AN INTRODUCTION TO

ARCHITECTURE

EDITED BY
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IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

AND

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IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

WITH THE EDITORIAL ASSISTANCE OF ANTHONY KINGSFORD

WITH CHAPTERS BY
ROBIN MILNER-GULLAND & JOHN BOWLT

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

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Note. The architectural plans and elevations, save where otherwise noted, are based on those in S. V. Bezsonov et al., Istoriya russkoy arkhitektury (Moscow, 1951, 1956). The dating of architectural monuments has caused continual difficulties, often with unexplained divergences between recognized authorities. The date of a building's inception, however, is generally more firmly established than that of its completion, and in most cases it is only the former (usually more significant from the point of view of the history of style, in any case) that has been indicated here. Page number precedes description in the following list.

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PREFACE

The Companion to Russian Studies aims at providing a first orientation for those embarking on the study of Russian civilization, past or present, in its most important aspects. It lays no claim to cover them all. While we hope that it will be of use to university students of Russian language and literature, Russian history, or Soviet affairs, it is equally directed to the general reader interested in these subjects. Each chapter seeks to offer a self-contained introduction to a particular topic; but the editors have not wished to impose a uniform pattern, and each author has been free to approach and present his subject in his own way. Particular care has been taken to provide up-to-date bibliographies, which are intended as a guide to further study. As is the way with collective works of this kind, the Companion has been some years in the making. We should like to express our gratitude to the contributors for their forbearance – sometimes sorely tried - in the face of difficulties and delays which have held up the completion of the enterprise. Economic considerations beyond our control have made it necessary to divide the contents of what had originally been planned as a single book into three volumes. The first is mainly concerned with the history of Russia and the Soviet Union; the second with Russian language and literature; the third with art and architecture. However, the three volumes, for which we share the editorial responsibility, should be regarded as complementary parts of a single whole.

We are grateful to all those at the Cambridge University Press who, over the years, have been involved in this project. Above all we wish to record our debt to Mr Anthony Kingsford, whose great experience in book production, unflagging energy, and expert knowledge of many aspects of Russian studies have been of the greatest value at every stage.

R.A.

D.O.

We wish to record our sorrow and sense of loss at the untimely death of Robert Auty on 18 August 1978, when this volume was still in proof.

D.O.

A.L.K.

TRANSLITERATION TABLE

		1	2
A	a	a	a
Б	б	b	b
В	В	V	V
Γ	Γ	g	g
Д	Д	d	d
E	e	ye/e	je/e
Ë	ë	yo/o	
Ж	Ж	<u>z</u> h	ž
3	3		
И	И	z i	z i j
Й	й	у	j
К	К	k	k
Л	Л	1	1
M	M	m	m
Н	H	n	n
O	O	O	O
П	П	p	p
P	p	r	r
C T	C	S	S
T	T	t	t
У	У	u	u
Φ	ф	f	f
X	\mathbf{X}	kh	ch
Ц	Ц	ts	C
Ч	ч	ch	č
Ш	Ш	sh	š
Щ	Щ	shch	šč
	Ъ		
	Ы	y	y
	Ь	,	,
Э	Э	e	e

TRANSLITERATION TABLE

Юю	yu	ju
я я	ya	ja
(I i)	i	i
(b b)	ě	ě
(O O)	f	f
(V v)	i	i

The transliteration system given in column 1 is used in all sections of the *Companion* except Volume 2, chapter 1, *The Russian Language*, where the 'philological' system given in column 2 is employed. The bracketed letters at the end of the alphabet were discontinued by the spelling reform of 1917–18.

ye (je) is written for Cyrillic e initially, after vowels, and after \mathfrak{b} and \mathfrak{b} . o appears for \ddot{e} after \mathfrak{m} , \mathfrak{q} , \mathfrak{m} , \mathfrak{m} . In proper names final - $\mathfrak{b}\ddot{u}$, - $\mathfrak{u}\ddot{u}$ is simplified to -y.

Proper names or titles which have a generally accepted anglicized form are usually given in that form, e.g. Benoit, Chagall, Deineke, Diaghilev, Dimitri, Hermitage, Likhachev, Lissitzky, Meyerhold, Moscow, Peterhof, Sophia.

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ART AND ARCHITECTURE OF OLD RUSSIA, 988-1700

Introduction

For almost a millennium, art and architecture have flourished in Russia with a consistency of high achievement unmatched by Russian literature, music or thought, whose notable successes have been won only against a background of erratic and, on the whole, rather tardy development. There is some sense in considering the visual arts the central area, even the pace-setter, of Russian culture through most of its long history: the wordless language of paintings and buildings compensates for the notorious 'intellectual silence' of Old Russia, so often noted by foreigners, and it is able to tell us what is distinctively Russian about such moments of apparently thorough integration with the western cultural system as the mid-eighteenth and early twentieth centuries. In particular Russian architecture - cheerful, modest and down-to-earth, seldom reaching towards grandeur or sublimity - has a quite remarkable record of vigour and inventiveness over the centuries; while Russian painting has had at least two moments (in the early fifteenth century and during the 1910s) when it could be reasonably argued to have led the whole of Europe.

This long and splendid artistic tradition, for quite understandable historical and geographical reasons, is still inadequately known abroad. This survey is certainly no substitute for the rigorous, detailed, and up-to-date study of Old Russian art which we need in English; what it does aim to do is to tell in concise fashion what happened when, to trace the development of styles and genres, to give an indication of what seems art-historically important and why, and lastly to contradict a few prevalent myths and locate the chief unresolved problems. In the process much has had to be ignored or summarily treated: in particular folk art, the minor and applied arts, and the tradition of architecture in wood get far less attention than they would ideally have deserved. I have tried to bear in mind the reader with a fair general knowledge of art (particularly the potential visitor to Russia) who will not be familiar with the development of Russian art or its chief characteristics at various times; for this reason I have discussed the different branches of art according to a periodization which,

OLD RUSSIA, 988-1700

even if unusual in some respects, I believe to be the most helpful for the purpose. Some attempt – necessarily brief – has been made to see Russian art as part of a general pattern of culture, in both a national and a European setting.

Note that where a single date has been given to a building, this refers to the beginning of its construction unless otherwise indicated.

Old Russian art: its characteristics, scope and international setting

The art of Russia before the eighteenth century was broadly (with due qualifications) a 'medieval' art. It was functional, having a necessary role to fulfil within a self-sufficient cultural system. It held firmly to tradition, and was exercised through a well-developed set of genres, conventions and symbols. It attended to the universal and eternal rather than to the transient and the accidental. Its practitioners were more concerned to execute a necessary task in the proper manner than to express an individual personality. It was saturated with its society's religion. It lacked several of the art-forms that we take for granted in secularized, post-Renaissance Europe; it neither knew nor would have had a use for the systematic perspective and illusionistic techniques of post-Renaissance painting. Until almost the end of the seventeenth century, architecture seems to have retained medieval 'rule of thumb' methods of construction.

However, this art should not be thought of as unsophisticated or primitively spontaneous. There was a clear distinction between 'high' and folk art, even if from time to time the two spheres affected or interpenetrated each other. Nor was it undifferentiated: there were 'metropolitan' and 'provincial' manners, allowing a variety of intermediate possibilities. It was not mechanical: no two medieval pictures or buildings are identical; it was not depersonalized, as there was scope, if limited, for the exercise of artistic individuality - the names of leading artists (particularly after the fourteenth century) are often known to us, and in many cases we can form an impression of their style. It was not exclusively in the hands of monks or clerics: several important artists were probably laymen (Theophanes, Dionisy). Its aims and methods were not 'antirealistic', at least not in the eyes of its practitioners. It was not 'unprogressive', despite the stubborn myth that Byzantine/Orthodox art and architecture are no more than variations on a theme: it shows wellmarked evolutionary stages, though the transitions between them are gradual rather than violent. Lastly, it would be wrong to think of it as utterly cut off from our own aesthetic categories and traditions: its principles, ideals and methods are descended, if at one or more remove,

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from classical antiquity. Old Russian writers frequently and touchingly speak of beauty in relation to the works of art of their age, and what they admire turns out on the whole to correspond with what we admire.

The adoption of Christianity on the Byzantine model as the Russian state religion in or about 988 meant the 'importing' of an entire cultural system, including a varied and highly-developed art. There is no reason to suppose the soil of Russia was unprepared for this. Though our evidence for the condition of art in pagan Russia is scanty, we can reasonably suppose it flourished, at least on a 'folk' level. Its most impressive material remains are carved idols (popularly known as *kamennyye baby*, stone women). There was certainly a well-developed architecture in wood, and masonry buildings are now known to have existed. In any case, Christianity had been gradually establishing a foothold in Kiev many decades before the official conversion.

Russia joined the Byzantine 'cultural commonwealth' at a favourable moment. A Slavonic sub-community, using its own language for liturgy and literature, already existed within it. Byzantium, at the height of its early medieval vigour, had evolved the 'classic' forms of its art during the previous century or so. Those splendidly flexible and simple architectural forms, the 'cross-domed' and 'cross-in-square' church, had been stabilized as the typical patterns of high-Byzantine ecclesiastical architecture; they, and not the older, alternative form of the basilica, were to establish a domination in Russia unchallenged for over 500 years. The interior walls of such churches were decorated, according to an impressive scheme (of symbolic significance), with glass mosaic or – as soon became normal in Russia - with true fresco. The technique of fresco-painting encouraged a bold and expressive handling of the medium. Small teams of artists, on occasion travelling far afield, would complete the decoration of a church in a single summer if possible, sometimes several years after it had been built. Meanwhile it would be decorated with icons (i.e. 'images') - the third great form of Orthodox pictorial art. These often quite large panels (the ancestors of modern 'easel paintings', curious as it may seem) normally consist of one or more wooden boards, with painting in tempera on a fine plaster ground; they carried representations of sacred personages and events, and though not in themselves worshipped, they were venerated as the channel through which worshipper could reach saint and vice versa. The general forms of any given representation were not subject to alteration at whim (going back as several of them supposedly did to St Luke, eyewitness of the scenes he painted). Byzantine icons of high artistic quality - particularly from before the fourteenth century - are very few, and the fortunate preservation of several fine examples would alone have

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ensured Russia a unique importance for our understanding of medieval Orthodox art. Icons shared with book illuminations (another well-developed Byzantine art, particularly significant for its role in preserving classical-antique models of painting) an easy portability and high prestige; through them the example of 'metropolitan' painting, or for that matter innovations of style and iconography, could be transmitted to all parts of the Orthodox world, counterbalancing centrifugal and provincializing tendencies. The marvellously skilful Byzantine so-called 'minor arts' – low-relief carvings in ivory, silver and gold objects, jewellery, enamels – played something of the same role.

The Byzantine connexion conditioned the nature of Old Russian art, up to and even after the trauma of 1453, when Constantinople fell. It would be wrong to treat Old Russian art as synonymous with Byzantine each nation of the Orthodox community had its own artistic development, within certain overall limits - but it would be equally wrong to regard it as the branch of a tree, developing out of and away from Byzantium. Old Russia was able, until the fifteenth century, to refresh itself through renewals of contact, not only with Constantinople, but with other Orthodox lands (notably with the South Slavs of Serbia and Bulgaria). Other international contacts - particularly with western Europe in its Romanesque, Gothic and Renaissance phases - had effects which, if not purely fortuitous, were nevertheless essentially limited in their cultural significance, few in number and easily definable. With the remoter Christian lands of Transcaucasia, as with the Scandinavian north, few if any artistic contacts can be demonstrated (though some commentators have tried). And oddly enough (in view of geographical propinquity and of the 240 years of subjection to the Tatars), Russia was perhaps less open to cultural influence from the Moslem lands than any country in Europe. The favourite nineteenth-century assumption that Russian art, and culture as a whole, was essentially 'oriental' turns out to be without any historical basis.

Medieval Russia has left a relatively rich artistic heritage: one that, until in the later fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the achievements of the Florentine Renaissance spread through the west, in no way lagged behind the rest of Europe – and even in its lengthy decline showed moments of inspiration. Yet it is worth reminding ourselves from time to time of some of its achievements which are irreparably lost to us. From before 1600 we have scarcely any surviving secular architecture: of the splendid palaces of the Kievan and Vladimir Grand Princes, with their fine furnishings and extensive frescoes, we know tantalizingly little, even from literary sources. The wooden architecture of the same period, whether popular or sophisticated, has almost all perished: we know only that it must have been highly inventive and adaptable. Old Russian sculpture has survived fragmentarily and probably not representatively. From four decades at

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the beginnings of Russian post-conversion art (996–1036) our knowledge is quite blank.

In modern times, too, war, carelessness and wanton destruction have lost for us some of the greatest buildings and paintings that had been spared by previous ages; but that is another story.

The discovery of Old Russian art

Before the present century the achievements of Old Russian art and architecture were scarcely appreciated or even properly accessible. Underrated by the Russians themselves (who were conscious of the excessive and stifling duration of their 'medieval' past), known to few foreigners in a position to evaluate them, the numerous buildings and paintings that antedated the westernizing reforms of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were in any case generally deformed by later alterations, accretions and restorations. The materials for a just assessment, or for that matter a history, of Old Russian art were simply not available.

Even had they been so, it may be doubted whether nineteenth-century taste would have reacted understandingly, let alone enthusiastically, to them. Napoleon, having entered Moscow, is reported to have ordered 'that mosque' (meaning the Church of Basil the Blessed in Red Square) to be removed. He was no doubt not alone in thinking Old Russian building uncouth and oriental - though it is neither. Nevertheless, a current of antiquarian interest stemming from the time (and personal initiative) of Catherine the Great ensured the preservation of some buildings and the detailed recording of others, as well as more doubtful projects such as Nicholas I's radical restoration of the St Demetrius Cathedral in Vladimir. When in the 1880s V. Vasnetsov and the 'Abramtsevo colony' built a small church in a pleasant pastiche of Old Russian style, it became evident that such architecture could have real aesthetic significance for sophisticated members of the generation out of which the 'modern movement' sprang. Yet as regards Old Russian painting, knowledge and appreciation were rudimentary even at the end of the nineteenth century. In particular the surviving icons and frescoes from the greatest age of Old Russian pictorial art (the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries) were still without exception obscured by grime or overpainting. Andrey Rublyov, whose work is the culmination of that age, had sunk to a figure of legend; it was the cleaning (in 1904) of his famous 'Old Testament Trinity' icon, from the Trinity Monastery of St Sergius, that marked the start of true scholarly investigation into his work and the nature of Old Russian painting in general. If one man's contribution to this process should be singled out, it must be that of Igor' Grabar' - himself an excellent painter who for decades bore the heaviest burdens in the fields both of restoration

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and research. However, the rediscovery of Old Russian art required not simply the dedication of individuals, but a revolution in aesthetic taste. This came about with the rise of 'modernism' in the years preceding the First World War. The dominance of Renaissance 'picture-space' and naturalism over serious art was shattered, and qualities such as the static stylization and the free play of line and colour typical of Old Russian painting could at last be appreciated for their aesthetic worth. Too much, indeed, has often been made of some of these qualities: the 'primitivism' of iconpainting (gauged on the basis of late or provincial examples) can easily be overestimated, and the nature of Old Russian art thereby seriously misjudged.

From the 1910s Old Russian paintings were systematically collected (or, in the case of wall-paintings, identified) and cleaned – a process which is continuing to the present day, but as early as the 1920s had produced a remarkable body of material on which scholarly work could be done. The serious investigation of Old Russian architecture, on the other hand, lagged a little: to re-establish and restore the early aspect of a building is no small task. Paradoxically, the destruction suffered by many important Old Russian buildings during the Second World War had some positive effects: it permitted, for example, the investigation into the original form of the partially-destroyed Pyatnitsky Church in Chernigov, which has helped us radically to revise our ideas about the evolution of medieval architecture. Since the war, in fact, previous notions of what happened to architecture in the important age from the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries have been entirely superseded, and this has had interesting implications for the general history of Russian culture.

Much has been discovered or evaluated very recently; many problems are still debatable, and many tasks remain. The original ground-plan of so important a building as the St Sophia Cathedral in Novgorod, for example, was only established (despite widely differing speculations through the years) when central heating was installed there in the 1960s. The wealth of Old Russian sculpture is only slowly becoming known: older books denied its very existence, and treated the famous carvings of Vladimir-Suzdal' (still the subject of controversy) as utterly exceptional. Frescoes as important as those of the Mirozhsky Monastery at Pskov have yet to be properly cleared from overpainting. Soviet archaeology is continually turning up new, and sometimes surprising, facts. Though the history and evaluation of Old Russian art and architecture can now be undertaken, we should be rash to regard even their basic outlines as finally established and agreed. The present survey aims not so much to make quasi-definitive judgements on doubtful points as to present the development of early Russian art in the light of recent research and current critical appreciation.