The Cambridge Companion to

STRAVINSKY

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1 Stravinsky’s Russian origins

ROSAMUND BARTLETT

‘A man has one birthplace, one fatherland, one country – he can have only one country – and the place of his birth is the most important factor in his life.’ These words were uttered by Stravinsky at a banquet held in his honour in Moscow on 1 October 1962.¹ The eighty-year-old composer had returned to his homeland after an absence of fifty years. In the intervening period he had acquired first French and then American citizenship, and developed an increasingly hostile attitude towards his native country and its culture.² This hostility had been fully reciprocated by the Soviet musical establishment. Now, as the guest of the Union of Composers, Stravinsky was seemingly performing a complete volte-face by wholeheartedly embracing his Russian identity. For Robert Craft, his assistant and amanuensis, this was nothing short of a ‘transformation’, and he was astonished, not only to witness Stravinsky and his wife suddenly taking ‘pride in everything Russian’, but to observe at close hand how ‘half a century of expatriation’ could be ‘forgotten in a night’.³ Craft’s diary of the famous visit contains many revealing comments about a composer who was a master of mystification.

Like his younger contemporary Vladimir Nabokov, with whom there are some intriguing biographical parallels,⁴ Stravinsky did not care to be pigeon-holed or linked with any particular artistic trend after he left Russia. Above all, because of a sense of cultural inferiority which stemmed from the fact that Russia’s musical tradition was so much younger than that of other European nations, he came to disavow his own musical heritage, which necessitated embroidering a complex tapestry of lies and denials. So proficient was Stravinsky in creating an elaborate smoke-screen about who he really was, in fact, that the highly controlled image he projected of his artistic independence remained largely intact for over two decades following his death in 1971. It is an achievement of the painstaking scholarship of Richard Taruskin and Stephen Walsh⁵ that in the twenty-first century we can now look behind Stravinsky’s cosmopolitan façade to see the carefully concealed but manifestly Russian identity that lies behind it. The extent of the obfuscations and contradictions of Stravinsky’s musical persona can be judged from the sheer scale of Richard Taruskin’s efforts in unravelling them: his study runs to 1,757 pages, and does not explore works written after 1922. Stravinsky’s habit of falsifying his own life story means that we must clearly treat all his pronouncements with circumspection, but his highly
emotional and apparently involuntary reaction in 1962 to being back on Russian soil (which he claimed even had a particular smell), nevertheless speaks volumes about the continuing importance of his native origins.

Stravinsky was born on the cusp of two distinct eras, at a pivotal point in Russian cultural history. In 1881, the year before his birth, not only was Alexander II assassinated, but Dostoevsky and Musorgsky died, thus symbolically bringing to a close the era of the Great Reforms, Realist novels and Populism. Alexander II’s reign (particularly the earlier part of it) had been a time of relative liberalism compared with the oppressive regime of Nicholas I which had preceded it. The reforms Alexander II had introduced in the 1860s, most notably the long-awaited Emancipation of the Serfs in 1861, had given rise to an upsurge of energy and optimism that was reflected across all sections of Russian society over the course of the following decade. The young radical intelligentsia believed at last the time had come for action (not for nothing was Nikolai Chernyshevsky’s 1863 novel of political emancipation entitled What is to be Done?), and the arts were dominated throughout the 1860s and 1870s by a preoccupation with ideas of social change and questions of national identity. This was the age of the great novels of Tolstoy, Dostoevsky and Turgenev, and the ideologically charged canvases of the ‘Wanderers’ – nationalist painters who wished to highlight Russia’s acute social problems. This was also a vibrant time for Russian music. As a result of the efforts of Anton Rubinstein, a Conservatoire had finally opened in St Petersburg in 1862, enabling Russian musicians to acquire professional status for the first time (all-important in a society where social position was still defined by a notorious Table of Ranks). Tchaikovsky was one of its first graduates. And at the same time that the Populist-minded artists of the ‘Wanderers’ group were rebelling against the Western and classical orientation of the St Petersburg Academy of Arts, a nucleus of nationalist composers was already turning its back on the Western and classical orientation of the new Conservatoire. Rather than be trained according to the German model set up by Rubinstein, the five members of the Balakirev circle opted to teach themselves, out of a belief that Russian music should follow its own course. One of those composers was Rimsky-Korsakov, later to become Stravinsky’s teacher. Their spokesman was the prolific critic Vladimir Stasov, who waged an unceasing and often cantankerous campaign on behalf of Russian nationalist art from 1847 to 1906, the year of his death.

By the time of Alexander II’s violent death, however, Russian culture was already beginning to undergo a sea-change as former radicals and non-conformists amongst the artistic community began to become part of the establishment. Rimsky-Korsakov had been appointed to teach at the St Petersburg Conservatoire in 1871, for example, and the Wanderers later
became stalwart representatives of the Academy of Arts. Russia had embarked on a programme of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation, but the pace of reform had slowed, and social unrest consequently increased. When the peaceful attempts of the Populists failed to convince the peasantry of the need for urgent political action, the Revolutionary intelligentsia began to turn its attention to the new working-class organisations that were beginning to spring up in cities across the Russian empire. And their new terrorist methods began to achieve results. Conservative anyway by nature, Alexander III responded to the assassination of his father by bringing to a halt the wheels of progress and by tightening instruments of repression. Thus Stravinsky was born at a time of widespread despondency amongst the Russian population.

The new tsar’s chauvinistic policies resulted in the persecution of Jews and other religious minorities, but there was one aspect of his Russification policies that had positive consequences, namely his active promotion of native culture. A century and a half of imperial patronage of Western art forms at the expense of Russian traditions (long considered unsophisticated by comparison, and associated with peasants, therefore inferior) had led to a huge explosion of national consciousness amongst Russian artists in the middle of the nineteenth century. Alexander III was the first Russian tsar to recognise and support native achievements. It was due to his efforts that the first government-sponsored collection of Russian art (now housed in the Russian Museum) was put on public display in St Petersburg in 1898, and he was clearly in favour of the ‘revivalist’ architecture which quickly became popular. The first major public building project of his reign was the onion-domed Church of the Resurrection, begun in 1882, the year of Stravinsky’s birth. Built on the spot where Alexander II was assassinated, its pastiche of medieval Russian styles sits oddly amongst the stately neoclassicism of most of the rest of St Petersburg’s eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century buildings, which had of course been specifically designed to emulate the European style and make a deliberate break with Muscovite tradition. This sort of retrogressive orientation was closely allied to Alexander III’s reactionary and Slavophile political beliefs. Of far greater value were his services to Russian music. Alexander’s decision, also in 1882, to end the monopoly on theatrical production held by the Imperial Theatres and to close down the Italian Opera were to have far-reaching consequences for the performing arts in Russia. As a singer at the Russian Opera in St Petersburg (where he was principal bass), Stravinsky’s father was a direct beneficiary of this policy. Stravinsky’s own musical development was also indirectly affected as a result. The two most important operas premiered in the year of Stravinsky’s birth were Wagner’s *Parsifal*, staged in Bayreuth, and Rimsky-Korsakov’s *The Snow Maiden*, the latter performed at the Mariinsky Theatre in
St Petersburg, with Fyodor Stravinsky creating the role of Grandfather Frost.

Nicholas I had installed an Italian company in the main opera house in St Petersburg in 1843 (as much for political as for artistic reasons), and lavish sums from the imperial purse were invested in promoting it. Very much second-class citizens, the composers and performers involved with the Russian Opera did not even have a proper stage of their own until the Mariinsky Theatre was built in 1860. It must be said that the repertoire was still not very large at this stage, nor of consistently high quality (with the obvious exceptions of Glinka’s operas, of course), but the Russian government had equally done nothing to encourage its subjects to become composers. The fortunes of the Russian Opera started to prosper in earnest only after the accession of Alexander III, when it became the sole company in St Petersburg, and thus the country’s premier stage. Fyodor Stravinsky had joined the Russian Opera in 1876, having begun his singing career in Kiev, and it was in the 1880s that he began to receive his greatest acclaim, not only for his powerful voice, but also for his dramatic talents. By the time he stopped performing in 1902, he had developed a repertoire of sixty-four roles, most but not all of which were in Russian opera. He also knew composers like Musorgsky, Borodin and Rimsky-Korsakov, as well as other prominent musicians and critics, many of whom must have come to visit the singer at home. The young Igor Stravinsky thus grew up in an environment which was steeped in Russian music. Stasov and Dostoevsky also paid calls.

Apart from his fine voice, Fyodor Stravinsky was famous for his extensive library of valuable books and scores (held to be one of the largest private collections in Russia), and for the painstaking way in which he researched his roles. All of this inevitably rubbed off on his son, who would have probably heard his father rehearse at home and who also had the benefit of being able to attend operatic performances at the Mariinsky on a regular basis from a young age. It is not surprising that the theatre became something of a second home for Stravinsky while he was growing up, as his family’s apartment was situated right next door to it. The 1890s and early 1900s were the Mariinsky Theatre’s golden years: operas by Russian composers had become its staple repertoire, and there was now, for the first time, an impressive roster of performers, producers and set designers to stage them. Stravinsky was able to become closely acquainted with what are now the classic masterpieces of Tchaikovsky, Glinka, Borodin, Musorgsky and, of course, Rimsky-Korsakov. ‘Sitting in the dark of the Mariinsky Theatre, I judged, saw, and heard everything at first hand’, he later recalled, ‘and my impressions were immediate and indelible’. He would subsequently have a direct involvement with Rimsky-Korsakov’s last operas.
Stravinsky’s family came from the nobility, but it is important to recognise that this was a class that differed from its Western European counterpart by encompassing small-scale landowners without titles and (by the end of the nineteenth century) haute-bourgeoisie as well as Counts and Princesses. Only in Russia could one automatically join the nobility by being promoted to a certain position in the Table of Ranks (as happened with Dostoevsky’s father). Stravinsky’s social background was relatively privileged without being particularly aristocratic. While the young Nabokov was driven to school by a chauffeur from the family mansion, for example, Stravinsky walked across town from a rented apartment. His parents also rented their summer dachas; although the family was able to stay at the country estates of their relatives and were later affluent enough to travel abroad, they had no property of their own, however modest, to retreat to at the end of the season. It is also worth pointing out that pursuing a career on the stage as a singer in Russia had only begun to acquire social respectability at the end of the nineteenth century. Both Shaliapin and Ershov, two of Russia’s other great pre-revolutionary male singers, were of lowly origins, and Fyodor Stravinsky had originally planned to join the Civil Service, following a training in law. It is indicative that he and his wife also wanted their son Igor to become a lawyer rather than a professional musician, and he studied law at St Petersburg University from 1901 to 1906. But as with Tchaikovsky, who half a century earlier had been destined for a career in the Ministry of Justice, the urge to write music proved ultimately too strong to resist.

Stravinsky had his first piano lessons in 1891, when he was nine years old. This was also the year in which he met his first cousin Ekaterina Nosenko, who was later to become his wife. Then, when he was a university student, he began to study music theory privately. Musically speaking, however, the pivotal year for Stravinsky was 1902, the date of his earliest surviving compositions. At university Stravinsky had become friends with Rimsky-Korsakov’s son Vladimir, and through him met the composer while they were on holiday in Germany that summer. After Stravinsky’s father died of cancer at the end of 1902 at the age of fifty-nine, Rimsky-Korsakov – just one year younger – became a kind of father figure to him. There was something of an inevitability to this development. Fyodor Stravinsky studiously recorded details of the cost of each of Igor’s music lessons, along with every other family expense, and his son seems to have inherited his love of precision, sending dutiful letters to his parents during summer vacations when they were apart. Stravinsky did not, however, have a particularly affectionate relationship with his father (he was closer to his mother, though that relationship was difficult too), and neither of his parents encouraged his musical ambitions. Rimsky-Korsakov did not formally become Stravinsky’s
composition teacher until 1905, having persuaded him that enrolling at the Conservatoire, where Rimsky had now been teaching for thirty years, would at this point be counter-productive. In the meantime, however, Stravinsky started to receive informal tuition from him, and to attend the musical soirées at his apartment which became a weekly fixture from 1905 onwards.

Cultural life in St Petersburg by 1905 had undergone another sea-change since the time of Stravinsky’s childhood. He was not exaggerating when he later remembered the city as a stimulating and exciting place in which to have grown up, as his coming of age coincided with the birth of Russian Modernism – the movement to which he himself was to make such an enormous contribution. Alexander III’s Russification policies had positive consequences for the fortunes of Russian opera in the 1880s, and the abolition of the Imperial Theatres’ monopoly had led to the foundation of important new companies such as Savva Mamontov’s Private Opera in 1885, and later the Moscow Arts Theatre, directed by Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko. In general, however, the reign of Alexander III was one of the bleaker periods in Russian culture, typified more by repression and stagnation than by innovation and dynamism. The apathy and disillusionment of the period is captured well in the short stories of Chekhov, the very modesty of their form indicating the diminution of the intelligentsia’s hopes and dreams following the era of the great reforms. The Russian musical scene also lacked dynamism and innovation. The main symphony concert series, which had been inaugurated by the Russian Musical Society in 1859, was now becoming increasingly reliant on the classical repertoire, for example, and was beginning to lack freshness. The wealthy art patron Mitrofan Belyayev promoted contemporary composers at the ‘Russian Symphony Concerts’ he founded in 1885, an enterprise of inestimable value in consolidating a national musical tradition that was now well and truly established, but Arensky, Lyadov, Glazunov and Rachmaninov hardly belonged to the avant-garde. As Walsh has commented, the enterprise succeeded, ironically, in truly institutionalising Russian music, which had hitherto prided itself on its anti-establishment stance. As a bastion of the musical establishment, and now the éminence grise of the St Petersburg Conservatoire where he had been professor since 1882, Rimsky-Korsakov certainly did not use his position as Belyayev’s main adviser to change its orientation.

Everything was to change after the death of Alexander III in 1894, although his successor Nicholas II was hardly less reactionary. The cultural revival that was now instigated was prompted to a certain extent by a desire to escape from a depressing political reality that was clearly going to worsen and partly by the simple and inevitable need to strike out in a new direction. Music was in fact the last art form to be affected by the winds of change that now began to sweep through Russian cultural life, but ironically it was music
which – through the agency of Stravinsky – was to contribute Russia’s most significant contribution to the Modernist movement. Signs of the dawning of a new age in the arts came with the production of Tchaikovsky’s operatic masterpiece *The Queen of Spades*, premiered in 1890 at the Mariinsky. A loyal subject of Alexander III, Tchaikovsky willingly conformed to the dictates of the Imperial Theatres, which commissioned the opera, and *The Queen of Spades* represents, in many ways, the apotheosis of the Russian ‘imperial style’. It is also, however, a work whose hallucinatory subject-matter, nostalgic mood and stylistic pastiche align it with the preoccupations of the new generation of artists that emerged in the closing years of the nineteenth century. Their rebellion against old forms and their championing of the new were accompanied by an explosion of creative talent across all the arts on an unprecedented scale at the beginning of the twentieth century and is now rightly regarded as a kind of Russian ‘Renaissance’. Stravinsky, of course, was at the epicentre of this movement, which saw Russian artists for the first time becoming leaders of the avant garde. Along with Kandinsky, Malevich and, to a lesser extent, Skryabin and perhaps Bely, he was one of the key Russian figures of the period who was destined to change the very language of art.

Russian Modernism began in the middle of the 1890s as a reaction against the relentless utilitarianism that had dominated all the arts in the preceding period in favour of aestheticism. Concern with ideology was jettisoned to be replaced by an interest in individual experience and beauty, which was expressed at first in small, lyrical forms rather than the grand canvases of the Realist period. The narrow Russian focus of much of what was produced earlier was exchanged for a new cosmopolitan outlook. There was also, in the aftermath of Nietzsche and the ‘death of God’, a liberation from the stifling Victorian mores of the 1880s and a cultivation of amorality and the occult. The earliest practitioners were a group of poets who called themselves Symbolists, but who were quickly labelled Decadents by their detractors. Led in Moscow by Valery Bryusov and Konstantin Bal’mont, they drew their inspiration from French writers such as Baudelaire and Verlaine. In St Petersburg the leader of the new movement was the writer Dmitry Merezhkovsky, who published an influential article in 1893 that pinned the blame for the general decline in literary quality at the time on the didacticism of the Populist age and called for culture to be revived through a concern with metaphysical idealism and spiritual experience.

The torchbearers for this artistic renewal were the eclectic young artists and sexually liberated aesthetes of the ‘World of Art’ group, also based in St Petersburg, who wished precisely to bring Russian culture out of the doldrums. Convinced that the quality of modern Russian art was now on a parity with that of Western Europe, their leader, Sergey Diaghilev, organised
a series of international exhibitions beginning in 1898, which the ageing Stasov was quick to condemn as decadent. Diaghilev had anticipated this reaction. When soliciting work for his first exhibition, he had addressed the problem directly: ‘Russian art at the moment is in a state of transition,’ he wrote to prospective exhibitors. ‘History places any emerging trend in this position when the principles of the older generation clash and struggle with the newly developing demands of youth.’ Late in 1898, the group launched a lavishly illustrated and expensively produced journal under the title *The World of Art* which acted, amongst other things, as the first major platform for the Symbolists. Diaghilev, Benois and their colleagues had eclectic tastes also where music was concerned. They worshipped Tchaikovsky, but they were also the first non-musicians in Russia to champion Wagner in the pages of their journal, regarding him as a founder of the Modernist movement in Russia, as he had been elsewhere. As well as publishing articles on Wagner’s artistic ideas and methods, Diaghilev began to review the first Russian stagings of his music dramas at the Mariinsky Theatre, and Benois was invited to design the first production of *Götterdämmerung*.

In the initial period, the members of the World of Art group focused mainly on the visual arts. At first, Diaghilev had attempted to forge a career in music, but after being discouraged by Rimsky-Korsakov when he showed him his compositions, and having been turned down as a member of the august Russian Music Society, whose dull concert programmes he had hoped to revitalise, he decided to focus in the immediate term on art. In the meantime, two other members of the group, Alfred Nurok and Walter Nouvel, took up the challenge of bringing music under the World of Art canopy by founding the ‘Evenings of Contemporary Music’ in 1901. The aim was to acquaint the St Petersburg public with new music, consciously espousing a more radical programme than the rival Chamber Music Society. As Taruskin has pointed out, the music that was performed at the concerts was hardly the most outré, since the most popular composers were Franck, D’Indy and Reger, while the most avant-garde Russian composers represented were Vasilenko, Senilov, Rebikov and Catoire. Other living Russian composers whose works were performed included Rachmaninov, Tcherepnin and Glazunov. The Moscow-based Skryabin, who had most in common with the aesthetics of the Symbolist movement, was largely ignored. It was nevertheless here that music by Ravel, Fauré and Strauss was first introduced to Russian audiences and composers, while Debussy, Schoenberg and Reger were invited personally to attend performances of their works. And it was here that Stravinsky’s music was publicly performed for the first time, on 27 December 1907.

The nineteen-year-old Stravinsky had, in fact, taken part in the very first concert of the Evenings of Contemporary Music, on 20 December 1901,
according to a notice in a contemporary music journal,\textsuperscript{18} and from then on he attended at least some of the concerts organised each season,\textsuperscript{19} but his loyalties lay very much with Rimsky-Korsakov’s circle after he was welcomed into its midst the following year. For this group, the Evenings of Contemporary Music represented the opposition. Rimsky-Korsakov attended their concerts when music by his pupils was performed, but he was in general hostile to the whole enterprise and its modernist and dilettante outlook, particularly since he had no direct involvement. Nurok did not, for his part, conceal his low regard for Rimsky-Korsakov’s conventionality, the conservatism of the Belyayev concerts, and their already somewhat ossified aesthetic position.\textsuperscript{20} A kind of half-way house was provided by the important new concert series founded by the conductor Aleksandr Ziloti in 1903, which premiered music by Strauss, Mahler and Schoenberg, amongst others. In 1909 Ziloti also conducted the first performances of Stravinsky’s \textit{Scherzo fantastique} and \textit{Fireworks} at one of his concerts. Nevertheless, the contemporary music scene in St Petersburg in the early 1900s was certainly not as vibrant as, say, activities in literature at the time.

Just as Stravinsky was beginning his official tuition with Rimsky-Korsakov in 1905, his teacher began to host weekly musical soirées every Wednesday. These meetings provided an important forum for Stravinsky to meet other musicians, discuss ideas and hear informal performances of new compositions, including his own. In 1905 the ideas discussed were inevitably dominated by politics, as the year began with the infamous ‘Bloody Sunday’, when a peaceful demonstration by workers was greeted with gunfire and over a hundred people were killed. Stravinsky remained largely unaffected by the 1905 Revolution (this was also the year he became engaged to his cousin), but his teacher became directly caught up in the turbulent events. Amid public outcry, Rimsky-Korsakov was dismissed from his post for supporting Conservatoire students who had gone on strike to call for reform. Although musically he represented the forces of conservatism, Rimsky-Korsakov occupied a relatively left-wing position politically, and he was eventually successful in demanding autonomy for the Conservatoire administration. Despite the political factors, the atmosphere of the Rimsky-Korsakov ‘Wednesdays’ was still extremely tame by comparison with the infamous \textit{jours-fixes} held across town on the same night by the Symbolist poet Vyacheslav Ivanov, which also started in 1905. These attracted a broad spectrum of St Petersburg’s leading modernists (including Walter Nouvel and several other musicians), who would congregate at midnight in Ivanov’s orotund top-floor apartment (known by all as ‘The Tower’) and sit up until dawn participating in learned discussions on mysticism, poetry readings and impromptu musical and theatrical performances. Stravinsky was only two years younger than one of the salon’s most celebrated habitués, the
poet Alexander Blok. Another of its regular attendants, however, was Sergey Gorodetsky, two years younger than Stravinsky and a poet who first came to public attention with a collection of poetry published in St Petersburg in 1907 entitled Yar'. Gorodetsky in some ways provides a point of intersection between the opposing worlds of Rimsky-Korsakov and the World of Art, with which Stravinsky became irrevocably associated in 1910. Stravinsky chose to set two of the poems from Gorodetsky’s collection to music in 1907 and 1908, and it is these two songs for mezzo-soprano and piano (Two Songs, Op. 6) which first exhibit signs of the direction the composer would later follow. Rimsky-Korsakov instinctively recognised this embryonic gesture towards musical independence by condemning the first song, set to the poem ‘Spring’, as ‘contemporary decadent-impressionist lyricism’ which contained ‘pseudo-folksy Russian lingo’.

Gorodetsky later went on to become a decidedly conformist member of the Soviet literary establishment (in the 1920s, for example, he completed a new translation of the libretto of Die Meistersinger), but in 1907 he was part of an ‘experimental spiritual and sexual collective’ at the Tower, and one of the more adventurous members of the avant-garde community in St Petersburg. His collection Yar contains some of the first modernist poetry to be inspired both thematically and stylistically by Slavic mythology and folklore, as exemplified in the two poems chosen by Stravinsky, whose settings partially match Gorodetsky’s achievement. As Taruskin points out, folklore in Russian music had traditionally been regarded as an intrinsic part of a work’s content. To establish a musical style based on folklore was unprecedented, and ‘to borrow artistic elements created by the people so as to create an art that was unintelligible to them seemed an implicit mockery’. With these two Gorodetsky songs, Stravinsky unconsciously made his first tentative steps into the unknown. It was with the first of these songs that he made his public debut at the Evenings of Contemporary Music in December 1907.

Until Rimsky-Korsakov’s death in 1908, Stravinsky remained a relatively docile pupil who was not yet fully aware of the artistically sterile environment in which he was serving his musical apprenticeship. Apart from the time he spent in his teacher’s apartment, he regularly accompanied him to opera performances at the Mariinsky and shared at that point his antipathy towards ballet. At the end of the following year, however, Stravinsky was already at work on the Firebird, his first ballet commission for Diaghilev. It soon became apparent that the sophisticated and cosmopolitan milieu which Diaghilev and his associates inhabited, mostly abroad in Paris, was a more natural Russian environment for Stravinsky. Like Diaghilev and the other key members of the World of Art group, Stravinsky identified strongly with the city he grew up in precisely because of its international
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and aristocratic character. It is telling that Diaghilev had to cajole Rimsky-Korsakov into taking part in his ‘historical concerts’ in Paris. Apart from the memories of some unfortunate concerts he had conducted there in 1889, Rimsky-Korsakov had no wish to associate himself with anything decadent, and had no desire to meet any of the latest French composers. Stravinsky soon relished being part of the European avant garde, but he never relinquished his love for his native city. ‘St Petersburg is so much a part of my life that I am almost afraid to look further into myself, lest I discover how much of me is still joined to it’, he confessed in *Expositions and Developments*. ‘It is dearer to my heart than any other city in the world.’

When considering Stravinsky’s Russian origins it is significant that he grew up in imperial St Petersburg. Like Vladimir Nabokov, he never once visited Moscow when he was growing up, and first saw the city on his celebrated return to Russia in 1962. Old Slavonic Moscow had remained a quiet provincial backwater throughout the nineteenth century, and it was only at the end of the first decade of the twentieth century that it suddenly began to vie with St Petersburg as a centre of the Russian artistic avant garde. Stravinsky also adored his native city, of course, because of its physical beauty. As Mikhail Druskin has commented, there is a correlation between the ‘bright, solemn, spacious’ proportions of its neoclassical architecture and the economy and simplicity of the neoclassical style Stravinsky was later to adopt.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, St Petersburg could match any other European capital for elegance and refinement. Its cultural life was greatly enriched by contact with Paris, Vienna and Berlin, cities to which there were fast train connections, and Russian society opened up still further following the 1905 Revolution, which led to an easing of censorship. The ascendancy at this time of the Mariinsky Theatre, which was beginning to hold its own with the world’s leading opera houses, with appearances by singers and conductors from abroad and a superb native company, is emblematic. From 1906 onwards, Diaghilev began triumphantly to export Russia’s cultural legacy to the West before striding boldly into history by commissioning the unknown Igor Stravinsky to write scores which drew from, transformed and transcended the Russian background he had been brought up in.

As Richard Taruskin has so amply demonstrated, it was only when Stravinsky came into contact with the World of Art circle that he first started to consider Russian folklore as source material for his music. A small but important role here was played by his friend Stepan Mitusov, who became the librettist of his first opera *The Nightingale*. Four years older than his friend, Mitusov was a well-read ‘intelligent amateur’, in the words of Stravinsky, who followed the latest artistic trends in Europe with a keen eye. He was also a good friend of the Rimsky-Korsakov family: his own family lived in the
same building and he had studied at the university with the composer’s sons. Mitusov got to know Stravinsky when he was sent by Rimsky-Korsakov to study harmony and counterpoint with Vasily Kalafati. The two first met in 1898, but their friendship began properly in 1903, and the two met regularly at the Rimsky-Korsakov apartment. As an amateur enthusiast, Mitusov was not bound by the same loyalties as Stravinsky, and according to one Russian critic it was he who took Stravinsky clandestinely to attend Evenings of Contemporary Music concerts. It was also at his apartment in 1904 that Stravinsky made the important acquaintance of the painter, archaeologist and writer Nikolai Rerikh (Roerich), who had been a friend of Mitusov since 1899. Six years later Stravinsky and Rerikh began to collaborate in the creation of the epoch-making The Rite of Spring, first performed in 1913.

In The Rite of Spring Stravinsky presented Russian folk life with a greater authenticity than any other composer before him. It was the apotheosis of the neo-nationalist style cultivated by the artists and aesthetes of the World of Art group that so captivated Western audiences. Unlike the nostalgic and conservative aesthetic fostered by Alexander III, which had produced such backward-looking buildings as the Church of the Resurrection (a faux St Basil’s which was completed in 1907), the neo-nationalism of the Russian avant garde was inspired by the desire to create something new. It had begun in the 1870s, as a desire to preserve native crafts in the face of encroaching capitalism and urbanisation, at the artists’ colony set up at Abramtsevo, the estate of Savva Mamontov, a merchant who had made his millions building railways in Russia. The first neo-nationalists, in fact, were artists linked to the Wanderers movement. Soon, however, particularly at the other important artists’ colony set up by Princess Tenisheva in the 1890s at her estate in Talashkino, native folklore came to be seen more as a stylistic resource with which to regenerate art and infuse it with a vigour and energy that was commonly felt to have been lost.

Stravinsky was the first Russian composer to turn to folklore as a source for stylistic renewal and experimentation, but it was only some time after he began working with Diaghilev and the World of Art group in Paris that he started consciously exploiting its potential. In so doing he moved abruptly away from the ‘academic’ and ‘de-nationalised’ style of composition that characterised much of the Russian music written at that time. Ethnographic colour – as artistic content – had been the cornerstone of nationalist aesthetics of the 1870s, but by this time had come to be regarded as distinctly outmoded. It was Diaghilev’s genius to perceive that native style, made part of a modernist aesthetic, was an essential ingredient if Russia was to come into its own and contribute something new to world culture, and this was a vital factor in the creation of the Ballets Russes, in whose success Stravinsky
was to become such a linchpin. And, after his first commission to write the score to *Firebird* in 1909, it inspired the development of a neo-nationalist orientation in Stravinsky’s music that would later explode with *The Rite of Spring* and culminate in the composition of *Les Noces*, the representation of the Russian peasant wedding, where even the intricate oral rules followed by folk singers are scrupulously replicated.

For *Firebird*, Stravinsky wrote music to a scenario already planned by Fokine which fused several Russian fairy tales involving mythical firebirds. The resulting score was an assimilation of ‘contemporary Russian idioms’\(^35\) which was perceived as Russian-influenced in France and as French-influenced in Russia. It was almost the last composition Stravinsky wrote in Russia and was still quite conventional in its treatment of native folklore. *Petrushka*, Stravinsky’s second ballet for Diaghilev, premiered in 1911, was a transitional work, and the composer had much more of a hand in its planning through his collaboration with Alexander Benois. Although Petrushka had part-Italian origins in Pulcinella (he became Punch in England), and in the ballet became a *commedia dell’arte* Pierrot figure, he was based on the Russian puppet-show character who was traditionally part of the time-honoured Shrovetide festivities. Stravinsky contributed to the creation of authenticity in the representation of the Shrovetide revelries by suggesting the introduction of traditional Russian mummers, even though his knowledge of them almost certainly came only from seeing his father perform in Serov’s *The Power of the Fiend* at the Mariinsky Theatre when he was growing up. The opera features a Russian Shrovetide scene with mummers in its fourth act.\(^36\)

It was with the score of *Petrushka* that Stravinsky found the way forward out of the musical *cul de sac* in which he had found himself as a protegé of Rimsky-Korsakov. It teems with borrowed urban and rural folksongs from a wide array of collections, and also – more significantly – the first examples of Stravinsky’s deliberate adoption of folkloric style to create something entirely new and distinctive of his own. An important role here was played by musical ethnographers, in particular Yuly Melgunov and Evgeniya Lineva, who undertook to collect folksongs in a much more rigorous and authentic manner than had been the case before, by attempting to transcribe the complete performances of songs as performed by entire groups rather than by individuals.\(^37\) Lineva’s use of the phonograph in the three collections of transcriptions she published between 1904 and 1909 for the first time enabled the study of the musical form of Russian folksong, and revealed the depersonalised nature and simplicity of its performance. Her work, which followed on from Melgunov’s pioneering methods in exploring the counterpoint of folksongs through their *podgoloski* (the harmonically variant reproductions of the main tune performed by the chorus), undoubtedly
exerted a major influence on Stravinsky. The neo-nationalist approach that Stravinsky took in the composition of the score of *Petrushka* was unprecedented in Russian music, and was to lead to an abrupt and irrevocable break with the upholders of the Rimsky-Korsakov school, who henceforth viewed Stravinsky as an apostate. In a review of the score’s Russian premiere in 1913, Rimsky-Korsakov’s son Andrey condemned the work as ‘deliberate and cultivated pseudo-nationalism’.38

In July 1911, after the successful premiere of *Petrushka* in Paris, Stravinsky resumed work on the score that would become *The Rite of Spring*, and travelled to Talashkino to work with Rerikh on its scenario. Rerikh, a close friend of Princess Tenisheva, was one of the artists associated with the World of Art movement, and had achieved international prominence when invited by Diaghilev to design the sets and costumes for the *Polovtsian Dances* (the second act of Borodin’s *Prince Igor*), which were presented as part of the first Ballets Russes season in Paris in 1909.39 In keeping with the interest amongst the Russian literary and artistic avant garde in pagan Russian culture which had, amongst other things, produced Gorodetsky’s *Yar* in 1907, Rerikh was fascinated by the ancient past of the Slavic peoples, and their rites and customs were the inspiration behind most of his painting and essays at this time. When Stravinsky had started planning *The Rite of Spring* in 1910, it was therefore natural for him to ask Rerikh to become his collaborator.40

In characteristic fashion, and out of an intense desire to dissociate himself from his Russian background and ally himself instead to the European avant garde, Stravinsky later denied the presence of authentic folk material in the score, but these scenes of pagan Russia, which celebrate the sacrifice of a young maiden, were from the beginning intended to be as ethnographically accurate as possible. Appropriate folksongs were assiduously researched in published collections (including the 1877 anthology compiled by his former teacher Rimsky-Korsakov), noted down from singers or gathered from friends like Stepan Mitusov and then absorbed into Stravinsky’s compositional processes. What finally emerged was a musical texture whose sources are not immediately recognisable in the score.

Stravinsky’s great innovation was thus to combine Russian elements from his musical upbringing with the essential stylistic features of native folklore, in order to approach nationalism from a modernist standpoint.41 The result was the composition of scores whose structure is consistently based on the principles of *drobnost* (the idea of a work being the sum of its parts rather than driven by an overarching idea), *nepodvizhnost* (the accumulation of ‘individualized static blocks in striking juxtapositions’)42 and *uproshcheniye* (the reduction of any organic development between the different sections of a work, producing an impression of immobility).43 Stravinsky successfully
broke with the linear progression and logical development of Germanic musical tradition by deliberately turning his back on it. He had, in the words of Artur Lur’ye (Arthur Lourié), stopped trying to pour Russian wine into German bottles, and cut his ties with Europe. Russian composers had in fact traditionally balked at the concept of complying with German symphonic form, but the phenomenon has its counterpart in the other arts. A refusal to adhere to traditional ‘Western’ genres is, after all, a hallmark of Russian literature, which begins with Pushkin, author of a novel in verse. Tolstoy regarded Russian literature as being totally different from Western literature and after his crisis rejected traditional Western genres in favour of creating his own. Perhaps there is even a correlation with the quality of nepodvizhnost, furthermore, in a novel like War and Peace, constructed by the accumulation of dozens of discrete short chapters in which the work’s central ideas are often repeated. As ‘verbal icons’ of his religious view, as Richard Gustafson has so compellingly argued them to be, the thematic structure of Tolstoy’s literary works is often far from linear. The same is true of the works of Nikolai Gogol, especially his novel (which he called a ‘poema’) Dead Souls. It is interesting in this regard to recall the seminal ideas of the theologian and art historian Pavel Florensky about the ‘reverse perspective’ of icons, which Mikhail Druskin brings into his discussion of Stravinsky’s treatment of time and space. Druskin draws an analogy between the structure of Stravinsky’s works and the simultaneous multi-dimensionality of Cubism. In identifying the replacement of a linear process of development in his music with the ‘mutual relating of different planes and volumes, the single vanishing point by a multiplicity of “horizon-levels”, unicentral, object-centred composition by multicentral’, Druskin also demonstrates a fundamental similarity with the system of reverse perspective that is a cornerstone of the icon-painting tradition in Russia. Boris Uspensky defines it thus:

the system of reverse perspective arises from the viewer’s (i.e. the artist’s) adopting a number of different positions. That is to say, it is connected with the dynamic of the viewer’s gaze and the consequent total impression obtained . . . the opposition between linear and reverse perspective can be connected with either the immobility, or on the other hand, with the dynamism of the viewer’s position.48

Florensky observed that reverse perspective is ‘multi-central’, in contrast to ‘linear’ perspective, which is ‘unicentral’. Surely much fruitful enquiry could be conducted into the impact of folkloric style on Russian art and literature coterminous with or preceding Stravinsky’s most ‘Russian’ works. Similarly, a more detailed exploration of the impact of such cardinal aesthetic principles as reverse perspective on Stravinsky’s works, perhaps in the
context of Russian literature, might further help to define what is intrinsi-
cally Russian about them.

The sense of Russia as being fundamentally ‘different’, neither European
nor Asian, fuelled Stravinsky’s creation of a new musical language, and it
also underpins the ideology of the Eurasian movement to which the com-
poser was close in the early 1920s. It was a movement that arose out of the
acute sense of loss felt by the first generation of Russian emigrants. The
basic idea of Eurasianism was that Russia had erred by following a pro-
cess of Westernisation with Peter the Great’s reforms. World War I and the
1917 Revolution were the inevitable consequences of the ‘identity crisis’
that naturally followed as soon as Russia had started on a path that was
alien to her destiny. But, in typical Slavophile fashion, the Eurasianists be-
lieved Russia had a unique mission to rescue the degraded and corrupt West,
because of its ‘healthy barbarism’. Russian Orthodoxy lay at the heart of
Eurasianism, and the final element of Stravinsky’s Russian origins that must
be considered is his religious orientation. Stravinsky was baptised into the
Russian Orthodox faith, but like most members of the Russian intelligentsia
did not have a particularly devout upbringing. It was only when he was in
emigration in the 1920s that he turned back to his mother church. In a
famous letter written to Diaghilev in April 1926, Stravinsky claimed not
to have fasted for twenty years but that he now felt a ‘mental and spiri-
tual need’ to do so. He had lived next to the Russian Orthodox church in
Biarritz in the early 1920s, and started dating his compositions according
to the festivals in the Orthodox church calendar. He started to wear a
crucifix and collect icons. Stravinsky’s friendship with the Eurasian Pyotr
Suvchinsky (Pierre Souvtchinsky) reinforced his new religiosity, which was
accompanied by regular attendance at mass and regular fasting. As Walsh
has argued, there was a strong linguistic reason for Stravinsky’s reconversion
to the Orthodox Church, which first resulted musically in a setting of the
Lord’s Prayer in 1926. Stravinsky maintained that Russian had always been
the language of prayer for him, but more generally it was increasingly the
strongest link he had with the country he could no longer visit – that is
to say, the Russia of his pre-revolutionary St Petersburg. In a newspaper
interview during his visit to the Soviet Union in 1962, he perhaps unwit-
tingly revealed how deep his Russian origins lay by drawing an important
connection between the language in which he thought and spoke and the
language in which he expressed himself in his music.