catholic doctrine. Whatever Eckhart's Christian orthodoxy, it would be a profound mistake to treat him as a feel-good, "different strokes for different folks," modern relativist. There is real intellectual and spiritual substance at the heart of his teachings, not just a message of "do as you will."

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I began and completed this journey with Eckhart as a historian, intrigued by the evolution of his thought as well as by his teachings' impact on both his world and ours. Over the course of our time together, I have come to have a profound admiration of Meister Eckhart's persistent striving not just for knowledge but for useful understanding. In that spirit, I offer three particularly valuable insights that I believe the master provides to all seekers of wisdom and meaning in our own frequently loveless and chaotic world.

First, Eckhart argues that every quest for greater understanding of existence must begin in humility, an acceptance of our own extremely limited knowledge and intellectual powers in the face of an infinite universe. In his own life, he ultimately rejected his fellow scholastics' attempts to capture God with rational formulations and language. Even when he himself stripped away images and mental constructs of "God" down to "being itself," Eckhart realized that his words still distorted the truth. Profound humility regarding the intellect's limitations did not come easily to the gifted scholar but it has been a hallmark of all great thinkers from Socrates and the Buddha on. He would have agreed with the great Enlightenment figure John Locke, who openly acknowledged "what a darkness we are involved in, how little it is of Being and the things that are, that we are capable to know." We must, Locke concludes, "sometime be content to be very ignorant." For Eckhart this meant resisting the worldly tendency to equate intellectual humility with weakness, and certainty with strength.

Second, Meister Eckhart offers a sophisticated defense of intuition,

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providing a useful complement to our inadequate rational understanding. As the author Marilynne Robinson has pointed out, "We know only what we know in the ways that we know it or can know it. It is only reasonable to assume that the physical world is accessible to other modes of perception than we are capable of." Eckhart believed, on the basis of his own experience, that in fact humans possess another way of knowing God or reality, an internal recognition, which church tradition calls mystical but might just as aptly be called intuitive. The *divine spark* within each person, the master teaches, is what links us to one another and to all creation, and intuitive awareness of that unity is accessible to anyone through his contemplative process of *letting-go* of all desires and images. Whereas science relies on representing the multiplicity of things in language, intuition allows a person to "know" the unity of things through direct experience.

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EPILOGUE

In that respect, Meister Eckhart presents a holistic vision of existence—not a skewed (and unsustainable) division of phenomena into "natural" and "supernatural." It's all natural, he teaches, just not all understandable in the same way or to the same degree. At the university, Eckhart attempted to construct a philosophical bridge between the transcendent Plato and the empiricist Aristotle, but he found few takers. Obviously today's self-described new atheists and other radical materialists would also reject his model of the universe, yet for many modern people Eckhart's approach to the vast unknown is at least plausible. At the very least, it offers an alternative perspective to many religious people who remain captive to the Enlightenment's natural/supernatural dichotomy, in which God and spirituality have been assigned to an ever-shrinking role in our understanding of existence.

Eckhart's combination of rational and intuitive ways of knowing God or reality is not a unique approach, although few have portrayed the resulting "divine birth" in such evocative terms. In fact, if we remove the label "mysticism," many of the modern world's greatest philosophers and scientists have embraced it. Immanuel Kant argued that "thoughts without intuition are empty; intuitions without concepts are blind." In pondering the universe, Albert Einstein urged young researchers to resist the "god of intellect" for "intuition and feeling," arguing that "there is no true science which does not emanate from the mysterious." Some contemporary brain scientists





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have even identified "two fundamentally opposed realities, two different modes of experience" residing respectively in the brain's two hemispheres. While conceding that some "rationalist" and "intuitive" processes occur in both halves, psychiatrist Iain McGilchrist argues that the left hemisphere "tends to deal more with pieces of information in isolation, and the right hemisphere with the entity as a whole, the so-called *Gestalt*." McGilchrist in fact attributes Western culture's prevailing materialism to a historical imbalance of left brain dominance over the right brain—the primary source of wonder, interconnectedness, and compassion.

Eckhart's third valuable insight for current spiritual seekers of all varieties involves the consequences of what he calls human divinization. In essence, Eckhart cracked the active/contemplative conundrum of Christianity for laypeople long before Protestant or other modern attempts. Going deep within oneself and reaching out to the world in service were two sides of the same coin for him, not an either/or choice. Without a profound appreciation of what he called the divine unity of existence, good works easily lend themselves to a transactional, commercial way of thinking about salvation. Without participation in the world, the supposedly enlightened person risks slipping into solipsistic selfishness—a state Eckhart compares to a tree that never bears fruit. The just person who has truly experienced the divine birth, the direct intuitive encounter with the unity of existence, does not withdraw from society, free from any obligation toward other human beings. Instead, experiencing God means becoming one with God and thus acting as God does—by which Eckhart means living an active life of love and service without a why, or any thought of justification or compensation. Acts of personal kindness or contributions to social justice are not means to spiritual enlightenment or salvation but natural effects of the inward experience preached by Meister Eckhart (and many other religious figures). Again, the master describes a holistic approach to the good life, where the perceived divisions between the self and the world, between the individual person and others, dissolve.

This is an important distinction for non-Christian or nonreligious admirers of the master who wish to follow his model of contemplation and personal enlightenment for purposes of self-fulfillment. New Age adherents

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and other perennialists in particular who desire to learn from Eckhart must acknowledge his grounding in basic Christian principles of neighborly love and mutual obligation. He does not preach a quietist message of self-improvement and escapism, but one of joyful immersion in the needs and suffering of other people, all of whom are created in the image of God (*imago dei*). In this respect, the doctrinal traditions and congregational nature of organized religion offer a useful counterbalance to the potentially individualistic nature of *the divine birth*.

Neglecting such core aspects of Eckhart's message would indeed constitute the act of "hermeneutical violence" that philosopher Kurt Flasch condemns in his screed about the master's appropriation by "the mysticism industry." But Flasch is wrong when he criticizes all attempts by contemporaries—religious or not—to make Eckhart "useful" in their own pursuit of God. The master himself did not live in a religiously pluralistic society in the modern sense, but he was no stranger to spiritual diversity. Just as his own definition of "catholic" wisdom included many non-Christian sources, his approach to divine union consistently recognized individual differences in spiritual experience.

Meister Eckhart's wayless way deliberately remained general and nonprescriptive, allowing for countless subjective variations. It would be ahistorical and presumptuous to predict his opinion of either religious exclusivism or perennialism. But based on his long life of service, we can conclude with conviction that nothing would have pleased the master more than to be considered still useful in his fellow seekers' journey to the God within.









Mcknowledgments

I came to this project as an interloper from the sixteenth century, the period of European history most familiar to me. It would have been impossible to even conceive of this book without the pioneering work of the last two generations of Eckhart scholars. This debt is acknowledged in the endnotes, but I would like to underscore the pivotal contributions of several individuals, particularly Caroline Walker Bynum, Oliver Davies, Kurt Flasch, Alois Haas, Jeremiah Hackett, Niklaus Largier, Alain de Libera, Dietmar Mieth, Kurt Ruh, Reiner Schürmann, Walter Senner, Loris Sturlese, Frank Tobin, Winfried Trusen, and Richard Wood. As I mentioned in the prologue, I also benefited from the meticulously produced editions of Eckhart's German and Latin works, as well as the English translation of most of Eckhart's German sermons by the late Maurice O'C. Walshe. I'm very grateful to Crossroad Publishing and its editor, Chris Myers, for permission to make such extensive use of quotations from this last work. Finally, the acclaimed Eckhart scholar whose work has most guided my own presentation, Bernard Mc-Ginn, graciously agreed to read my penultimate draft, making several invaluable suggestions and saving me from many embarrassing errors. I take full responsibility for any remaining misrepresentations and remain deeply indebted to Professor McGinn for his generosity of spirit on a subject he knows so thoroughly. My sincere hope all along has been that the advantages I bring as an outsider to the topic have outweighed the inevitable shortcomings.

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Recommended Reading

Writings by Eckhart

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For those readers willing and able to consult the original versions of Eckhart's writings, there are two meticulously edited collections of primary sources that have been published since 1936. All widely accepted Latin works are contained in Meister Eckhart, Die lateinischen Werke, ed. Ernst Benz et al., vols. I-V (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 1936-2007). All authenticated writings in Middle High German have been assembled in Meister Eckhart, Die deutschen Werke, ed. Josef Quint and Georg Steer, vols. I-V (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 1936-2007). There are many translated selections of the Latin and German writings available in English. The most complete and accessible English collection of Eckhart's German sermons and other vernacular writings is The Complete Mystical Works of Meister Eckhart, trans. Maurice O'C. Walshe (New York: Crossroad, 2009). Eckhart's commentaries on Genesis and John, as well as documents from the investigation of his orthodoxy, are excerpted in Meister Eckhart: The Essential Sermons, Commentaries, Treatises, and Defense, trans. and ed. Edmund Colledge and Bernard McGinn (New York: Paulist Press, 1981). Excerpts from various Latin commentaries and sermons are found in Meister Eckhart: Teacher and Preacher, ed. Bernard McGinn (New York: Paulist Press, 1986). Surviving samples of Meister Eckhart's disputations are presented in Parisian Questions and Prologues, trans. Armand A. Maurer (Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 1974).

Books About Eckhart

The bibliography on Eckhart is vast, and grows significantly every year. The most up-to-date and comprehensive scholarly overview on Eckhart is A

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Companion to Meister Eckhart, ed. Jeremiah M. Hackett (Leiden: Brill, 2013). My favorite biographical approach to Eckhart, albeit with some lapses, is Kurt Ruh, Meister Eckhart: Fheologie Prediger Mystiker (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1989), unfortunately not yet available in English translation. Oliver Davies, Meister Eckhart: Mystical Theologian (London: SPCK, 1991) provides less social and cultural context but is quite good on Eckhart's influences and main teachings. The recently translated Kurt Flasch, Meister Eckhart: Philosopher of Christianity, trans. Anne Schindel and Aaron Vanides (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2015), has much interesting material, although Flasch's long-standing attempts to "de-mysticize" Eckhart can be distracting. For a broader view of Eckhart within the religious thinking of his own time, there is no better guide than Bernard McGinn, The Harvest of Mysticism in Medieval Germany, vol. IV of The Presence of God: A History of Christian Mysticism (New York: Crossroad, 2005). The German Meister-Eckhart-Gesellschaft maintains an annually updated bibliography of works published about Eckhart at www.meister-eckhart-gesellschaft.de/bibliogra phie.htm. Readers may also wish to view the recommended reading at the Eckhart Society based in England: www.eckhartsociety.org/resources /resources.

Books About Eckhart's Times

There are many surveys of medieval Europe available. One outstanding recent work is Chris Wickham, Medieval Europe (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2016). Other commendable overviews include: Johannes Fried, The Middle Ages, trans. Peter Lewis (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 2015); Barbara Rosenwein, A Short History of the Middle Ages, 3rd ed. (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2009); and Robert Bartlett, The Making of Europe: Conquest, Colonization and Cultural Change, 950–1350, reprint ed. (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1994). For a reliable overview of Eckhart's Germany, see F. R. H. Du Boulay, Germany in the Later Middle Ages (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1983). A richer (and longer) account of the German nobility is found in Joachim Bumke, Courtly Culture: Literature and Society in the High Middle Ages, trans. Thomas Dunlap



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(Berkeley: University of California Press, 1991). The most engaging account of everyday life in Eckhart's day, albeit in England, is Ian Mortimer, *The Time Traveler's Guide to Medieval England: A Handbook for Visitors to the Fourteenth Century* (New York: Touchstone, 2011).

My favorite introduction to late medieval Christianity is R. N. Swanson, Religion and Devotion in Europe, c. 1215-c. 1515 (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1995). I also like the classic Francis Oakley, The Western Church in the Later Middle Ages (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1979), as well as the recent Kevin Madigan, Medieval Christianity: A New History (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2015). There is no more comprehensive or enjoyable survey of medieval saints than Robert Bartlett, Why Can the Dead Do Such Great Things?: Saints and Worshippers from the Martyrs to the Reformation (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2013). Two scholarly works are essential for a reader interested in the first century of Dominican life: William A. Hinnebusch, The History of the Dominican Order, 2 vols. (Staten Island, NY: Alba House, 1966 and 1973), and M. Michèle Mulchahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study": Dominican Education Before 1350 (Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 1998). For a broad introduction to religious dissent, see Malcolm D. Lambert, Medieval Heresy: Popular Movements from the Gregorian Reform to the Reformation, 2nd ed. (Cambridge, MA: B. Blackwell, 1992). For a stimulating and more polemical take on the background of the attempts to enforce orthodoxy, see R. I. Moore, The Formation of a Persecuting Society: Authority and Deviance in Western Europe 950-1250, 2nd ed. (London: Wiley & Blackwell, 2007). Edwin Mullins, The Popes of Avignon: A Century in Exile (New York: Blue Bridge, 2007) offers a highly readable, non-scholarly approach to the subject, while Geoffrey Barraclough, The Medieval Papacy (New York: Norton, 1968) provides an older, but still insightful overview of the institution itself during this crucial period.

A good, brief introduction to scholastic culture is Jacques Verger, Men of Learning in Europe at the End of the Middle Ages, trans. Lisa Neal and Steven Rendall (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame, 1997). I have benefited greatly from the careful and clear overview of Richard Cross, The Medieval Christian Philosophers: An Introduction (London: I. B. Tauris, 2014). For a broader survey, see also The Cambridge History of Later Medieval Philosophy:

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RECOMMENDED READING

1100–1600, ed. Norman Kretzmann et al. (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1982; reprint 1988).

The best overview of thirteenth- and fourteenth-century female mysticism is Bernard McGinn, The Flowering of Mysticism: Men and Women in the New Mysticism—1200–1350, vol. III of The Presence of God: A History of Western Christian Mysticism (New York: Crossroad, 1998). The pioneering work in this area is Herbert Grundmann, Religious Movements in the Middle Ages, trans. Steven Rowan (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1995). The scholarship of Caroline Walker Bynum on late medieval religious women has been path breaking; see especially Jesus as Mother: Studies in the Spirituality of the High Middle Ages (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1984) and Holy Feast and Holy Fast: The Religious Significance of Food to Medieval Women (Berkeley: University of California, 1987). Readers interested in late medieval women mystics will wish to consult Amy M. Hollywood, The Soul as Virgin Wife: Mechthild of Magdeburg, Marguerite Porete, and Meister Eckhart (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 2000), as well as her more recent collection of essays on the subject, Acute Melancholia and Other Essays: Mysticism, History, and the Study of Religion (Gender, Theory, and Religion) (New York: Columbia University Press, 2016). For the key primary sources discussed, see Mechthild of Magdeburg: The Flowing Light of the Godhead, trans. Frank Tobin (Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press, 1997); Marguerite Porete: The Mirror of Simple Souls, trans. Ellen Babinsky (Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press, 1993). A broader sampling can be found in Medieval Writings on Female Spirituality, ed. Elizabeth Spearing (New York: Penguin, 2002).

Paulist Press has published very fluid translations of important works by Heinrich Suso (1989) and Johannes Tauler (1985). For a broader historical range of selections, see the impressive collection *The Essential Writings of Christian Mysticism*, ed. Bernard McGinn (New York: Modern Library, 2006), as well as William Franke's scholarly anthology, *On What Cannot Be Said: Apophatic Discourses in Philosophy, Religion, Literature, and the Arts*, 2 vols. (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 2007).

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	Notes	02
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	ABBREVIATIONS	08
w	: Meister Eckhart, Die deutschen Werke, ed. J. Quint and G. Steer, vols. I-V (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer,	
1	936–2007).	09
ESS e	ENTIAL ME: Meister Eckhart: The Essential Sermons, Commentaries, Treatises, and Defense, trans. and d. Edmund Colledge and Bernard McGinn (New York: Paulist Press, 1981).	10
IA(CKETT: A Companion to Meister Eckhart, ed. Jeremiah M. Hackett (Leiden: Brill, 2013).	11
	RVEST: Bernard McGinn, The Harvest of Mysticism in Medieval Germany, vol. IV of The Presence of God: A History of Christian Mysticism (New York: Herder & Herder, 2005).	12
.W:	Meister Eckhart, Die lateinischen Werke, ed. E. Benz et al., vols. I-V (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 1936-2007).	13
	: Meister Eckhart Predigt (German Sermon), based on enumeration of DW.	14
Г& I	P: Meister Eckhart: Teacher and Preacher, ed. Bernard McGinn (New York: Paulist Press, 1986).	15
vv	The Complete Mystical Works of Meister Eckhart, trans. Maurice O'C. Walshe (New York: Crossroad, 2009).	
	EDICO A DIA	16
000	EPIGRAPH	17
UUU	There are those who seek: Sermones in Cantica XXXVI, in Jacques Paul Migne, Patrologia Latina (1841–55), 183, col. 968–69.	18
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	PROLOGUE	20
000	g	21
	cathedral during his ten years in Strasbourg, there is no record of the event. The sermon in question (Pr 101) dates from this period.	22
000	The biblical text that served: As was his wont, Eckhart takes some liberties with the verse, translating it as "When all things lay in the midst of silence, then there descended down into me from	23
	on high, from the royal throne, a secret word." (Interpolations italicized).	24
	The more completely you are able: Pr 101 (W 33). The Son of the heavenly Father: Pr 101 (W 36–37).	
	"In essence," writes Tolle: Eckhart Tolle, The Power of Now: A Guide to Spiritual Enlightenment	25
000	(Novato, CA: Namaste, 1999), 9. Many modern Christian authors: https://cac.org/meister-eckhart-part-i-2015-07-15.	26
000	He saw himself first as: On the question of Eckhart as a mystic, see the summary in Karl Albert,	27
	"Epilogue: Meister EckhartBetween Mysticism and Philosophy," in <i>Hackett</i> , 599–790. Kurt Flasch has been the most outspoken and persistent advocate of dropping the mystical designation of Eckhart	28
000	altogether and just calling him a philosopher. See Recommended Reading, 000. 🗦 🔭	29
000	Before we attempt to adapt: I fully agree with Bernard McGinn on the importance, as well as difficulty, in fully historicizing Eckhart's teachings. See especially <i>The Mystical Thought of ME</i> (New	30
000	York: Crossroad, 2001), 20-34.	31
	"The eye with which": Pr 12 (W 298). To answer that question: I adopt this phrase from Markus J. Borg, Meeting Jesus Again for the First Time:	
	The Historical Jesus and the Heart of Contemporary Faith (New York: HarperCollins, 1994).	32
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01 02 CHAPTER 1: THE NOBLE HEART 000 Some people are half raised up: Pr 25 (W 200). 03 "There is nothing on this earth": Thomas Aquinas, On Charity, trans. Lottie H. Kendzierski 04 (Milwaukee: Marquette University Press, 1960), art. 4. Kyrgatoria 000 As Eckhart's exact contemporary: Dante Alighieri, The Divine Comedy, Paradise, Canto 33, edition 05 Knight Wirnt von Grafenberg: Joachim Bumke, Courtly Culture: Literature and Society in the High Middle Ages, trans. Thomas Dunlap (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1991), 15. 06 "Formerly, the world was so beautiful": Johannes Fried, The Middle Ages, trans. Peter Lewis 07 (Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press, 2015), 242. Just within his own century: Alfred Haverkamp, Medieval Germany, 1056-1273 (Oxford, UK: Oxford 08 University Press, 1992), 29, 296; Joachim Leuschner, Germany in the Late Middle Ages (North-Holland Publishing, 1980), 3; Thomas A. Brady, Jr., German Histories in the Age of Reformations, 1400-1650 09 (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2009), 21. 000 Cologne, where Eckhart would end: Leuschner, Germany, 5; Lester K. Little, Religious Poverty and the 10 Profit Economy in Medieval Europe (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1978), 23. 11 "We are in desperate need": Fried, Middle Ages, 237. 000 In some German lands, feudal dues: Peter Spufford, Money and Its Use in Medieval Europe (Cambridge, 12 UK: Cambridge University Press, 1989), 242. "All over the world": The Book of Good Love, cited in Norman Cantor, ed., Medieval Reader (New York: 13 Harper Collins, 1995), 269. 000 The first written mention: Erika Albrecht, "Zur Herkunft Meister Eckharts," in Amsblatt der 14 evangelisch-lutherischen Kirche Thüringen, no. 31 (1978), 28-34. The most up-to-date and succinct summary of Eckhart's biographical information is Walter Senner, "Meister Eckhart's Life, Training, 15 del Career, and Trial," in A Gompanian to Meister Eckhurt, od Hackett, 7-81. For a range of theories on 16 -512 Eckhart's origins, see 8-10. 000 By this time, there were perhaps: F. R. H. DuBoulay, Germany in the Later Middle Ages (Athlone Press, 17 1988), 65-69. 000 By law it could not: Bumke, Courtly Culture, 107ff, 18 000 Some of the new nobles: Ibid., 33-35. Around 1260, the knight's wife: The latest possible birth year is 1262. Sermon of August 28, 1303 19 (LW V:158) refers to hometown as Hochheim. Walter Senner, "Meister Eckhart's Life," in Hackett, 9. 20 Five years later, another document: Johann Georg August Galletti, Geschichte und Beschreibung des Herzogthums Gotha (Gotha, 1780), III:263ff.; Albrecht, "Zur Herkunft," 30. 21 Why do I love my father: Pr 74 (W 376). 000 His bodily father, in other words: Pr 6 (W 331); Pr 28 (W 131). 22 When the knight Eckehard hosted: Bumke, Courtly Culture, 222ff. By the thirteenth century, the German: Brady, German Histories, 16. 23 000 In Eckhart's own Thuringia: Steffen Raßloff, Geschichte Thüringens (Munich: 2010), 27. 000 24 000 Most of the material troubadours performed: Olive Sayce, The Medieval German Lyric, 1150-1300: The Development of Its Themes and Forms in Their European Context (Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press, 1978), 265. 25 "To love wisely": Albrecht Classen, "Courtly Love Lyric," in Gentry, Companion, 118; Bumke, Courtly Culture, 101. 26 000 Many "dawn songs": Sayce, The Medieval German Lyric, 12ff. 27 Eckhart's contemporary, poet Hugo von Trimberg,: Bumke, Courtly Culture, 513-14; Witte Jackson, "Arthurian Material and German Society in the Middle Ages," in W. H. Jackson and Silvia Ranawake, 28 The Arthur of the Germans: The Arthurian Legend in Medieval German and Dutch Literature (University of Wales Press, 2000), 281-84. 29 "The way I see it": Burnke, Courtly Culture, 321. The order had established: https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deutschordensballei_Th%C3%BCringen, 30 000 Knowledge, he preaches: Pr 3 (W 165-66). 31 000 Most strikingly, the adult Dominican friar: On noble language, see Hermann Kunisch, "Offenbarung und Gehorsam: Versuch über Eckharts Religiöse Persönlichkeit," in *ME der Predige*r, 32 Festschrift zum Eckhart-Gedenkjahr, ed. Udo Maria Nix, Raphaël Louis Öchslin (Herder, 1960), 122–40.

Individual human beings: Pr 25 (W 93).

I extol detachment above: On Detachment (W 566-67).

must leave the crowd: Pr 4 (W 55).

translated in
Stephen Mitchell,
The Enlightened
Heart An
Anthology of
Socret Foot
(New York: Harper
Pere nuial), 68.

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	"There was a nobleman": Pr 15 (W 270–74); also The Nobleman (W 557–65).	01
000	How could a man: Noblemani, 563. Later in life, in his mid-fifties: Book of Divine Consolation, 552-53)	02
	<i>J</i> ,∧ / ○	03
	CHAPTER 2: HEROIC CHRISTIANITY	
	Nothing is so cheap as heaven: Pr 58 (W 243). A new papal canonization process: Robert Bartlett, Why Can the Dead Do Such Great Things?: Saints and	04
000	Worshippers from the Martyrs to the Reformation (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 2013), 60.	05
000	Satires such as: Jacques LeGoff, Money in the Middle Ages (Berkeley: University of California Press, 2012), 39.	06
	The celebrated quotation from 1 Timothy: Little, Religious Poverty, 36.	07
	Who were they who bought: Pr 1 (W 67). an "axial age in spirituality": For a succinct argument, see Peter Dinzelbacher, "Die Achsenzeit des	08
	Hohen Mittelalters und die Ketzergeschichte," in Günther Franke and Friedrich Niewöhner, Reformer	
	als Ketzer: heterodoxe Bewegungen von Vorreformatoren (Friedrich Frommann Verlag Gunther Holzboog,	09
000	2004), 101ff. And just as Arthur and his knights: Heinrich Fichtenau, Heretics and Scholars in the High Middle Ages,	10
	1000–1200, trans. Denise A. Kaiser (University Park: Penn State University Press, 1998), 136.	11
000	The people denigrated by some: Herbert Grundmann, Religious Movements in the Middle Ages, trans.	12
000	Steven Rowan (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1995) 14, 69–74. a "medieval Reformation": See, for example, B. M. Bulton, The Medieval Reformation (London, 1987).	
000	One thirteenth-century critic marveled: Fried, Middle Ages, 256–57.	13
000	"We know that they suppose": Jennifer Kolpacoff Deane, A History of Medieval Heresy and Inquisition (Rowman & Littlefield, 2011), 24.	14
000	"Wolves in sheep's clothing": Christine Caldwell Ames, Righteous Persecution: Inquisition, Dominicans,	15
	and Christianity in the Middle Ages (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2008), 30.	
000	"[They] commonly say that": Karen Sullivan, The Inner Lives of Medieval Inquisitors (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2013), 129.	16
000	Only when the Lyons merchant: Grundmann, 40–41. For a fuller account, see Euan Cameron, <i>The</i>	17
	Waldenses: Rejections of Holy Church in Medieval Europe (Hoboken, NJ: Wiley, 2001).	18
	"dumb dogs who do not bark": Ames, Righteous Persecution, 35. Lay apostolic groups who recognized: See R. I. Moore, The Formation of a Persecuting Society:	19
	Authority and Deviance in Western Europe, 950–1250, 2nd ed. (Oxford, UK: Blackwell, 2007).	
000	By the time of Eckhart: Jean-Claude Schmitt, Mort d'une hérésie: l'Église et les clercs face aux béguines et	20
000	aux béghards du Rhin supérieur du XIVe au XVe siècle (Paris: Mouton, 1978), 63. Dominicans, who called themselves: M. Michèle Mulchahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study":	21
	Dominican Education Before 1350 (Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Mediaeval Studies, 1998), 41.	2.2
	CHAPTER 3: THE DOMINICAN WAY	23
000	Why am I more glad: W 377.	24
	Unlike the provincial village: Brady, German Histories, 23.	
	By then, the Order of Preachers: Geschichte in Daten: Thüringen, ed. Jürgen John, Reinhard Jonscher,	25
	and Axel Stelzner (Munich: Koehler & Amelang, 1995), 95; John B. Freed, <i>The Friars and German Society</i> in the Thirteenth Century (Washington, DC: The Mediaeval Society of America, 1977), 44ff.	26
000	By 1270, when ten-year-old Eckhart: Freed, The Friars, 330.	27
	The resulting pedagogical arms race: William A. Hinnebusch, The History of the Dominican Order, 2	
000	vols. (Staten Island, NY: Alba House, 1966 and 1973), I:283, 322–23. The life of a Dominican preacher: Humbert of Romans, <i>Treatise on Preaching</i> , trans. Dominican	28
000	Students Province of St. Joseph; ed. Walter M. Conlon O.P. (http://dominicanidaho.org/humbert	29
000	.pdf), 9.	30
000		31
	Poverty, 202.	
000		32
000	Those few brave souls willing: Ibid., 1, 18, 99.	S33
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1	01		000	Upon his application to enter: The following description of initiation draws heavily on the accounts of History 1:200 ff and Mulashar "First the Royale Review Style" 77, 70
	02		000	of Hinnebusch, History, 1:290 ff., and Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," 75–78. Undergarments were also woolen: Hinnebusch, History, 1:340.
			000	
	03			The remaining duties of the day: Ibid., I:347.
	04		000	
	04		000	During his novitiate year: Hinnebusch, History, I:299.
	05		000	As an advanced student: Ibid., I:351.
			000	In these early years: Ibid., I: 355–59.
	06		000	"first the bow is bent": Mulcahey takes this epigraph as the title for her excellent survey of
	07			thirteenth-century Dominican education, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," ix.
	07			All were fellow brothers: Hinnebusch, History, II:20.
	08			Eckhart and his fellow students attended: Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," 179, 248.
	00			The latter class was directed: Ibid., 133-36.
	09		000	Lectures on Lombard's Sentences: See the classic work on the topic, Henri de Lubac, Medieval Exegesis
	10			The Four Senses of Scripture, 3 vols., trans. Mark Sebanc and E. M. Macierowski (Grand Rapids, MI: Eerdmans, 1998–2009); also Philipp W. Rosemann, The Story of a Great Medieval Book: Peter Lombard's
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	11		000	teaches us very clearly: Commentary on Genesis in Essential ME, 108.
	1.7			"each and every sentence": Fichtenau, Heretics and Scholars, 206.
	12			The most significant and radical transformation: R. N. Swanson, Religion and Devotion in Europe, c.
	13			1215-c. 1515 (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1995), 74.
	2.5		000	Here too, Dominicans led the way: Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," 504-12.
	14			"each day they attend lectures": Little, Religious Poverty, 184.
	4 tm		000	"Our order is recognized": Quoted in Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," 3.
	15		000	"Others apply themselves": Humbert, Preaching, 64.
	16			In On the Education of Preachers: Humbert, Preaching, 4–7, 19–20.
			000	The most famous preacher of Eckhart's day: See Peter Segl, "Berthold von Regensburg und die
A	17			Ketzer seiner Zeit," in Festschrift Kurt Reindel, in Studien und Quellen zur Geschichte Regensburgs, 4
(18		000	(Regensburg: 1987), 115–29.
	10		000	Thirteenth-century Dominican authors: Fichtenau, Heretics and Scholars, 318; Little, Religious Poverty, 196.
	19		000	In addition to Humbert's own: Little, Religious Poverty, 191.
	4 0	da		Jacobus de Voragine, compiler of: Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in Study," 423.
	20	٠,		Other preaching aids offered: Ibid., 460–62.
	21			A successful preacher, he was taught: Humbert, Preaching, 29ff.; Mulcahey, "First the Bow Is Bent in
				Study," 138, 481–84, 530–40.
	22		000	Every good preacher should first: Humbert, Preaching, 24-26.
	3.7		000	"The manner of delivery": Ibid., 54.
	23			Finally, both Hugh of Saint-Cher: Little, Religious Poverty, 185.
	24		000	In contrast to Franciscan preachers: Beverly Mayne Kienzle, "Medieval Sermons and Their
				Performance: Theory and Record," in Preacher, Sermon and Audience in the Middle Ages, ed. Carolyn
	25			Muessig (Leiden: Brill, 2002), 99, 108; Augustine Thompson, "From Texts to Preaching: Retrieving the
	26		000	Medieval Sermon as an Event," in Muessig, Preacher, 25,
	·U			"As the seed is planted in preaching": Ibid., 189. "those who cannot be understood": Humbert, <i>Preaching</i> , 32.
	27			"It is worth far more": Ibid., 34.
	0.0			After more experience: Hinnebusch, History, I:263–67; Little, Religious Poverty, 185.
	28		000	Like students off to college: Humbert, Preaching, 89.
	29			A good preacher should not trouble himself; Ibid., 108.
	MX)			
	30			CHAPTER 4: THE RIGHT STATE
	21			Cimi Tek 1. The Midili STATE
	31			We are the cause of all: Pr 5a (W 107).
	32		000	1
				(Garden City, NY: Image, 1975), 61.
	33S		000	The work, known as the Talks of Instruction: See the discussion in Dagmar Gottschall, "Eckhart's
	34N			German Works," in <i>Hackett</i> , 146–49.
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000	We don't know if Eckhart: Loris Sturlese, "Eckhart as Preacher, Administrator, and Master of	01
	the Sentences: From Erfurt and Back, 1294–1313; The Origins of the Opus Tripartitum," in	
000	Hackett, 127.	02
	People should not worry so much: Talks of Instruction (W 489). In true obedience there should be: W 487.	03
	[God] is little concerned: W 503.	
	Many people think they are performing: W 501.	04
000	Skillful diligence is required: W 512.	05
000	People say, "Alas, sir": W 487–89.	0,7
000	as I have often said: W 490.	06
000	Drawing closer to God: W 519.	07
000	in all his acts and in all things: W 493.	U/
000	This above all is necessary: W 512. If you have a true: W 495.	08
000	If a man is not drawn: W 495.	0.0
000	the greater and fiercer: W 510.	09
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000	People may well be daunted: W 504-5.	
000	As I have often said: W 505.	11
000	God in his faithfulness: W 5078.	12
000	Great hope and trust: W 501.	ads food
000	Wherever a man in obedience: W 486. When a man stands right: W 500–501.	13
000	In the right state of mind: W 497.	14
000	What today would be called mindfulness: W 492.	17
000	One is when God tells a man: W 502.	15
000	As I have said before: W 496.	16
000	But you might say: W 509.	10
000	Whenever a man wishes: W 511.	17
000	There was never so close: W 510.	10
000	His passing mention: W 512. a light shin[ing] in the darkness: W 499.	18
000	You should know that: W 494.	19
000	Inclination to sin: W 494.	20
000	Willingness to sin: W 499.	20
000	Amidst the unrelenting: W 520.	21
000	Whatever God then sends him: W 515.	
000	Do not bother yourself: W 521.	22
000	It all depends on that: W 489. The more deeply: LWV: 142.	23
000	Even the pagan Ptolemy: LW V:146.	***************************************
000	Albert the Great, the preeminent: LW V:145.	24
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	CHAPTER 5: THE SCIENCE OF GOD	ريد
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000	What is truth?: Pr 25 (W 95).	27
000	At most one in ten Dominicans: William J. Courtenay, Schools and Scholars in Fourteenth-Century England (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1987), 6; Hinnebusch, History, II:11; Mulcahey,	Lia /
	"First the Bow," 231.	28
000	Eckhart's 1293-94 stay: Cf. reference to 1286 Parisian stay in Easter sermon of 1294. LW V:155.	20
000	By Eckhart's time: Jacques Verger, Men of Learning in Europe at the End of the Middle Ages (Notre Dame,	29
	IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 2000), 47; Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 11-12.	30
000	Earlier in the century, Philip Augustus: Alfred Fierro, Histoire et dictionnaire de Paris (Paris:	21
000	Robert Laffont, 1996), 270.	31
000	In addition to the large merchant: Boris Bove and Claude Gauvard, <i>Le Paris du Moyen Age</i> (Paris: Belin, 2104), 24–25.	32
000		Can
	University Press, 1990), 165.	S33
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(01	000	Perhaps fortunately for the enhancement: William J. Courtenay, "Study Abroad: German Students
	രാ		at Bologna, Paris, and Oxford in the Fourteenth Century," in Universities and Schooling, ed. William J.
	02	000	Courtenay and Jürgen Miethke (Leiden: Brill, 2000), 18.
	03		Although college statutes repeatedly condemned: Cobban, Universities, 196–99. A few decades earlier, one particularly: Kevin Madigan, Medieval Christianity: A New History (New
		000	Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2015), 269.
	04	000	The French king Philip Augustus: John W. Baldwin, The Scholastic Culture of the Middle Ages,
	05	000	1100–1300 (Lexington, MA; D. C. Heath, 1971), 49.
	(,)	000	
(06		University Records and Life in the Middle Ages (New York: Columbia University Press, 1944), 118, also
	A. W.		88–98; Helene Wieruszowski, The Medieval University: Masters, Students, Learning (London: Andrews
	07		McMeel, 1966), 106–9.
	08	000	In theory, the Paris priory: Hinnebusch, History, II:38-39.
		000	Since their arrival in the 1220s: Cobban, Universities, 92–93; James A. Weisheipl, Friar Thomas
	09		D'Aquino: His Life, Thought and Work (New York: Doubleday, 1974), 80, 93.
	10	000	As in every subject, classical Roman: Richard Cross, The Medieval Christian Philosophers: An
	10	000	Introduction (London: I. B. Tauris, 2014), 28.
	11	000	Given the great cost of parchment: Verger, Men of Learning, 66–69; Thorndike, University Records, 100ff.
		ono	Historians still debate: "Albertus saepe dicebat," LW V:145.
	12		During Bckhart's formative years: Hinnebusch, History, II:123, 125.
	13		In the words of a later chronicler: "War er nit gewesen, Deutschlandt wer ein eysel bleiben," quoted
			in Harvest, 13.
	14	000	In 1248, despite much internal resistance: Hinnebusch, History, II:27-28.
	1 .**	000	Between 1250 and 1350: https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/medieval-philosophy/.
	15	000	"seeking to know the incomprehensible": Thorndike, University Records, 80-81.
	16		Looking for reputable allies: Fichtenau, Heretics and Scholars, 318.
			No records survive of Eckhart's lectures: LW, V:3-16.
	17	000	
(18	000	His "Second Bachelor" status: Hinnebusch, History, II:31. The university typically waived: Ibid., II:59.
	1.0	000	"despise simple persons who know": Thorndike, University Records, 171–72.
	19		Francis of Assisi thought: John Hine Mundy, Europe in the High Middle Ages, 1150–1309 (General History
	00	***	of Europe) (Boston: Addison-Wesley, 1991), 203.
	20	000	How could he not feel: Verger, Men of Learning, 84.
	21		By the time of Eckhart's study: Cross, Medieval Christian Philosophers, 105-6.
		000	"Authority is the weakest form": Fichtenau, Heretics and Scholars, 218.
	22	000	Certainly angels were a well-embedded part: David Keck, Angels and Angelology in the Middle Ages
	23		(Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 1998), 4–5.
	ω.)		"The perfection of the universe": Summa Theologica, Part I, Question 50, article 1.
	24		Several later fathers: Keck, Angels, 13ff.
	Ar ha	000	The major intellectual work: Ibid., 23, 110. A few scholars proposed a nebulous: Cross, Medieval Christian Philosophers, 159.
	25	000	
	26	000	torreting mistore through a prous . Ibid., 100.
			CHARTER A. MACTER OF LEADAING
	27		CHAPTER 6: MASTER OF LEARNING
	28		Now a master [i.e., Aristotle]: Pr 10 (W 335).
			The solemn ceremony of induction: Weisheipl, Friar Thomas, 98-100.
	29	000	
	30	000	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
	30	000	722–23; Mulcahey, "First the Bow," 379. When the archbishop of Canterbury: Kurt Flasch, Das philosophische Denken im Mittelalter:: Von
	31	000	Augustin zu Machiavelli (Stuttgart: Reclams Universal-Bibliothek, 2001), 374.
	22	000	
	32		Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Winter 2015 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), http://plato.stanford
	33S		.edu/archives/win2015/entries/dietrich-freiberg/; Kurt Flasch, Dietrich von Freiberg: Philosophie,
			Theologie, Naturforschung um 1300 (Frankfurt am Main: Vittorio Klostermann, 2007), esp. 26ff.
	34N	000	Nature, he wrote: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 99.

Pagan masters say that God: Pr 13 (W 159).	01
I used to wonder: Pr 22 (W 281).	0.2
If I were in a wilderness: Pr 78 (W 176).	02
The masters say all creatures: Pr 22 (W 280).	0.0
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2006), 189.	09
Like Augustine, he compared: Pr 51 (W 407-8).	V)
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proof grand grand and only translated in the rest, 112,	11
	11
I am astonished that Holy Scripture: Pr 51 (W 407).	12
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· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	* '
[Moreover], since the literal sense: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 93.	15
even if the [human] author: Eckhart quoting from Augustine's Confessions, in Comm on Genesis, in	16
Essential ME, 93.	.10
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(Munich: C. H. Beck, 2011), 118ff.	20
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As I homas Aquinas explained: Sumina Theologica, Ia, 7a, art. 8, quoted in C. S. Lewis, The Discarded	22
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The first thesis, in Part I: Prologue, Parisian Questions and Prologues, trans. Armand A. Maurer	S33
(Toronto: Pontifical Institute of Medieval Studies, 1974), 79.	N34
	Like Augustine, he compared: Pr 51 (W 407-8). The Bible, according to Eckhart: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 92. Every passage, he believed: Comm on John, translated harvest, 112. His commentary on the first line: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 96-107. I am astonished that Holy Scripture: Pr 51 (W 407). In parables, virtually every word: Comm on John (LW 3:649.3-10), translated in Harvest, 111. I do this to arouse: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 92. Pringing honey forth: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 92. Pringing honey forth: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 93-94. He conceded as much: Comm on Exodus, in Teacher and Preacher, 41. Please note that the preceding words: Comm on John, in Essential ME, 93. Even if the [human] author: Eckhart quoting from Augustine's Confessions, in Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 93. Some modern scholars have argued: Donald Duclow, "Meister Eckhart's Latin Biblical Exegesis," in Hackett, 321, 326; see also Harvest, 111. For example, during Eckhart's previous stay: Cross, Christian Medieval Philosophers, 153. Eckhart's entry into the fray: LW V:37-54. According to Eckhart, anderstanding: LW V:42. I am no longer of the [Thomist] opinion: LW V:40. See also Kurt Flasch, ME: Philosoph des Christentums (Munich: C. H. Beck, 2011), 118ff. Rather he sought to reverse: Alain de Libera, La Mystique rhénane. D'Albert le Grand à Maître Eckhart (Paris: Le Seuil, 1994), 166. As Thomas Aquinas explained: Sumna Theologica, Ia, 7a, art. 8, quoted in C. S. Lewis, The Discarded Image (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2012), 157. Sometime during Eckhart's regent professorship: LW, V:55-71. Will and love fall on God: Pr 37 (W 188). Goodness is a cloake Pr 9 (W 344). Love Infatuates and entangles: Pr 19 (208). "In this brief volume, we have: Lombard, Sentences, 4-5. While his fellow Franciscans revered: Roger Bacon, Opus Minus, ed. J. S. Brewer (1859), 325. Like Albert and Dietrich, Bacon: Richard LeMay, "Roger Bacon's Attitude Toward the Latin Translati





	01		An image is not of itself: Pr 14b (W 116); see also Pr 77 (W 267).
	75-5		This new position: Sturlese, "Eckhart as Preacher," in Hackett, 132-33.
	02		As promised in the general prologue: Maurer, Parisian Questions, 81.
	03		Everything that exists, in other words: Ibid., 86–87.
			All of this would seem: Ibid., 82.
	04		Since the Opus would simply touch: Ibid., 105.
			at first glance some of the: LW 1:152.3-5, translated in McGinn, Mystical Thought of ME, 8.
	05	000	His "utterly original" attempt: Sturlese, "Eckhart as Preacher," in <i>Hackett</i> , 131.
	06		
	V.		CHAPTER 7: KNOWING THE UNKNOWABLE GOD
	07	000	Where is this [hidden] God?: Pr 79 (447).
	0.0		During the three decades: Fried, Middle Ages, 21; Hinnebusch, History, I:376.
	08		It's possible that Eckhart: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 18.
	09		The new province contained: Geschichte in Daten: Thüringen, 154.
	07		Eckhart's new position required: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 19-21.
	10		Not only were complaints registered: Ibid., 23-27.
			"Man reaches the peak": Maurer, Parisian Questions, 40-41.
	11	000	"made everything I had written": Weisheipl, Friar Thomas, 321.
	12	000	[God]'s knowledge is the cause: Maurer, Parisian Questions, 48.
	3. God	000	If so, he nonetheless remained: Ibid., 71–75.
	13	000	His inspiration, Eckhart claimed: LW V:89-90.
			a man should not have: Talks of Instruction (W 491).
	14	000	Eventually Eckhart agreed with Maimonides: Comm on Exodus, in T&P, 56.
	15		Know that whatever you add: Ibid., 101–2.
	1.7		Specifically, Maimonides posited: Ibid., 57–58.
	16		Eckhart streamlined this list: Pr 11 (W 347); also Pr 12.
			God, by contrast, exists: Comm. on John, in Essential ME, 161.
(17		Nothing is so firmly opposed: Pr 50 (W 452).
	. 10		Some people ask how: Pr 39 (W 307).
	18		From the divine perspective: Pr 20 (W 336).
	19		He recounted being asked: Latin Sermon 45, in T&P, 230.
			all that happened a thousand years: Pr 26 (W 95). In eternity, being and youth: Pr 83 (W 462).
	20		The eternal Now, according to Eckhart: Pr 38 (W 178).
	21		If I were asked where God is: Pr 63 (W 390).
	<i>△</i> .1.		Borrowing a popular Neoplatonic metaphor: Pr 82 (W 404).
	22		Where are we to look?: Pr 20b (W 201).
			Heaven is at all points equidistant: Pr 68 (W 354); also Pr 81 (W 326).
	23		so vast and so wide: Pr 69 (W 233).
	24	000	But God has no distinctions: Comm on Genesis, in Harvest, 99. Eckhart is quoting Macrobius here
	<i>‱</i> +		God is in all things: Pr 30 (W 133).
	25	000	the source of all numbers: Comm on Wisdom; LW II:487, 366, 482.
		000	everything that is said or written: Feast of Holy Trinity Sermon, in T&P, 210.
	26	000	For anyone who could grasp: Pr 38 (W 176).
	27		God is unnameable: Harvest, 142.
	hu I		All attributes we would apply: Cross, Christian Medieval Philosophers, 117.
	28		God is nameless because none: Pr 83 (W 463).
			Neither is God wise: Pr 23 (W 287).
	29		No distinction, Eckhart insists: Comm on Exodus 15:3, T&P, 64.
	20		The only true proposition: Ibid., 45–47.
	30		As Eckhart explains, "Shaddai" signifies: Ibid., 94.
	31		In this sense, Eckhart agrees: Comm on Wisdom, T&F166.
		000	• , ,
	32	000	every word that we can say: Pr 36b (W 223); see a similar passage on Heraclitus in Pr 36a (W 219). whatever we say of God: Pr 20a (W 192).
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	34N		it sometimes happened that they: Pr 50 (W 452).
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000	1 3 3 33	01
000	The existence of the One: Pr 21 (W 466).	0.2
000		02
	He is as high above being: Pr 9 (W 342). It would be better, Eckhart advised: Pr 23 (W 287). See also Pr 10 (W 343).	03
	He is being above all being: Pr 82 (W 316).	0.5
	Here the ancient authority: Pr 28 (W 131).	04
000	Scholars today debate the fidelity: Harvest, 42–45.	٥٢
	Proclus's ideas arrived. Kurt Ruh, Geschichte der abendländischen Mystik, vol. III: Die Mystik des deutschen	05
معرب ومعاده ومداده و	Predigerordens und ihre Grundlegung durch die Hochscholastik (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1996), 19; De Libera,	06
	La Mystique rhénane, 25; Harvest, 42-45.	
	The Church Father even went: Duclow, "ME's Latin Biblical Exegesis," 332.	07
000	In 1265, Albert's disciple: De Libera, La Mystique rhénane, 33; also 41-53.	08
000	Even Aquinas, the supposed champion: Flasch, Das philosophische Denken im Mittelalter, 323.	00
000	1 , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	09
	"Eckhart's Islamic and Jewish Sources: Avicenna, Avicebron, and Averroes," in Hackett, 257-62.	* ~
000	One image in circulation: The most notable proponents of this image were Robert Grosseteste (ca.	10
	1175–1253) in De Luce (1225) and the Spanish rabbi Nahmanides (1194–1270) in his Commentary on the	11
	Book of Genesis, chaps. 1-6 (1250). See A. C. Crombie, Robert Grosseteste and the Origins of Experimental	.s. 2.
	Science (Oxford, UK: Clarendon Press, 1971). In the <i>Paradiso</i> (Canto 16), Dante also described God as a single point of light.	12
000		3.73
000	God's intellect did indeed create: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 86–87.	13
000	Creation is the production: Both formulations appear in the General Prologue to the Opus Tripartitum,	14
	Commentary on Genesis, Commentary on Wisdom, and Commentary on John, all cited in Harvest, 143.	- 1
000	Like his spiritual father Augustine: Pr 47 (W 157). See also De Libera, La Mystique rhénane, 269ff.	15
000	in unity, not like in likeness: Pr 13 (W 160); De Libera, La Mystique rhénane, 170.	1.0
000	You must know that all creatures: Pr 69 (W 235-36).	16
000	God, as infinite Truth and Goodness: Sermons and Lectures on Ecclesiasticus, T&P, 174.	17
000	Maimonides, like many Aristotelian-oriented scholars: Yosef Schwartz, "ME and Moses	-
	Maimonides," in Hackett, 389–414.	18
000		19
000	,	1.7
000	the key to ME's theology. God the Creator, he claimed; Pr 22 (W 283).	20
000	God and Godhead are as different: Pr 109 (W 293).	21
000	When someone asked me why: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 85.	21
000	When I yet stood in my first: Pr 52 (W 424).	2.2
000	Intellect forces its way in: Pr 69 (W 237).	
000	The simple ground, again only: Pr 48 (W 311).	23
		24
	CHAPTER 8: PERNICIOUS FEMALES	24
		25
	I thought of something: Pr 9 (W 326),	0.0
000	In Strasbourg the master encountered: Most scholars agree with this interpretation. For an opposing	26
	view on the beguines' influence, see Loris Sturlese, "ME und die cura monialium: Kritische Anmerkungen zu einem forschungsgeschichtlichen Mythos," in MEs Straßburger Jahrzehnt, eds.	27
	Anmerkungen zu einem forschungsgeschichtlichen Mythos," in MEs Straßburger Jahrzehnt, eds. Andrés Quero-Sánchez, Georg Steer (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 2008), 1–16.	
000	In effect, they were the last remnants: The medievalist Herbert Grundmann was the first to write of	28
	a "religious 'women's movement" during this period, in his 1935 classic study, recently translated as	20
	Religious Movements in the Middle Ages, trans. Steven Rowan (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre	29
	Dame Press, 1995). After more than two decades of neglect, his characterization has now become part	30
	of the scholarly consensus for the twelfth and especially thirteenth centuries.	
000	Numbering in the hundreds: Oliver Davies, ME: Mystical Theologian (London: SPCK, 1991), 69. The	31
	early work of Dayton Phillips characterized the beguine house as primarily a social and economic	32
	institution with secondary religious interests. Beguines in Medieval Strasburg: A Study of the Social Aspect	Ju
	of Beguine Life (Ann Arbor, MI: Edwards Brothers, 1941), 159. Subsequent research has stressed the	S33
	multifarious but primarily religious nature of the houses, ranging from members who still lived with	NT+1
	their parents to quasi-convents. Amalie Fößel and Anette Hettinger, Klosterfrauen, Beginen,	N34



Bold

	01			Ketzerinnen. Religiöse Lebensformen von Frauen im Mittelalter (ldstein: Schulz-Kirchner, 2000), 50. There
	02	,	000	are many alternate explanations of the name's origin, including the beige robes that the women wore. Within twenty-five years: Grundmann, Religious Movements, 130–39.
		héresie	000	By 1300, for example: Schmitt, Mort d'une heresie, 147; Otto Langer, Mystische Erfahrung und spirituelle
	03	March		Theologie. Zu MEs Auseinandersetzung mit der Frauenfrömmigkeit seiner Zeit (Munich: Artemis, 1987), 21. By
	04			the early fourteenth century, there were at least fifty-seven such houses in Frankfurt, thirty-six in Basel
	Λ=		000	and twenty-two in Nuremberg. Phillips, Beguines, 145; Grundmann, Religious Movements, 135, 139, 148. The papal legate Gilbert of Tournai: Little, Religious Poverty, 132.
	05			The prominent canonist Hostiensis: Swanson, Religion and Devotion, 104.
	06			Like other lay apostolic movements: They were also called lollards, pauperes mulierculae, beatas,
				bizzoche, pinzochere, poor sisters, virgins, and widows. Deane, History of Medieval Heresy, 159;
	07			Grundmann, Religious Movements, 164; Schmitt, Mort d'une héresie, 65.
	08		000	At the end of the spectrum: McGinn, Flowering, 159; Kurt Ruh, ME: Theologe, Prediger, Mystiker
	Ų G			(Munich: C. H. Beck, 1985), 99.
	09		000	Nikolaus of Bibra, a poet: Grundmann, Religious Movements, 147; Geschichte in Daten: Thüringen, 98.
	10		000	Not long after assuming office: Winfried Trusen, Der Prozess gegen Meister Eckhart, Vorgeschichte,
	10		000	Verlauf und Folgen (Paderborn: Ferdinand Schöningh, 1988), 25.
	11		000	The following year, the newly consecrated archbishop: Grundmann, Religious Movements, 185.
			000	Marguerite, in William's view: McGinn, Flowering, 245.
	12		000	The third reason for William's: Lerner, <i>The Heresy of the Free Spirit in the Later Middle Ages</i> (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press, 1972), 68–78. The current scholarly consensus, however,
	13			seems to be in favor of genuine beguine status.
	13		000	"Men of theology and scholars": Mirror, Prologue and chapters 9, 12, 13.
	14			"in the whole of a kingdom": Edmund Colledge, J. C. Marler, and Judith Grant, "Interpretative
				Essay," in Mirror, il.
	15		000	"[annihilated] souls do not make": Mirror, 18.
	16			Even a hostile chronicler: Colledge et al., Mirror, ix, xlvi.
	1.0		000	After first resolving the question: Thorndike, University Records, 149-50.
A	17		000	Here the text of Marguerite de Porete's: The Essential Writings of Christian Mysticism, ed. Bernard
(* ^			McGinn (New York: Modern Library, 2006), 493.
	18		000	One modern historian has characterized: Richard Kieckhefer, Repression of Heresy in Medieval
	19		000	Germany (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1979), 19.
			000	Twice—from 1261 to 1263: Sandrine Turck, Les dominicains à Strasbourg: entre prêche, prière et mendicis
	20		000	(1224–1420) (Strasbourg: Société savante d'Alsace, 2002), 33–40. Two thirds of the city's eighty-five: Phillips, Begnines, 217.
	21			Educated at the University of Bologna: Wilhelm Wiegand, "Johann, "Bischof von Straßburg," in
	44 X		500	Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie (Leipzig: Duncker and Humblot, 1881), vol. 14: 418–19; Joseph Fuchs,
	22			"Johann I," in Neue Deutsche Biographie (Berlin: Duncker and Humblot, 1974), vol. 10: 537.
			000	In addition to frequent interventions: LW, V:158–181.
	23			The first, and most straightforward: LW, V:161-163.
	24			Attempts to establish a new Dominican: LW, V:173.
			000	The details of this monumental transition: I strongly concur with Loris Sturlese (ME: Ein Porträt
	25			(Regensburg: Friedrich Pustet, 1993), 18, and Kurt Ruh (ME, 95ff.) on the significance of this turning
	36			point in Eckhart's life.
	26		000	Although he had visited the Strasbourg: There were 110 friars resident in 1290. Turck, Les
	27		000	Dominicains, 119.
				Eckhart first appears in Strasbourg's: LW V:182–83.
	28		000	A similar document two: Property donation to the Dominican female cloister of St. Markus on November 13, 1316. LW V:184–85.
	29		000	Whenever this formal appointment: Davies, ME, 71
	Let F			Surviving deeds and other financial records: LW, V:184–88; Turck, Les Dominicains, 139-150, 260-26
	30		000	Its cohorts, officially capped: Turck, Les Dominicains, 128.
				The city of twenty thousand: Phillips, Beguines, 7.
	31		000	His surviving German sermons: LW V:187-89; Ruh, ME, 12.
	32.			Most significantly, he co-resided: Trusen, Der Prozess, 21; Geschichte in Daten: Thüringen, 155.

000 His own German sermon: Pr 52 (W 420-26).

God (New York: Crossroad, 1994), 333-37.



000 Eckhart's fellow theologian Godfrey: Colledge, et al., "Interpretive Essay," in Mirror, xl-xli.
000 More than a century earlier: See Bernard McGinn, The Growth of Mysticism, vol. II of The Presences of

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000	The period 1250-1350: See especially Caroline Walker Bynum, Jesus as Mother: Studies in the	01
	Spirituality of the High Middle Ages (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1984).	
000	"Ah Lord," she sighed: Mechthild of Magdeburg: Selections from The Flowing Light of the Godhead, ed.	02
	Elizabeth A. Anderson (Cambridge: D. S. Brewer, 2003), 48. On Mechthild, see also Amy Hollywood,	03
	The Soul as Virgin Wife: Mechthild of Magdeburg, Marguerite Porete, and Meister Eckhart (Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame, 2000); and Frank Tobin, Mechthild von Magdeburg: A Medieval Mystic in	05
	Modern Eyes (Columbia, SC: Camden House, 1995).	04
000	He responded that it was her: Anderson, Mechthild, 56.	05
	"Now I fear God": Ibid., 52.	
	"I was warned about": Ibid., 47.	06
000	Mechthild's work, The Flowing: Frank Tobin, Meister Eckhart: Thought and Language (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1986), 5.	07
000	The Soul is a "full-grown bride": McGinn, Flowering, 237; Anderson, Mechthild, 36.	0.0
	Whereas Marguerite envisioned: Hollywood, Soul as Virgin Wife, 64.	80
000	Lack of food, drink, and sleep: Langer, Mystische Erfahrung, 60-79; Davies, ME, 74-75.	09
000	As the Book of Twelve Beguines: Carolyn Walker Bynum, Holy Feast and Holy Fast: The Religious	
000	Significance of Food to Medieval Women (Berkeley: University of California, 1987), 110.	10
000	The beguine Hadewijch of Antwerp: Langer, Mystische Erfahrung, 117ff. The literaries lealer der and nearly extracted this 122.	11
	The liturgical calendar and nearby statues: Ibid., 122. A century earlier, for instance: Fried, Middle Ages, 267.	
	In Eckhart's day, the Premonstratensian: McGinn, Flowering, 283.	1.2
000		13
000		13
000		14
000	About the time of his arrival: The date of this book is contested, with composition estimates ranging	ne prot
	from 1309 to 1324. See Dagmar Gottschall, "Eckhart's German Works," in Hackett, 150–51.	15
000	misfortunes occurring to outward goods: Book of Divine Comfort (W 524).	16
000	There is solace for every sorrow: Book of Divine Comfort (W 526, 528). probably no one can be found: Book of Divine Comfort (W 533).	
000	a man should take all things: Book of Divine Gomfort (W 527–30).	17
000		18
	McGinn, "Visio Dei: Seeing God in Medieval Theology and Mysticism," in Carolyn Muessig, ed.,	
	Envisioning Heaven: An Introduction, 16. See also Pr 72 (W 459)	19
000	1 1	20
	He did not go as far: McGinn, "Visio Dei," 18–19.	20
000	According to one admiring chronicler: From Gertrude the Great's Legatus divinae pietatis, translated in McGinn, Flowering, 267.	21
000	Whoever seeks God in a special: Pr 5b (W 110).	2.2.
000	"We think that in the Eucharist": Bynum, Holy Feast, 156.	
000	Wisdom, he explains: Pr 40 (W 320).	23
000	When God made man: Pr 6 (W 330).	24
000		
000		25
000	no earthly wisdom can grasp it: LW V:188.	26
	CHAPTER 9: MASTER OF LIVING	27
000	Better one master of life: Franz Pfeiffer, ME (1857; reproduced Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht,	28
	1924), 599, 19–21, translated in McGinn, Mystical Eckhart, 1.	29
000		ל אונים
000	, and the state of	30
	and Hebrews, but none has survived. Dietmar Mieth, Die Einheit von vita activa und vita contemplativa in	21
	den deutschen Predigten und Traktaten MEs und bei Johannes Tauler (Regensburg: Pustet Friedrich KG,	31
000	1995), 113. In a few sermons, he mentions: Cf. references to "mîn buoch" in Pr 14 and Pr 28. I find convincing	32
300	the argument of Sturlese, <i>Porträt</i> , 16. For a prominent dissenting voice, see Kurt Ruh, <i>Geschichte der</i>	Can
	abenländische Mystik, vol. 3, Die Mystik des deutschen Predigerordens und ihre Grundlegung durch die	S33

Italy,

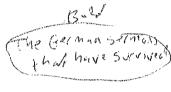


Hochscholastik (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1996), 301-3.

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	01			frumitity is a root of all good: P1 14 (W 207).	
	0.0			That is true humility: Pr 49 (W 439).	
	02			. ,	
	(12		000	The light of the sun: Pr 70 (W 231).	
	03			There is no way man can know: Pr 104 (W 50).	
	04		000	The Neoplatonic modification: Again, I am persuaded by the argument of Sturlese, "Eckhart as	
	U-T			Preacher," in Hackett, 129.	
	05		000	Applying his famed razor: See the overview of Ockham's approach in Cross, Medieval Christian	
				Philosophers, 189-209.	
	06		000	According to Bernard of Clairvaux: Sermon on the feast of SS. Peter and Paul, quoted in Fichtenau,	
				Heretics and Scholars, 203.	
	07		000	"learning things curious and subtle": Thorndike, University Records, 73.	
	0.0		000	His revered mentor, Albert the Great: Grundmann, Religious Movements, 199.	
	08			Eckhart believed that words: Pr 18 (W 213).	
	09		000	The Luke annunciation excerpt: Pr 22 (W 279).	
	0,2			On a few occasions he proceeded: Pr 44 (W 14346).	
	10			Preaching on Ecclesiasticus 50:6-7: Pr 9 (W 344).	
				called "music of abstraction": Von der Wahrheit (1947), 897. I borrow this reference from Davies,	
	11			Meister Eckhart, 192.	
			000	Similar modifications supplied him: The most important work on Eckhart's literary innovations is	
	12	all 6-		Frank Tobin, Meister-Bekhapt: Thought and Language (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press,	
	13	WE			~ē
	1.3	,	000	Divine love is like the salt: Pr 22 (W 282).	
	14				M
			000	Beguine Mystics: Hadewijch of Brabant, Mechthild of Magdeburg, and Marguerite Porete, ed. Bernard	
	15			McGinn (London/New York: Bloomsbury Academic Press, 1997), 46,	
			000	Accordingly this metaphor led Eckhart: No Pr, W 442.	
	16			In one even more remarkable passage: Pr 30 (W 140).	
	9 777			One scholar has likened: Davies, ME, 116.	
(17			God is a word: Pr 53 (W 152).	
\Box	18			God is nothing: Pr 82 (W 316–17).	
	IO			God was a becoming without becoming: Pr 50 (W 453); see also Pr 83 (W 462).	
	19				
				breadth without breadth, expanseless expanse: Pr 38 (W 178). You should live Him as He is: Pr 83 (W 463).	
	20			You should wholly sink: Pr 83 (W 463-4).	
	21				
	21			The text which I have quoted; Pr 71 (W137).	
	22			Now let us turn this phrase: Pr 3 (W 165), Christian flavores — postigularly Averagina, H. a., Pr 80 (W 450), where the coordination from the charge in the coordination of the coordinat	
	Lui Lui		000	Christian figures—particularly Augustine: E.g., Pr 80 (W 456); others plus secondary from Hackett. yesterday a question was debated: Pr 74 (W 374).	
	23			Dozens of times he prefaced: See, for example, Pr 24 (W 450), Pr 58 (W 244), Pr 6 (W 331), Pr 74	
			000		
	24		000	(W 374), Pr 3 (W 166), Pr 51 (W 409). You often ask, for instance: Pr 16b (W 116).	
	/y m			But sir, you ask: Pr 101 (W 30).	
	25			Last night I thought: Pr 14 (W 267); Pr 82 (W 281).	
	26			I was thinking last night: Pr 51 (W 409–10).	
	<i>2</i> 0			Often I feel afraid: Pr 73 (W 373).	
	27			I will tell you how: Pr 64 (W 393).	
				I was thinking on the way: Pr 74 (W 376–377); Pr 22 (W 282).	
	28			As I was coming here today: Pr 48 (W 309).	
	30			Dear children, he pleaded: Pr 64 (W 393).	
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	34N		300	A don Para me milhamistra 13 (At 710).	
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000	I am the cause of God's being God: Pr 52 (W 424). Eckhart also began the sermon by noting: I beg you for	01
	the love of God to understand this wisdom if you can; but if you can't understand it, don't worry, because I am	03
000	going to speak of such truth that few good people can understand (W 420). St. Augustine says, what a man: Pr 5a (W 105).	02
000	the soul is made of all: Pr 3 (W 165); Pr 6 (W 329).	03
000	If you could know with: Pr 2 (W 81).	0.4
000	Some masters would hold: Pr 9 (W 341).	04
000	I have been asked to make: Pr 105 (W 122).	05
000		0.6
000	References to slow-witted persons: Comm on Book of Wisdom (W 474). I wanted how some wrights: Dr 20 (W 106)	06
000	I marvel how some priests: Pr 29 (W 196). there are some people: Pr 41 (W 241).	07
000	many a dull-witted man: Book of Comfort, Part III (W 553).	00
		08
	CHAPTER 10: THE WAYLESS WAY	09
000	Whoever is seeking God: Pr 5b (W 110).	10
000	KEY PHIRASE NEEDED: 1st paragraph-under "Making-Room-for-God": Sturlese, "Eckhart as	1 1
ng ar to residence a supplie	Preacher," in Hackett, 132.	11
000	One [way] is to seek God: Pr 86 (W 86).	12
000	This approach appealed: McGinn, Flowering, 115–17. I used sometimes to say: Pr 74 (W 374).	1.0
000	He who would see God: Pr 72 (W 460).	13
000	anyone who wishes to hear God: Comm on Genesis, in Essential ME, 114.	14
000	The second way into God: Pr 86 (W 86).	4 m
000	The third way, the master concluded: Pr 86 (W 87).	15
000	How marvelous, to be without: Ibid.	16
000	Is it better to do something: Pr 101 (W 33). When Jesus preached: Pr 52 (W 420).	4; my
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000	makes a man greatest of all: Pr 74 (W 374).	22
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000	Similarly, memory, understanding, and will: Pr 103 (W 55–56).	274.07



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	OT.	000		
	03		therefore a man must be slain: Pr 29 (W 127).	
	02		A man once came to me: Pr 28 (W 130).	
	03	000	In all a man does: Pr 62 (W 291).	
	03	000	is to be silent and let God: Pr 101 (W 33).	
	04	000	Typically, the seeker was more aware: Pr 68 (W 353).	
		000	all your activity must cease: Pr 103 (W 55–56).	
	05	000	Sir, you place all: Pr 102 (W 43).	
	0.6	000	Now you might say, "Oh sir": Pr 103 (W 55–58).	
	06	000	1	
	07	000	The masters, he notes: Pr 24 (W 449), Pr 2 (W 80).	
	07		It is uncreated and uncreatable: Pr 13 (W 161), Pr 48 (W 310), No Pr (W 381).	
	08	000	This power alone is free: Pr 2 (W 79).	
	**		Like its divine source: Pr 42 (W 399).	
	09	000	There is a fine saying: Pr 101 (W 35).	
	• •	000	The entire point of radical: Pr 79 (W 446).	
	10	000	Eckhart compared the liberated divine spark: Pr 60 (W 248).	
	11	000	The heavenly Father speaks: Pr 19 (W 207).	
	1.1	000	The nature of a word: Pr 101 (W 34). See also Pr 73 (W 372).	
	12	000	It is the voice crying out: Pr 104 (W 52).	
		000	Anything you see, or anything: Pr 71 (W 140-41).	
	13	000	so that the divine light: Pr 45 (W 185).	ر. د. م سادر م
		000	The birth of the Son: For references to the ancient Fathers on this topic, David W. T. Brattston,	SKT
	14		Traditional Christian Ethics: Affirmative or Positive Commandments (Nashville: WestBow Press, 2014), II:91.	
	1 6	000	I have often said that the soul: Pr 57 (W 169).	
	15	000	To be ready to receive God's; Pr 2 (W 77).	
	16	000	You need not seek Him: Pr 103 (W 58),	
	10	000	Whenever a man humbles himself: Pr 22 (W 281),	
4	17	000	God's comfort is pure and unmixed: Pr 79 (W 446).	
	+	000	If anyone were to rob God: Pr 69 (W 234).	
-	18	000	The divine birth, after all: Pr 11 (W 347).	
	10	000	You should not take this: Pr 5b (W 109).	
	19	000	we are an only son whom: Pr 22 (W 281).	
	20	000	Eckhart's astonishing expansion: No Pr (W 441–43).	
	20	000	God is ever at work: Pr 43 (W 394).	
	21	000	And so, if a man is to know God: Pr 46 (W 255).	
		000	And so, he attempted to clarify: Pr 22 (W 280).	
	22	000	For between your human nature: Pr 24 (W 450).	
	2.2	000	The actors and the act: Pr 103 (W 58).	
	23	000	You must know, Eckhart explains: Pr 76 (W 72).	
	24	000	The eye with which I see God: Pr 12 (W 298).	
	22 T	000	united but not one with: Pr 64 (W 392).	
	25	000	Spiritual vessels are different: Pr 16b (W 114).	
		000	The soul in God: Pr 76 (W 74).	
	26	000	Just as God is everywhere: Pr 63 (W 390).	
	37	000	Whatever is in God: Pr 3 (W 167).	
	27	000	It is question difficult to answer: Pr 47 (W 157).	
	28	000	The inner man, or bare substantial being: No Pr (W 359).	
	20	000	I have said before and say again: Pr 78 (W 175).	
	29	000	It would be of little value: Comm on John, in McGinn, Harvest, 153.	
	30		CHADTED 11. HVING WITHOUT A WILL	
	21		CHAPTER 11: LIVING WITHOUT A WHY	
	31	000	The just man has such need: Pr 41 (W 239).	
	32	000		
	I had	000	The truly humble man, according to Eckhart: Pr 14 (W 267).	
	33S	000	This man now dwells: Pr 15 (W 271).	
		000	Some people, Eckhart preaches: Pr 86 (W 89).	
	34N	000	In very truth I believe: Pr 101 (W 37).	

000	Some people say, "If I have God": Pr 29 (W 125).	01
000	the highest perfection of the spirit: Pr 67 (W 358-59).	O1
000	It may well be that those: No Pr (W 215–16).	02
000	For most people who have experienced: Pr 67 (W 359).	0.0
	In his freewheeling translation: Pr 2 (W 77).	03
	Now attend, and follow me closely: Pr 2 (W 78).	04
000	This is my commandment: Pr 27 (W 99).	0.4
000	Properly considered, love: Pr 4 (W 226).	05
000 000	As long as we are not like God: Comm on John, in Essential ME, 172.	0.6
000	In a later vernacular sermon, however: Pr 86 (W 84). Martha, on the other hand; Pr 86 (W 89).	06
000	This was the meaning of living: Harvest, 188.	07
	In the same way as God: Pr 41 (W 239).	0,
000		80
000	If someone asked [the just man]: Pr 26 (W 96).	00
000	You must love all men: Pr 5a (W 105).	09
000	Jesus, himself, Eckhart reminded: Book of Divine Comfort (W 532).	10
000	The transformed individual: Ibid.	
000	Though it should entail: Pr 25 (W 92).	11
000	When Jesus is led before Pilate: Reiner Schürmann, Wandering Joy: Meister Eckhart's Mystical	12
	Philosophy (Great Barrington, MA: Lindisfarne, 2001), 72	.k 2
000	This was not an ecstatic flight: I am indebted to Reiner Schürmann, Wandering Joy, especially	13
000	14-15 and 32-36, for this insight.	* 4
000	So it is with all: Pr 103 (W 59). The bond between the divine essence: "Feast of Holy Trinity Sermon," T&P, 212.	14
	Do you want to know what sin is?: Pr 32 (W 277).	15
	God knows nothing outside: Pr 5a (W 104).	3.2
000	So while God makes merry: Pr 79 (W 445),	. 16
000	God always rewards: Comm on John, in Essential ME, 151.	17
000	God likes forgiving big sins: Pr 4 (W 225).	17
000	If a man slays another: Pr 63 (W 388).	18
000	In every work, even in an evil: Comm on John, in Essential ME, 44, n. 494.	
000	Should anyone ask what God is: Pr 65 (W 62–63).	19
000	The question is asked, what burns: Pr 5b (W 109).	20
000	Now you might say, "Bad people": Pr 74 (W 375).	
000	All good works, he seems to say: Pr 105 (W 120–21).	21
000	fasts, vigils, prayers, and the rest: Pr 1 (W 66). Peopleswhat is it: Spruch 8, Franz Pfeiffer, ME (1857); reproduced Göttingen: Vandenhoeck &	2.2
000	Ruprecht, 1924, 599.19–21, translated in McGinn, The Mystical Thought of ME, 1.	22
000		23
000	Cod hugans nothing but hadren Dr. 9 (XX 40.4)	
000		24
000	whatever is in God, is God; Pr 12 (W. 297)	25
000	And seeing that God transforms: Pr 3XW 167).	20
	Why did God become man?: Pr 29 (W 126).	26
	The incarnation was the greatest: Pr 22 (W 279).	27
000		27
000	In fact I will say still: Pr 48 (W 310). They meet and unite: Pr 28 (W 131).	28
000		
	A great master says that his: Pr 52 (W 424). In my birth all things: Pr 52 (W 424).	29
	The concept of the ground: For a more extensive analysis of Bckhart's grunt, see the discussion in	30
	McGinn, Mystical Thought of ME, 114-61.	20
		31
	CHAPTER 12: DEVIL'S SEED	3.3
		32
	And some will say that such: W 553.	S33
000	The years of Eckhart's stay: For an excellent overview of this crisis, see William Chester Jordan, The Great Famine (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1996).	
	Grows among a fine con, ray, a fine cross our crossey races, 1990).	N34





1	01	000	In August 1317, he published: Alexander Patschovsky, "Straßburger Beginenverfolgungen im 14.
,	02		Jahrhundert," in Deutsches Archiv für Erforschung des Mittelalters Bd. 30 (1974), 133-42.
,	I ha	000	Some modern historians have suggested: Martina Wehrli-Jons, "Mystik und Inquisition: Die Dominikaner und die sogenannte Häresie des Freien Geistes," in Deutsche Mystik im abendländlichen
(03		Zusammenhang: Neu erschlossene Texte, neue methodische Ansätze, neue theoretische Konzepte: Kolloquium
1	04		Kloster Fischingen, 1998, ed. Walter Haug and Wolfram Schneider-Lastin (Tübingen: Niemeyer,
	J4		1999), 243.
(05		Halfa century earlier: Harvest, 59; Pr 52 (W 424).
	0.0		"They say they ought not to": Harvest, 89.
,	06		The beguines he ministered to: Patschovsky, "Straßburger Beginenverfolgungen," 95–107.
	07	000	Early the next year he circulated: Winfried Trusen, Der Prozess gegen Meister Eckhart: Vorgeschichte,
		000	Verlauf und Folgen (Schönigh, 1988), 29. The Dominican priory of the city: G. M. Lohr, Beiträge zu Geschichte des Kölner Dominikanerklosters im
(08	000	Mittelalter (Leipzig, 1920), 34-36.
	09	000	Certainly he lectured regularly: Trusen, Der Prozess, 63.
	0)		He was personally familiar with: Ulrich Seng, Heinrich zweite von Virneburg als Erzbischof von Köln
	10		(Cologne: F. Schmitt, 1977), 75ff.
	w •	000	The year before Eckhart's arrival: Lerner, Free Spirit Heresy, 29-30.
	11		Heinrich of Virneburg was the type: Seng, Heinrich, 17.
	12		He had not attended university: Ibid., 41, 121ff.
	3. 4.4	000	While the conflict raged on: Davies, ME, 44; Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 42.
	13	000	Originally scheduled to take place: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 46; McGinn, Mysticism, 14; Trusen,
	• 4		Der Prozess, 188.
	14		"that some dishonest and indecent": Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 47.
	15		One or more unidentified friars: Ibid., 49.
		000	
	16		Faced with certain punishment: Ibid., 52.
	¢ my	000	
(17	000	Most of Eckhart's brethren: Ingeberg Degenhardt, Studium zum Wandel des Eckhartbildes (Leiden:
Ψ	18		Brill, 1967), 13. My description of Eckhart's trials in Cologne and Avignon draws heavily on the careful research of Senner, "Life," in <i>Hackett</i> , 44–81, and Trusen, <i>Der Prozess</i> , esp. 105 ff.
		000	according to the exemption: Essential ME, 71.
	19		To clarify the objections: Ibid., 72–73.
	30		They think that everything: lbid., 75.
	20		Know that these articles: Ibid., 76.
	21	000	When he came before the two: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 66-67.
			While he had promptly replied: Ibid., 65.
	22	000	While waiting for the outcome: I am grateful to Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 71, for this
	23		interpretation.
	Lu I		I Melster Eckhart: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 68.
	24		"We have arrived at the decision": Ibid., 71.
	ev 165	000	"unholy Babylon, thou sink of iniquity": Guillaume Mollat, The Popes at Avignon, 1305–78 (London:
	25	000	Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1963), 279.
	26	000	Within the space of two decades: Bernard Guillemain, La Cour Pontificale d'Avignon (1309–76): Étude d'une Société (Paris: Éditions E. de Boccard, 1962), 551.
	240	000	Since 1100, a series of popes: Yves Renouard, La papauté à Avignon (Paris: Presses Universitaires,
	27	000	1955), 37.
	20	000	Papal ambassadors from across Europe: Mollat, The Popes, 280.
	28		Even so, once the necessary clerks: Ibid., 307.
	29		At least five hundred people: Ibid., 283.
		000	Six years earlier, John had bought: Edwin Mullins, The Popes of Avignon: A Century in Exile (New York:
	30		BlueBridge, 2007), 52.
	21	000	The year 1327 saw the peak: Guillemain, La Cour Pontificale, 443.
	31	000	Even the Dominican priory: Paul Amargier, "Le couvent dominicain d'Avignon de ses origins à la
	32	_	peste noire," Études vauclusiennes, no. 5 (1971), 21-30.
			The archbishop's inquisitors: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 7274; Trusen, Der Prozess, 114-15.
	33S	000	
	34N	000	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
	√"T4 N		(Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 1975), I:836; Mollat, The Popes, 23.



Tightening central control of the benefices: Mollat, The Popes, 14; Mullins, The Popes of Avignon, 55. By the time of Eckhart's arrival: Davies, ME, 50; Spufford, Money and Its Uses, 157; Mullins, The Popes	01
000 By the time of Eckhart's arrival: Davies, ME, 50; Spufford, Money and its Uses, 157; Mullins, The Popes	
of Avignon, 48; Ruh, ME, 183.	02
Two thirds of the pope's expanded income: Mollat, The Popes, 316.	
000 Beginning with four or five lists: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 74-76.	03
700 The articles singled out: Essential ME, 78–79.	04
The eternal Now was a tenet: Ibid., 40–41.	
000 A similarly scholastic difference: Ibid., 79. 000 Such fine distinctions were the stuff: Ibid., 116.	05
000 We shall all be transformed: Ibid., 78.	06
000 But early in the new year: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 77.	
000 profess[ing] the Catholic faith: Essential ME, 81.	07
000 Most articles were condemned: Koch, Kleine Schriften, 384.	08
700 The pope clearly valued: Senner, "Life," in Hackett, 78–79.	
000 we are indeed sad to report: Essential ME, 77. 000 censures only fifteen: Ibid., 80.	09
000 Three weeks later, on April 15: Ruh, ME, 186.	10
CHAPTER 13: THE MAN FROM WHOM GOD HID NOTHING	11
	12
 If anyone cannot understand: Pr 52 (W 424). In 1356, the Benedictine monk: Lerner, Free Spirit, 216–21; Harvest, 344–49. 	
oto "the man from whom God hid nothing": This is the title of the first "sayings" attributed to ME, first	13
published in Pfeiffer, ME, 597.	- 14
000 Almost all of the portrayals: For a significant exception, see the "good cook's" criticisms in Erroneous	ng mar
Teachings of ME, in Bernard McGinn, The Varieties of Vernacular Mysticism, 1350–1550 (New York:	15
Crossroad, 2012), size. 71 - 76.	16
000 A 1353 Dutch treatise: Degenhardt, Studium, 27. 000 Few friars openly criticized: Trusen, Der Prozess, 155, 162.	× •••
000 Profoundly depressed by his own unworthiness: Henry Suso, The Exemplar with Two German	17
Sermons, ed. Frank Tobin (New York: Paulist Press, 1989), 105.	18
"one of the most learned and experienced": Ibid., 308.	
000 Finally he explicitly distinguishes: Ibid., 326–27.	19
"some uneducated but intelligent people": Ibid., 58	20
Speculative theology, which we learned: Ibid., 57.The Little Book of Truth was aimed: Ibid., 59.	21
"The more bitterly you have suffered": Suso, The Exemplar, 241.	21
000 It was in one of these Rhineland cities: Josef Schmidt, "Introduction," in Johannes Tauler: Sermons,	22
trans. Maria Shrady, Classics of Western Spirituality (New York: Paulist Press, 1985), 5.	22
000 According to Tauler, every human: See, for instance, Sermon 1 (35–40) and Sermon 19 (69–73) in	23
Johannes Tauler.	24
000 This was the period of greatest persecution: Ingrid Würth, Geißler in Thüringen: Die Entstehung einer spätmittelalterlichen Häresie (Walter de Gruyter, 2012), 432sft; Lerner, Free Spirit Heresy, 145;	25
Grundmann, Religious Movements, 245.	25
000 Theologians who appropriated: Degenhardt, Studium, 20; Koch, Kleine Schriften, 438-43.	26
000 Eckhart's mistake, he wrote: Essential MB, 24; Degenhardt, Studium, 52; Elizabeth Brient, "ME's	27
Influence on Nicholas of Cusa: A Survey of the Literature," in Hackett, 557. Some Dominican chronicles vaguely: Degenhardt, Studium, 71–73.	
one Dominican chronicles vaguely: Degenhardt, Studium, 71–73. In 1516, the thirty-three-year-old theology professor: See Harvest, 392–404.	28
000 The future reformer's greatest objection: Volker Leppin, Die fremde Reformation: Luthers mystische	29
Wurzeln (Munich: C. H. Beck, 2016), 31-41.	الريسك
000 Luther likely read at least: Ibid., 204.	30
Protestant publications of Tauler's sermon: Degenhardt, Studium, 69-70.	31
000 (A 1522 publication on mysticism) I am very grateful to Bernard McGinn for sharing with me his unpublished paper on the topic. See also Andrew Weeks, "ME and Valentin Weigel" in Flacket),	
1000 Sudermann also composed: Ibid. 94 1000 Protestant embrace of some medieval mystics: Ibid., 85. 1000 Thus while many of: Davies, ME, 215.	32
Drain last 6 2000 Sudermann also composed: Ibid. 94	S33
000 Protestant embrace of some medieval mystics: Ibid., 85.	
Thus while many of: Davies, MB, 215.	N34

01	000	"beautiful splendid times, when Europe": Tobin, Mechthild, 18.
02	000	"Branded as heretical all imagination": Ibid., 18. "Falthout is picktly called the Moster". See see said the beautiful to a light the size of Court O'D.
	000	"Eckhart is rightly called the Master": See especially the enlightening discussion of Cyril O'Reagan, "Eckhart's Reception in the 19th Century," in Hackett, 629–67; also Degenhardt, Studium, 112–14.
03	000	Hegel's student Karl Rosenkranz: Ruh, ME, 14.
04		Protestant philosophers, such as: Degenhardt, Studium, 146.
05		In his History of Mysticism: Tobin, Mechihild, 26. Accusations of atheism: Degenhardt, Studium, 156–65.
05		In his German Mysticism: Tobin, Mechthild, 23.
06	000	In 1886, the Dominican: ME in Erfurt, 110.
07	000	An influential 1904 article: Kurt Flasch, ME: Philosopher of Christianity, trans. Anne Schindel and
	000	Aaron Vanides (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 2015), 161. Greatly embellished portrayals: Degenhardt, Studium, 240.
08		New Catholic accounts: Ibid., 288.
09	000	In Rosenberg's fantasy: Ruh, ME, 14; also Degenhardt, Studium, 259.
		In 1935, the Jesuit theologian: Flasch, ME, 195.
10		In 1937, Quint joined the Nazi party: Ibid., 162.
11	000	The postmodern deconstructionist: Dermot Moran, "Meister Eckhart in Twentieth-Century Philosophy," in Hackett, 697.
	000	No twentieth-century philosopher: See especially the astute overview of Moran in Hackett, 687–96.
12	000	"the dark self-perception": Ben Morgan, On Becoming God: Late Medieval Mysticism and the Modern Self
13		(New York: Fordham University Press, 2013), 152.
1.4	000	Yet as the scholars Amy Hollywood: Amy Hollywood, Sensible Ecstasy: Mysticism, Sexual Difference,
14		and the Demands of History, Religion and Post-Modernism (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2003), esp. 155ff.; Morgan, On Becoming God, 82–87.
15	000	esp. 155ff.; Morgan, On Becoming God, 82–87. Contrary to his former mentor: Jolande Jacobi and R. F. C. Hull, eds., C. G. Jung: Psychological
16	W = 4	Reflections (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1978), 340.
16	000	When searching for inroads: Carl Jung, Memories, Dreams, Reflections, A. Jaffe & R. and C. Winston,
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