Introduction

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In order to place cultural exchange within the perspective of early modern research, one must first define ‘culture’. Both cultural studies and the older *Kulturgeschichte* (cultural history) have offered a broad spectrum of definitions, which need not be mentioned here.¹ One extreme position claims that historical realities can only be understood as culture, thereby making ‘cultural history’ superfluous by collapsing history into ‘culture’, which includes human actions. Unfortunately, this definition renders the object of research extremely unclear and difficult to grasp. Consequently, cultural studies offers readers a wide spectrum of articles dealing with ‘culture’, which resemble salad bowls with ingredients which sometimes stimulate the appetite but sometimes taste insipid.²

Thomas Nipperdey’s recent reductionist attempt to define culture as ‘works, work systems and built-up institutions’,³ certainly does not resolve this dilemma, although one must admit that this perspective

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on culture has some merit, considering the dominance of post-modern notions of culture. Beyond such things as terraced houses, detergents, comic strips or rap music, ‘culture’ also deals with such items of ‘high’ art as paintings and symphonies, which offer extremely revealing sources for historical analysis. Without reverting to an overtly elitist notion of culture, one cannot neglect such things, as ‘cultural studies’ often do. Moreover, reconstructing their history helps explain the ways they were perceived aesthetically, thereby providing a valuable point of reference which historians rarely consider, but which nevertheless offers a feasible approach to any history of culture and enriches the anthropological dimension of research in cultural history. Without including such aims, ‘cultural history’ becomes a mere smorgasbord of curiosities. It is essential to define and investigate exactly what poses important problems for the history of cultural transfers. The relevance and legitimacy of case studies results from research objectives where realisation and interest are firmly linked. Therefore we will offer some examples of pertinent questions, showing why the history of cultural transfers and exchanges has been – and remains – important.

CULTURAL TRANSFER AND CULTURAL EXCHANGE

Although the term is relatively new and has seldom been subjected to theoretical reflection, cultural transfer has been an area of research for a very long time. The concept must not be reduced to transfers


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and exchanges between ‘national’ cultures, because exchange processes are an elemental precondition of every culture. No culture arises autonomously, outside a specific space and time, or without some type of communication. Cultural exchange and transfer have therefore always been common and frequent phenomena.

Every art historian trying to reconstruct ‘influences’ among artists must deal with cultural transfer; so must every description of regional styles, or assessments of more general epochs like the Renaissance or the Baroque. The former, for example, integrated Greek, Flemish and oriental elements and redistributed them through Europe in varying combinations.6 By being spread across Europe, Baroque culture ultimately became a colourful chimera of different cultures. Just like ceramics,7 clothing styles8 or the appearance of special types of furniture, such buildings as the cathedral of Regensburg, the castle of Amboise or the tsar’s palace in St Petersburg result from very difficult processes of cultural transfer. Like technical inventions or Renaissance panels, gestures, dances and manners similarly result from cultural transfers.9 One could say that the genesis and structure of every cultural epoch must be understood as the result of complex horizontal and vertical processes of cultural transfer – a differentiation we will address in detail. At the same time, cultural transfers often had a social and political dimension giving them the characteristics of a force imposed from outside. This is equally true of triumphant Counter-Reformation Baroque churches and of Coca-Cola bottles: one can do little more than look at or enter the church, or empty the bottle. Both represent actions of acquisition and perhaps even of subjugation.

For such reasons, one should differentiate between cultural transfer and cultural exchange. The former simply means that something has been ‘transferred’ from one culture to another – a process with an

7 See chapters by Gaimster and Howard in this volume.
8 See chapters by Paresys and Rublack in this volume.
9 See Roodenburg and Dilwyn Knox in this volume, and the latter’s many studies on gesture; also Jan Bremmer and Herman Roodenburg (eds.), A Cultural History of Gesture from Antiquity to the Present Day (Cambridge: Polity Press, 1991); on dancing, see Nordera’s chapter in this volume.
active giver and a completely passive receiver, something which almost never occurred in historical reality. Cultural exchange, by contrast, describes a much more dynamic process involving an interaction between ‘giver’ and ‘receiver’ in which the differentiation between them blurs quickly whenever two or even more cultures participate in the processes. These exchanges can occur through conversations which leave no, or barely noticeable, evidence; for historical research, only the traces conserved in texts and objects become relevant, because the original participants cannot be interrogated directly.

ICONOLOGY AND CULTURAL TRANSFER

Aby Warburg’s complex system offers a starting point for theoretical reflection – always bearing in mind the problem of hermeneutics. In a famous article on the Schifanoia frescos in Ferrara, Warburg wrote about the ‘migration of symbols’ on a higher level than anyone before him. His argument is widely known, but two points deserve to be underlined. The first concerns Warburg’s insightful discussion of Francesco del Cossa’s ‘Four Seasons’ frescos, offering a solution to their puzzle by identifying the planetary system lying at their centre. He deciphers the symbols and figures of the imagery at Ferrara and traces their travels through time and space. Some were borrowed from antiquity, some came from the Orient, and some travelled from the Middle East to Spain; all of them became part of the monumental cosmology of the Italian quattrocento. The second observation concerns Warburg’s ambitious iconological method. He was convinced that by interpreting the frescos at Ferrara, he could also identify the process of civilisation, but he failed because of his eccentric psychohistorical method, based on daring speculations about the relationship between beauty and reason, which interpreted the triumph of the Olympian gods during the High Renaissance as a triumph of rational

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enlightenment over the dark and irrational forces of the ‘medieval’ Orient.\textsuperscript{11}

Warburg’s theory of cultural exchange and its role in a worldwide historical process illustrates not only the fascinating perspectives this subject embodies, but also the dangers of an uncritical methodological approach to works of art. Warburg did not reconstruct the social milieu of these frescos, as many have believed; instead, he used his knowledge of iconology to reconstruct social interrelations and transfer processes – an approach later applied to Florentine painting by Frederick Antal.\textsuperscript{12}

\section*{Identities and Alterities}

Exchange processes are vital to identity formation because cultural exchange awakens people to alterity. It was precisely confrontations with the ‘other’ which stimulated early forms of nationalism and later formed national identities.\textsuperscript{13} This means that cultural exchange doesn’t necessarily lead to cultural mixtures and hybrids, but that it also has meaning for constructing one’s own culture. If Christianity became

\begin{footnotesize}
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\item Frederick Antal, \textit{Florentine Painting and its Social Background: The Bourgeois Republic before Cosimo de’ Medici’s Advent to Power, XIVth and Early XVth Centuries} (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1948); also his \textit{Hogarth and his Place in European Art} (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962).
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the leading religion in the late Roman Empire, didn’t it inherit some elements from the widespread Mithras culture? Jesuit missionaries in China tried to convert their audience to Christian belief by making the rites and other externals of their religion conform to Chinese practices.

Reactions to imported French customs and luxury goods like clothing in the Holy Roman Empire during the seventeenth century show how meaningful the ‘other’ can become in forming identity. That of Protestant Germans was mainly anti-Roman, while German Catholic identity was often anti-Protestant. In seventeenth-century writings and paintings, the ‘upright’, ‘honest’, ‘old-fashioned’ Teutsche constructed their identity by contrasting themselves as fundamentally different from the Frenchified dandy.14

Obviously, ‘self-invention’ through rejecting some ‘other’ has a problematic and even dangerous side. Promoting one’s own civilisation requires deprecating others as ‘savages’ and ‘uncivilised’ – something inferior which must be shut away in a ghetto or even obliterated. The conviction of one’s own moral superiority is founded on the certainty that these others are evil, heretics, and perhaps even in league with the devil. Nevertheless, experience of the other – some ‘exchange’ with it – always stands at the beginning of the construction of identity. Sometimes it is simply amazement towards the foreign,15 but often it is also an experience marked by misunderstandings and vague premonitions. Perceptions coagulate into stereotypes containing an explanation for rejection, and the claim of one’s own superiority provides maxims for dealing with another person who appears as an adversary or an enemy.16

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The history of cultural relations between Christian Europe and its Jews or Moslems offers some examples. Similarly, conflicts between different denominations, for example in France, in the Holy Roman Empire, or in the Netherlands, were also necessarily based on processes of exchange. One notices a rival’s dogmas, religious doctrines and ritual systems, but mainly their habits and lifestyles which differ from one’s own. Approaches and absorptions took place precisely in ‘contact areas’, for example mixed-confessional towns, which the theory of cultural transfer calls métissage – interdigitation and mixture of cultural elements. The notion, particularly widespread in colonial studies, can also be applied to early modern Europe.

Boundaries

As this example reminds us, both ‘invisible’ and visible boundaries are decisive elements for research on cultural transfers. One culture must be distinguishable from the other, sometimes by occupying different political or ethnic spaces between which exchange processes occur, or in ‘experience communities’ differentiated either through religion, ideology or social strata. Of special interest is the formation of a third area of ‘mixed’ zones, where cultural métissage becomes accessible for analysis: zones of contact where different denominations coexist, or fringe areas where the ‘cohabitation’ of different cultures creates something new, a ‘third’ thing. Here, people speak both languages in addition to their own dialect, and wear costumes in which both worlds are represented. In short, a characteristic tradition develops


See Schmale and Stauber, Menschen und Grenzen.
from such mixing, the central element of which involves the integration of different influences.

Integrating elements from different cultural systems represents one response to an identity problem. Because life in such fringe areas involves prolonged proximity to an ‘other’, experiencing such alternatives may appear either threatening, unpleasant or desirable. However, its significance for identity formation seems apparent. A rich merchant who clothes and adorns himself like a patrician does more than show his social ambition; he also documents a cultural exchange, a habitual incertitude to which he commits himself. ¹⁹

A typical case of a ‘third space’ is the Oberrheingebiet, the region of Alsace with its cultural centre at Basel, where the cultural areas of Germany, France and the Swiss Confederation intersected. This region has always been crossed by migrants following important trade routes or military roads. Already during the Middle Ages, French, German and even Dutch influences had established a unique blend with a distinctive cultural physiognomy. The region spawned political and spiritual movements characterised by religious mysticism and humanistic intellectualism. The work of painter Martin Schongauer (c.1450–91) represents the culture of this area in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. His etchings (Schongauer was a virtuoso of this technique) spread across central Europe, but also around his home town. For example, the representations of scenes from Christ’s Passion and other motifs on the altar retable of the parish church of Buhl (near Colmar) closely resemble Schongauer’s original etchings. However, one can also perceive various themes associated with much less famous regional artists.

**EUROPE AND BEYOND**

Paintings, graphic art and other artworks often preserve unquestionable traces of cultural transfers, testifying to contacts with foreign

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cultures in both Americas, Africa, the Islamic world and even the Far East. An Indian miniature served as Rembrandt’s model for his drawing of four sheiks, sitting amidst wide natural scenery and drinking their tea, transforming the scene into ‘western’ space. Of course, cultural transfer also occurred in the opposite direction. Christian missionaries brought western art to the Far East in the sixteenth century. Traces of European commerce and art can even be found in north Indian Moghul painting, for example a sandglass or putti. If such exchange processes mainly interest historians of culture, they also

20 Vittore Carpaccio’s images offer African references, e.g. his miracle-representation of the relic of the cross includes blacks, showing the presence of African slaves in Venice. Documents depicting slavery were rare in early modern Europe; see Robert Davis, ‘Slave redemption in Venice, 1585–1797’, in John Martin and Dennis Romano (eds.), Venice Reconsidered: The History and Civilization of an Italian City State (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2000), pp. 454–87.


23 Belting, Bild-Anthropologie, pp. 226f.

demonstrate both métissage and conflicts among different mentalities and habitual systems.

European picture formulas also ‘infiltrated’ the iconography of other cultures, as when the Mexican god Huitzilopochtli was transformed into a giant devilish figure called ‘Vitzliputzli’. It is difficult to say if such transformations alienated Indians from worshipping their old gods or prevented European Christians in South America from infection by heathen Indians. Old picture formulas still served as indoctrination in the nineteenth century; a fresco in a little church in the Peruvian highlands, ascribed to a mestizo, Tadeo Escalante, shows the damned being thrown down into hell — a pictorial tradition dating from the late European Middle Ages, mediated here through a copper engraving of 1615, illustrating a cultural transfer across enormous intervals of space and time.

Exchanges within Europe are much closer and far more frequent. Titian’s equestrian image of Charles V, now in Madrid’s Prado, shows the emperor wearing armour made in Augsburg by Desiderius Helmschmied. A portrait of Antonio Perrenot de Granvelle, now in Kansas City, shows a pendulum clock also made in Augsburg. Both offer evidence of close cultural relations between the Habsburg court and the skilled German craftsmen who upheld its European rank.

‘Mediterranean’ art by such masters as El Greco or Giambattista Tiepolo similarly provides examples of wide-ranging exchanges. El Greco’s superb Mannerist art, deeply appreciated in Counter-Reformation Spain, shows beyond doubt the influence of both his Venetian teacher Tintoretto and the icons in his Cretan homeland. The evident convergence between his stylistic peculiarities and the mentality of Counter-Reformation Spain evidently fascinated patrons, making his paintings important sources for the history of mentalities.
