Johann Joachim Winckelmann (1717-1768): charting the artistic development of nations

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The first edition of the *Geschichte der Kunst des Alterthums* was published in Dresden at the very end of 1763. Its author, Johann Joachim Winckelmann, was a German antiquarian who had been resident in Rome since 1755 and had already made a name for himself with a string of shorter antiquarian publications on ancient art, including a famous essay titled *Thoughts on the Imitation of Greek Works in Painting and Sculpture*, an analytical catalogue of a major collection of engraved ancient gems and a series of reports on finds from the contemporary excavations at Herculaneum and Pompeii.¹ The *Geschichte* – which was quickly translated into French and Italian – was Winckelmann’s most innovative and influential work, and is the principal reason why he is traditionally dubbed both the ‘father of art history’ and the ‘father of (classical) archaeology’. Its importance lies in Winckelmann’s aspiration to furnish the blueprint for a new kind of cultural, social and political history of ancient peoples by combining both material and literary evidence into a new, comprehensive and causal analysis, of the rise, flourishing and decline of each people’s artistic production.

The work is divided into two parts: in the first, Winckelmann provided a systematic, theoretical discussion of the ‘origins of art and reasons for its diversity among peoples’, followed by a comparative analysis of extant monuments of the ancient Egyptians, Etruscans, Greeks and Romans based upon drawing visual distinctions between chronologically successive styles. The second part offered a more detailed historical narrative of the ‘growth, flowering and fall’ of Greek and Roman art, drawing upon ancient literary sources in order to relate the changing fortunes of art in Greece and Rome to the ‘external circumstances’ – defined in Part 1 as climate (topography and especially meteorological environment), education and ways of thinking, and political constitution – pertaining from the archaic period to the time of Justinian. In addition to a moderate climate, this narrative privileged political freedom, a competitive culture, and social respect accorded to artists as the principal causes of Greek artistic greatness. Part 2 of the *Geschichte* also included poetic descriptions of a number of the most famous Greco-Roman statuary to be found in Rome and Florence: works such as the Apollo Belvedere and the Niobe Group, which had been known and venerated since the Renaissance.

The *Geschichte der Kunst des Alterthums* found instant success: it received at least two French translations within Winckelmann’s short lifetime, and an Italian translation followed in 1783. Winckelmann’s shocking murder in Trieste at the age of 50, meant that subsequent editions were undertaken by committees of posthumous editors; it is debated how true they were to Winckelmann’s intentions for revising his work, and whether or not they suppressed certain arguments, such as the acknowledgement that Greek sculpture was painted in colours, which were incompatible with northern European, neoclassical notions of ancestral Greek

‘purity’. But Winckelmann’s arguments, especially his emphasis on the ‘originality’ and ‘superiority’ of Greek art above that of other peoples, also contributed strongly to the formation and development of those ideals.

Within classical scholarship, what have been identified as conflicting ‘normative’ and ‘historicising’ elements in the Geschichete have led in different directions. On the one hand, Winckelmann’s attempt to combine material and literary/documentary evidence into a comprehensive, multi-perspective analysis of the ancient world points to the nineteenth-century paradigm of classics as ‘Altertumswissenschaft’: the multidisciplinary and historicising study of the antiquity pursued by figures such as Barthold Niebuhr and August Boeckh. On the other, Winckelmann’s emphasis on the superiority of Greek art and culture above those of other ancient peoples, and on the unparalleled edification offered by their study, set the scene for the turning away of Classics from the study of the ancient Mediterranean as a whole towards a narrower focus on Greece and Rome. Winckelmann’s favouring of polygenetic rather than diffusionist accounts of the development of Greek art, and his views on the anatomical superiority of Greeks and southern Italians, also played a role in the nineteenth-century physical anthropology and the pseudo-science of ‘race’, though it must be noted that heredity plays little role in Winckelmann’s system. His work provides a prominent and influential example of a kind of eighteenth-century historical theorising that takes the ‘nation’ or ‘people’, considered as an organic unity, as the primary unit of historical or cultural analysis, and applies a developmental or evolutionary paradigm to cultural history. These assumptions have had far-reaching influence not only in humanities scholarship, but also in political thought. His claim that the beauty of Greek art was a product of Greek ‘freedom’ inspired French revolutionaries, while his open admiration for beauty, especially of the male form, was a stimulus to late nineteenth-century Aestheticism and the nascent European homosexual emancipation movement.3

One of Winckelmann’s principal methodological innovations was his refinement of ‘style analysis’, or the attempt to attribute the production of material objects to artists, periods or places on the basis of visual characteristics. The notion that visual analysis could provide a key to distinguish between the artistic styles of different nations or peoples, and in the case of a single people to differentiate chronological phases in the development of the arts, was not original to Winckelmann. His older contemporary, the French antiquarian Comte Caylus, had anticipated it in his publication of his extensive collection of antiquities; Italian antiquarians such as Filippo Buonarotti had also experimented with using connoisseurial techniques to distinguish between the ‘maniera’ of different periods and nations.4 But Winckelmann

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pushed stylistic discrimination further, on the basis of first-hand analysis of a larger corpus of ancient objects, than any of his predecessors had managed. His division of Greek art into the ‘most ancient’, ‘high’ (Phidian) and ‘beautiful’ (Praxitelean) styles finds its echo in the periodisation of archaic, early/late classical, and Hellenistic art still found in introductory textbooks today and had an equally strong influence on the display of classical archaeological collections in museums.5

Winckelmann was murdered in 1768, in the prime of his life and mid-way through the revisions to a second, expanded version of the Geschichte. Though this did appear posthumously in 1776, it is in the first edition that the methodological premisses, and aporias, of his ‘system’ are most evident. The axioms by which Winckelmann builds up his system, and their limitations, are particularly apparent in Part 1, Chapter 3 of the Geschichte der Kunst, in which Winckelmann treats of the art of the ancient Etruscans: an ancient Italian people, resident in and around what is now Tuscany and Umbria, who – so the ancient literary sources claimed – had formed a mighty civilization that dominated much of the Italian peninsula before the rise of Rome. Although Greek, rather than Etruscan, art provides the principal focus of the Geschichte, the Etruscans furnish both a linchpin of Winckelmann’s historical narrative and a crucial test case for his working methods.

In part because of he could not read the Etruscan language, Winckelmann was more reliant in this chapter of the Geschichte than elsewhere upon conjectures formed from the surviving visual evidence.6 (As elsewhere, Winckelmann’s discussion tends to be based upon objects to be found in the cabinets of connoisseurs and antiquarians, rather than unpublished material from new archaeological excavations or the sites themselves. Where the latter are cited, it is via the work of earlier authors such as Dempster, Buonarotti and Gori.) The ideological role of ancient Etruria in political competition between Florence and Rome across the early modern period had generated its own traditions of partisan scholarship, sometimes even backed up by forged objects.7 The Etruscans, as an important, historically attested civilization resident in Italy during the early centuries of Rome’s rise, thus provided a particularly challenging case for both Winckelmann’s attempt to distinguish the works of different peoples on the basis of visual characteristics and to articulate a systematic account of art’s flourishing and fall in relation to general causes.

To follow Winckelmann in taking the latter first: because, as he concedes in the opening section, the Etruscans were blessed with a climate as favourable as that of the Greeks and with a non-despotic form of government, he must nonetheless account for what he considers the failure of their art to achieve as high a standard of beauty as that evident in Athens. His explanation, which appeals to the ‘Melancholie’ (‘melancholy’) and ‘Aberglauben’ (‘superstition’) inherent in the Etruscan temperament reflects the emphases on Etruscan


religious practice that had informed both the ancient sources and early modern Etruscan scholarship and would have a long afterlife: in the 1870s, Nietzsche would refer to ‘the dark voluptuousness of the Etruscans (‘die finstere Wollüstigkeit der Etrusker’). The parallel course followed by Greek and Etruscan history also, so Winckelmann argues, accounts for similarities in their art in the earliest periods: hence Winckelmann confesses to difficulty in distinguishing securely between the archaic Greek and Etruscan styles. In the case of several objects claimed as ‘Etruscan’ in Winckelmann’s day, such as the ‘Idolino’ on display in Florence and the ‘Etruscan vases’ excavated in Nola, Winckelmann implies – without quite daring to declare – that they are Greek. Such uncertainty over the correct stylistic attribution of individual objects may also explain why Winckelmann first discusses what he judges to be the most significant surviving Etruscan artefacts in typological order: statues, reliefs, gems, coins and vases, before reordering them according to period style. His concluding claim that the stylistic similarity of Etruscan and Greek art means that his discussion of the Etruscans may serve as a preparation (‘eine Vorbereitung’) for that of the Greeks serves as a reminder of the universalizing premises of the Geschichte, which proceeds from the axiom that ‘Art seems to have arisen in a similar way among all peoples who have practiced it’ (‘Die Kunst scheint unter allen Völkern, welche dieselbe geübet haben, auf gleiche Art entsprungen zu seyn’). Within Winckelmann’s system it is historical differences, rather than similarities, that require historical explanation.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC DETAILS

First publication: Dresden, Walther, dated 1764.


Recommended critical edition:
Johann Joachim Winckelmann, Schriften und Nachlaß:


Volumes IV.1 and IV.3 are available open-access at


Recommended selection for students:


**RECOMMENDED READINGS**


