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Consuming problems: worldly goods in Renaissance Venice

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The onset of consumerism has proved to be a compelling theme in historical studies of consumption because consumerism – typically equated with a compelling desire to amass non-essential material goods – is generally understood to be a defining characteristic of modern Western society. By investigating this so-called ‘revolution’ in consumer behaviour, historians have highlighted the transition from a traditional society to a modern one. While much of their discussion has centred on the eighteenth century, such consumerism has also been identified as the driving force of Renaissance cultural development. Indeed, Randolph Starn has noted that ‘By some recent accounts, Renaissance culture was the product of what amounted to an extended shopping spree.’

Although dating the development of such consumerism presents an interesting historical problem, we should be wary of imposing the concept too readily upon the distant past. The Renaissance is well known for being a notoriously problematical historical phenomenon. Given that it is no longer taken for granted that it represents the beginning of modernity, we cannot presuppose that consumerism, as defined above, was likely to have been one of its intrinsic features. Attitudes towards consumption in both the past and the present are particularly hard to encapsulate for they incorporate a variety of contradictory elements, differ from individual to individual, and are constantly evolving. Whereas careful adaptation of the methods used in other academic disciplines can help us to approach this elusive subject, significant problems face those who seek to understand consumption in the remote past. Not only are such analyses ultimately dependent upon the existence of appropriate evidence, but we also encounter systems of belief and structural realities quite different from our own. However, although unequivocal evidence relating to consumer behaviour in Renaissance Italy is extremely uneven, there is great value in attempting to locate consumption within this specific historical context. Such an exercise reveals that the notion of consumerism, in the sense in
The rhetoric and practice of expenditure

which it has usually been deployed by historians, may not be entirely appropriate.

This first chapter highlights the existence of various sets of ideas linked to the acquisition and use of material goods in the Italian peninsula, and relates some of those to the city of Venice and its inhabitants during a period of economic and demographic expansion (c.1450–c.1650). During this period, which has also been called the 'long' or 'extended' sixteenth century, Venice was crammed with both people and things. Best known as a focus of international trade and manufacturing, it was the capital of an extensive state incorporating diverse territories and cities, many of which had developed economies of their own. At that time the city of Venice was an emporium in every sense of the word since it was still a major retailing centre as well as a hub of wholesale trade, and numerous sources demonstrate its potential as a site for major 'shopping sprees'. The letters written by Albrecht Dürer to Willibald Pirckheimer during his second visit to the metropolis in 1506, for instance, reveal the kaleidoscopic range of objects which his patron expected Dürer to find for him: pearls and gemstones, rugs, history paintings, enamels, paper, cranes' and swans' feathers, as well as newly published Greek texts. While in Venice, Dürer also procured a set of clothes and a length of woollen cloth for himself. A remarkably wide range of Venetian inhabitants were able to acquire similar goods during the 'long' sixteenth century, although like Dürer they too were often strapped for cash. This is because items such as clothes, household furnishings, books, jewellery and various other types of precious objects circulated by many means, not simply through the exchange of cash for new manufactures. They could be purchased over or under the shop counter, old and new, or be obtained in lieu of payment, by default as well as design. They might also be bought at public auctions. Moveable goods could also be rented, borrowed, received as gifts or stolen. Dürer was certainly not unusual in being paid three rings for three small paintings while in Venice. This was a normal trading practice in that city as elsewhere, and it suggests that the ways in which Venetians of the time acquired and deployed moveable goods were often very different from our own. This is not to exclude them from consideration as consumers as we understand the term today, but rather to suggest that we need to consider very carefully what their consumption may have meant to them.

Although we are beginning to appreciate that consumer behaviour in the Italian peninsula during the period c.1450–c.1650 was shaped by ideas as well as by material considerations, the co-existence of diverse bodies of thought about the acquisition and use of goods at that time has still received insufficient attention. The complicated ideological background against which consumption took place in the period needs to be investigated before
we can discuss the relationship which contemporaries had with the material world around them. This chapter, therefore, highlights three inter-related sets of ideas which were current during the period in question relating to the acquisition and use of goods. These can be loosely categorized as intellectual, religious and socio-political. Unlike Goldthwaite or Starn, this chapter dwells on the negative views of the activities since they have been surprisingly neglected in existing historical analyses of consumption in the Italian peninsula. It also draws attention to ambiguities within those bodies of thought. Each of these issues represents a substantial historical topic in its own right and commands an extensive specialist literature; the discussion which follows is therefore necessarily schematic.

While some of the ideas which formed the background to consumption during the ‘long’ sixteenth century may appear familiar to modern observers, others are more historically specific. Certain types of decorative artefacts, for example, are thought to have appealed to the upper echelons of Italian Renaissance society because they offered a useful means of relaying edifying concepts from classical antiquity, providing a moral and intellectual engagement with the ancient past typical of Italian Renaissance culture as it has been traditionally defined. The banquet plate designs of Giulio Romano examined by Valerie Taylor in chapter 8 strikingly embody this trend. While its effect on consumer behaviour among the social elite has only become the subject of detailed study, this phenomenon has already been labelled ‘Renaissance chic’ by a well-known historian. An association with classical thought can be seen as benefiting such privileged groups of consumers in particular ways. For example, displaying a glass goblet which bore the words ‘Love requires faith’, in about 1500, might have served to highlight the discerning nature of its Venetian owners. Its aphorism, believed to be an ancient saying, communicated intellectual credibility and an awareness of the importance of moral improvement, and the goblet itself also revealed an appreciation of ancient technology (Figure 2).

The ancient sources and concepts which were rediscovered during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were an eclectic assemblage and had the potential to affect contemporary thinking in a variety of ways. In short, as well as taking educated Italians closer to goods, the study of such ideas could also place conceptual obstacles in the path of the same consumers. For example, the arcane corpus of Platonic and Neo-Platonic ideas, as reinterpreted in various parts of the Italian peninsula by fifteenth-century scholars such as Pier Candido Decembrio, Cardinal Bessarion and Marsilio Ficino, was as much a part of the ‘broad church’ that was Renaissance intellectual culture as were those of Cicero and Aristotle. And if an awareness of Neo-Platonic notions of beauty can be seen as fostering a taste for decorative objects such as mirrors, then it is also conceivable that knowledge of
2 Giovanni Maria Obizzo, goblet with roundels, c.1490-1510.
Worldly goods in Renaissance Venice
the Platonic ideal of communal ownership of property, not to mention of Platonic concerns about luxury, could have produced a more ambivalent effect. The Platonic ideal of communal ownership prompted intense debate among fifteenth-century intellectuals and also proved to be influential among the sixteenth-century and early seventeenth-century thinkers who, like Plato himself, envisioned perfect societies founded on such ideals. In the utopian city created by the literary adventurer Anton Francesco Doni while living in Venice in 1553, for instance: 'Everything was in common, and the peasants dressed like those in the city, because everyone carried away the reward of his labor and took what he needed.' The inclusion of the ideal of communal ownership, in a populist publication of this kind, suggests that this notion was expected to strike a chord with a broad lay readership. Indeed, it fits in both with a strand of socio-political criticism and with a strand of radical religious egalitarianism, which were articulated by certain groups of Venetian inhabitants in the early to mid-sixteenth century. Distancing oneself from material concerns was also an important tenet within the eclectic body of Stoic ideas, one of a number of other ancient schools of thought which, like Platonism, continued to influence intellectuals throughout the 'long' sixteenth century.

Although it does not provide all the answers, sensitivity to the co-existence of ambivalent ideas about the acquisition and ownership of goods within Renaissance intellectual circles can help us to understand why educated consumers might have striven to appear disinterested in extravagant displays of their material wealth. While Renaissance Venice has not traditionally been seen as a centre in which ancient thought was generally appreciated, this impression is steadily being revised. Knowledge of the Venetians' familiarity with classical and classicizing artefacts sheds a very different light on this subject, suggesting that they might have preferred to engage with antique ideas through tangible objects rather than with written texts. Their consumption patterns, as evidenced by the collection of antiquities associated with Venetian patricians such as the Grimani family and Gabriel Vendramin, reflect this. However, the acquisition of copies of antiquities and of new artefacts made in classical styles – such as those owned by the non-patrician collector Andrea Odoni – was probably more common within the higher strata of Venetian society. Such all'antica objects were produced and traded in Venice throughout much of the 'extended' sixteenth century, and the inscribed glass goblet mentioned above, which depicts a well-to-do Venetian couple as well as bearing the classicizing motto about love, is a pertinent example (Figure 2).

Just as Virgil's poetry apparently appealed beyond the social and intellectual elite of Venice, so too, it would seem, did the demand for what Isabella Palumbo-Fossati has called 'concrete and visible evidence of the
mythical classical world'. At least, that is the impression given in the latter part of the period, when portraits of ancient emperors were recorded on the walls of the house of a painter of miniatures, when a marbled wooden chest and a painting (of the Madonna) with gilded columns 'in the antique style', furnished the home of a lead founder, and when the goods sold at a debtors' auction included books on architecture by Palladio and Alberti belonging to a carpenter and a small all'antica turquoise set in gold owned by a smith. This impression contradicts the image given by the Venetian playwright Carlo Goldoni in his mid-eighteenth-century comedy La famiglia dell'antiquario. In this play, an appreciation of the antique is presented as the preserve of the nobility; moreover, the incomprehensibility of this expensive pastime (to a Venetian merchant as well as a nobleman's household servant) is central to the plot. Yet in sixteenth-century Venice, skilled artisans such as lead founders, carpenters and smiths made the many different types of 'chic' classicizing objects sold in the city, and in so doing they would have had to engage, at least to a certain degree, with the abstract concepts that these products were supposed to express. Such familiarity with classically informed artefacts has indeed been seen as providing craftsmen with an opportunity to boost their status in the 'extended' sixteenth century. This interpretation is supported by numerous examples: for instance, by the well-documented Venetian-based wood engraver Andrea Fosco, who not only owned such objects, but also was depicted on a portrait medal handling a piece of ancient sculpture.

The variety of meanings which classicizing artefacts could embody in this period, however, supports the idea that, like their social superiors, such artisans might have had a more complicated relationship with 'Renaissance chic' than this rather reductive term suggests. A rare insight into the range of associations which such antiquarian objects might have had for a Venetian artisan is, for example, elucidated by the will drawn up by Lorenzo Lotto while he was in his native city in 1546. In this document, which he wrote himself, Lotto described an antique engraved cornelian set in a gold ring which was one of a number of intaglio gems in his possession. Like the blacksmith owner of the all'antica turquoise mentioned above, Lotto used gems to manage his debts. He also used them to seal his letters to influential patrons. He explained that the cornelian's motif (of a crane taking off with a yoke at its feet and the sign of Mercury in its beak) 'represented the active and contemplative lives', and that 'through spiritual meditation' it was possible 'to rise above earthly things'. This description demonstrates Lotto's familiarity with the arcane worlds of classical scholarship, as well as his ability to use material objects to evoke those worlds. Yet his concern to signal this engagement with the realm of ideas, by means of an engraved gem which he possessed, cannot simply be attributed to a desire
to demonstrate his intellectual credentials or social pretensions. Lotto’s symbolic gem can be seen as serving another and, in contemporary terms, fundamentally important mnemonic purpose; it was a physical memento of the path to religious salvation.46

In this respect, as Stephen D. Bowd and J. Donald Cullington have noted, the ‘contempt for the world and for worldliness in a civic setting did not disappear or diminish during the Renaissance’.47 Material possessions were a key focus of this contemptus mundi, and their problematical associations were also far from forgotten during the ‘long’ sixteenth century. Indeed, the powerful traditional belief that material objects were part of this world and thus ultimately ephemeral was a constant during the sixteenth century. For the pious this meant that, in imitation of Christ, they were to focus instead on spiritual eternity.48 The view was shared by the various observant movements, itinerant preachers, religious prophesiers, new religious orders, charismatic figureheads, evangelical artisans and classically educated Christian humanists, who galvanized spiritual life at many levels of society during the devastating era of the Italian Wars (1494–1559).49 Such religious fervour – of which Girolamo Savonarola is only the most famous exponent – is now taken more seriously by historians of the Italian Renaissance, and we are also starting to appreciate that this dynamic force continued to shape opinion among many different social groups.50 Indeed, the desire to renovate society by returning to a simpler form of Christian behaviour, which underpinned these spiritual phenomena, can be seen as part of a long trend in Catholic reform which started well before the Council of Trent (1545–63).51 Viewed within this longer perspective, for example, the convent reforms highlighting the sinful connotations of possessions and of possessiveness towards material goods, which were undertaken by Tridentine reformers in Venice as elsewhere during the late 1500s, do not appear unusual.52 Such religious concerns had provoked similar criticisms, as well as similar institutional responses, on a number of occasions in early sixteenth-century Venice. For example, during the crisis prompted by the League of Cambrai (1508–17) a specific magistracy was formed to regulate ostentatious displays of material effects by the city’s inhabitants.53 Concerns about the problems posed by such effects were also central to the pre-Tridentine reform programme which the Venetian patrician Vincenzo Querini, who left his native city during the height of the League of Cambrai crisis for a more spiritual environment, devised for the Church as a whole.54 Knowledge of the persistent appeal of the ideal of religious poverty can also help to explain the zealously devout circle associated with the Venetian religious reformer Girolamo Miani in the late 1520s and the 1530s. This group’s close identification with the city’s beggars during the subsistence crisis of the late 1520s even extended to the fervent imitation of their threadbare clothing.55
As Lotto's interpretation of his intaglio gem reveals, the high, pagan worlds of classical scholarship could be compatible with this persisting religious contemptus mundi. Indeed, the Christian humanist Desiderius Erasmus, who, like Dürer, was in Venice during the turbulent first decade of the sixteenth century, applied the Platonic allegory of the cave to the things of the physical world, describing them as 'mere shadows of reality'. It is tempting to suggest, on the basis of an illustrated proverb published in Venice in 1564, that such spiritual concerns were also compatible with less recondite spheres of lay belief in the sixteenth century (Figure 3). The text of this proverb translates as: 'Who disregards the world and its things within it, is given wings to go to the top of the heavens.' Knowledge of the continuing importance of such ideas throughout society helps us to understand why,
for example, in his will of 1579, a relatively well-off Venetian shopkeeper called Zuane sought to be buried with ‘his dear Capuchin fathers’, dressed in their humble attire. The long-standing symbolic practice of being buried in such ‘virtuous’ mendicant garb was one of the distinctive features of Venetian Catholic ritual which the English traveller Thomas Coryate chose to recount to his countrymen in the early seventeenth century. While overt demonstrations of piety of this nature might no longer have been standard during the ‘extended’ sixteenth century (and were thus, as Sharon Strocchia has noted, all the more striking as a result), the spiritual ideal which inspired them continued to be upheld. For instance, in the well-ordered world of dress which Cesare Vecellio constructed at the end of the

1500s, married Venetian women of ‘a certain age’ dressed in accordance with their distance ‘from the vanities of the world’, and gave ‘themselves to the spiritual life’ (Figure 4). In these examples, as with Lotto’s cornelian and the worn-out garb affected by the Venetian patrician Girolamo Miani and his circle earlier in the century, material goods paradoxically served the useful religious function of signalling their owners’ pious asceticism. While this strategic deployment of material objects sits rather uneasily with the fact that those objects were part of the physical world which devout Christians were meant to spurn, such inconsistencies were an integral part of the complicated ideological background against which consumption took place during the period.

Within traditional religious thought, the things of the physical world were not problematic simply because they discouraged people from reaching ‘forward to the heavenly kingdom’; they could also act upon people and direct them to a much less desirable end – hell. As Valerie Taylor demonstrates in her essay on Giulio Romano’s silverware designs (chapter 8), the ways in which material artefacts played upon the senses were, like their classical associations, an important part of their attraction. Delightful to feel as well as see, such objects might also make a distinctive sound when touched, or emit a pleasant odour; indeed, scent holders became decorative objects in their own right in the sixteenth century. The cloth door-, wall- and bed-hangings, for example, which were intrinsic parts of the decorative ensembles of household furnishings most usually associated with the upper echelons of Venetian society, bore each of these sensory attributes. To understand their appeal to contemporaries, we need to appreciate the sounds which these textiles and their trimmings made when moved, and the scents they emitted, together with their colours, textures and weights. We would expect such qualities to have been esteemed by contemporaries for, as well as being attractive features in themselves, they were the means by which more abstract values – such as the cost of such items, their place of origin and their association with classical virtues such as splendour – were communicated. However, we also need to appreciate that within certain circles sensuous qualities of this nature continued to provoke serious religious concerns.

Not only were the senses often linked more with base material concerns than with the higher and more virtuous realms of the spirit, but gratification of those senses was thought to have serious spiritual consequences of its own. Indeed, in the ‘specially designed’ hell of seventeenth-century Jesuit preachers so dramatically evoked by Piero Camporesi, the senses were the means of punishment used to torture the bodies ‘which, on earth, they had served, smoothed and caressed’. In one fell swoop, a nobleman awakening in this hell might go ‘from smelling amber in gloves, liquid amber from
Messico [sic] in food, the essence of roses in baths and balsams in oil lamps, to suffering the infected stench of decaying bilges in that enormous sewer. Such indulgence in corporeal pleasures provoked this type of trenchant religious response because it was traditionally equated with the mortal sin of Luxury (Luxuria). As Christopher J. Berry has noted, "luxury" was a stock ingredient in the moral vocabulary of the "pre-modern" period. The close relationship between the senses and the capital sin of Luxury was also exploited to great dramatic effect in the profane literature of the 'long' sixteenth century, as well as in its art. The term 'luxury' continued to have strong sexual connotations in the period, being closely linked to lechery, an association which is largely absent from its modern usage. For example, a mercer accused of having lived 'luxuriously' in 1580s Venice was understood to have had carnal relationships with women outside marriage. Neutral modern uses of the word 'luxury' to describe the fine products of the period mistakenly negate this moral dimension, for, in contemporary terms, the appeal of such objects was theoretically akin to that of the flesh in that both invoked the senses.

The close relationship between sumptuous material effects and licentious behaviour is made quite clear in Thomas Coryate's ecstatic account of the apartment and clothes belonging to a Venetian courtesan. By including a detailed description of that courtesan's lavish trappings (which concluded with the grave warning that dressed in her glittering attire '[s]hee wil very neare benumme and captivate thy senses'), Coryate made his account of this otherwise apparently innocent supposed encounter somewhat suggestive. While Coryate's discourse can be seen as conforming to contemporary English views of Italy - and especially of Venice - as a place grounded in 'vanity and vice', similar references can also be found in Venetian literature itself. For example, in the anonymous sixteenth-century comedy La Venexiana, a Venetian widow orders her servant to prepare a room in which to receive a young foreign stranger. The deployment of sensual material effects - wall-hangings, a bed canopy and perfume - to decorate the room can be interpreted as an indication of the widow's amorous intentions, as well as a sign of her socio-economic status and of contemporary notions of hospitality. The continuing belief that sensuality, thus broadly interpreted, could lead to eternal damnation is graphically illustrated in an early seventeenth-century engraving and its accompanying poem, attributed to the Paduan publishing house of Pietro Paolo Tozzi (Figure 5). Here 'impious and harmful' sensuality, personified as a stylishly dressed woman seated on an elaborately carved chair, gives birth to the seven capital vices. Once nurtured by ignorance and pleasure, these vices are then goaded into the mouth of hell.

Knowledge of this particular body of ideas can help us to understand
the prominent place given to prostitutes in the transformative spiritual reform of the sixteenth century. As in the Paduan engraving, such women were conspicuous reminders of the ‘harmful’ relationship between sensuality and the vice of Luxury. Like the Gothic sculptures of Luxury carved on capitals of the Ducal Palace in Venice during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the city’s prostitutes were also associated with elaborate jewellery, a concern with their appearances, and elaborate clothing which exposed their breasts. The sixteenth-century belief that the eradication of these material associations was instrumental to their redemption is demonstrated by an altarpiece commissioned for the Venetian church of the Soccorso, a charitable institution founded expressly for the purpose of reclaiming such women in the late 1500s (Figure 6).

As with Lotto’s cornelian and Miani’s ragged clothes, while Caliari’s altarpiece and the Paduan engraving served the useful purposes of communicating specific ideas about the spiritual problems posed by material concerns, they also incorporated interpretative ambiguities. Whereas the engraving was designed for a fan, and was thus intended to be part of the sensual world of material effects which it admonished, Caliari’s painting prompted similar questions about the moral status of decorative artefacts. One of the virtuous activities in which the reformed inmates of the Soccorso (depicted on the left of his painting) engage is lace-making. However, although lace was synonymous with chastity and virtue, being typically used on altar cloths and religious vestments, it also had problematic associations. It was not only one of the ‘vanities of the world’ which the inmates of pious institutions such as the Soccorso were meant to have left behind them, but was also one of the dangerous ‘luxurious’ effects which were particularly identified with unrepentant Venetian prostitutes in the late sixteenth century and much of the seventeenth century. The prosecution of the ‘public whore’ (pubblica meretrice), Pasquetta, by the Venetian sumptuary magistrates in 1639, for example, was due as much to the black lace which decorated her silk skirt, sleeves, apron, cuffs and veil, as to the gold chain and flowers which, like the penitent prostitute in Caliari’s painting, she wore in her hair.

Thanks to an increasing number of studies of sumptuary legislation, the socio-political ideas which, along with civic concerns about lay piety, underpinned these governmental measures to regulate displays of costly effects are
already quite familiar. Venetian sumptuary laws have in particular been interpreted from this angle, as a means of maintaining the appearance of social cohesion which was central to Venice's reputation as a well-governed, aristocratic republic. This type of analysis is predicated upon the understanding of displays of material wealth encountered above, that is to say as a device employed by people for strategic social purposes, rather than simply as an end in itself. Moreover, the dynamic period of economic and demographic expansion with which we are concerned has itself been seen as a propelling agent, encouraging the use of such ostentation to reinforce existing social boundaries as well as to breach them. Both types of social strategies were politically dangerous because they undermined the notion

5 (opposite) Tozzi (attrib.), engraving of the Seven Vices, c.1600.

6 Benedetto Caliari, L'istituzione del Soccorso, c.1597.
of the Venetian Republic as an harmonious state, whose stability was based upon the communally minded attitudes of its citizens (communitas), as well as its model constitution. The case of Vincenzo Zuccato, a Venetian wool merchant denounced to the sumptuary magistrates in early 1605, supports this type of analysis. Zuccato was accused of holding a grandiose reception on the birth of a child, objections being made both to the number of women thought to have attended and to the sumptuous appearance of the room in which they were supposedly received (the camera del parto). According to the late sixteenth-century Venetian eulogist Francesco Sansovino, such displays of 'splendour and magnificence' were typical of these events; though noting that excessive expenditure was forbidden on these occasions, he particularly extolled the use of gold and silver plate as 'a noble thing and beautiful to onlookers' eyes'. Zuccato's camera del parto apparently contained such forbidden 'noble' effects: 'silk figured tapestries which stretched from the floor up to the ceiling', 'engraved and gilded wooden chests worked with bronze' and 'a gilded iron bedstead with a yellow damask canopy and finely worked sheets'. The carefully worded declaration in which Zuccato refuted these allegations certainly illuminates his understanding of the socio-political concerns provoked by such display. Abasing himself before the 'Very Excellent Lordships' (as contemporary etiquette demanded), he immediately stressed that he had 'never gone beyond the boundaries of modesty, and of his tenuous fortunes, and social status [conditione].'

In effect, however, sumptuary legislation seems not to have been an expedient means of socio-political management. When summoned to answer to the city's magistrates for her unseemly appearance in public, the prostitute Pasquetta apparently arrived wearing all the forbidden items detailed in her denunciation, plus more: semi-precious stone 'pins', a coral and gold necklace and a coloured undergarment trimmed with gold. While such items were prohibited to respectable married women as well as to 'women of her status', Pasquetta is reported as saying ('most licentiously') that she was allowed to wear them. Her prosecution and punishment – six months in a windowless prison and a fine of 150 ducats – appear to prove her wrong, although it was subsequently contested by the French ambassador, who appealed to the Venetian Senate on her behalf, and the final result proved ambiguous. The involvement of an aristocratic foreign dignitary in this particular case serves to highlight the existence of contradictory socio-political concerns with which the patrician sumptuary authorities, like their counterparts in other administrative spheres, had to contend. This is particularly evident on the occasions when the problematic sumptuous effects belonging to private individuals proved to be indispensable to the Venetian state.

When high-ranking foreign dignitaries visited Venice, for example, and
were said to be hosted ‘at public expense’, this was quite literally true, for a substantial amount of the material splendour exhibited on these important political occasions was supplied in kind, directly by the city’s inhabitants. During the visit of the princes of Savoy in April 1608, for instance, a state banquet was held in the palace belonging to ‘the very illustrious Lord Procurator Priuli’. Another patrician, Foscarì, lent a boat and the Jewish community was similarly involved, supplying costly furnishings for the banqueting venue in accordance with a recent government stipulation. Even the brigade of Venetian noblewomen who were invited to the banquet can be seen as contributing to the material environment; like the paintings hired by officials to embellish Priuli’s residence, the arrival of 150 sumptuously dressed gentildonne would also have helped ‘to furnish the palace for the festa’. Paradoxically, such public displays of privately owned finery can be seen, like sumptuary laws, as a mechanism for maintaining the appearance of social cohesion which was central to the idea of Venice as an harmonious republic. Indeed, the use of citizens’ valuable possessions for public purposes was an extremely effective way of showcasing the republican ideal of communitas to representatives of princely states. The costs of organizing such elaborate public events were another consistent concern and they also seem to have risen significantly, especially towards the end of the period. As well as serving a useful rhetorical function, therefore, official deployment of borrowed finery can be seen as a convenient alternative to defraying these essential government expenses.

In spite of these advantages, it is hard to reconcile the Venetian state’s deployment of its citizens’ private property in this way with the efforts which it made to limit the private display of such goods. Such public use of privately owned property not only undermined the government’s own sumptuary legislation, but it also exacerbated the socio-political problems which that body of laws was apparently meant to address. This is because the deployment of Venetians' splendid effects at high-profile public events can be seen to have benefited their owners as well as the state. The use of private palaces for major state festivities, for example, inevitably associated those festivities with the families to which the palaces belonged. In this respect, the deployment of Ca’ Foscari for the state visit of the French king, Henry III, in 1574 (which was a milestone in sixteenth-century Venetian public ceremonial) can be seen in the same light as the use of the new Medici palace to accommodate Galeazzo Maria Sforza in Florence in 1459. Moreover, the ubiquitous use of coats of arms and familial devices on household objects of every sort would also have left no onlooker in doubt that the property deployed ‘at the public expense’ belonged to quite specific people rather than the state. Although the public festivities at which such goods were displayed are often termed ‘ephemeral’, they left
a tangible legacy in manuscript and print. Describing a theatrical event attended by various procurators and other public figures in January 1530, for example, the famous Venetian diarist Marino Sanudo mentioned the two suppliers of the 'very beautiful' crimson (and thus very expensive) wall-hangings by name.

The multi-dimensional nature of such public events is exemplified by a festive banquet held to honour the Prince of Salerno (Pietro Antonio di Santo Severino) one evening in January 1521. It was hosted by the patrician company of Ortolani, one of a number of youth associations which, as Edward Muir has noted, organized such festivities 'for their own entertainment and for the glory of the republic'. The banquet's venue, a private residence on the Grand Canal, was apparently decorated with tapestries and pictures like Priuli's palace in 1608, as well as with a display of silver plate reputedly worth 5,000 ducats. Cloth of gold, a fabric which according to a sumptuary decree of 1549 'had always been forbidden' to Venetian patricians as 'inappropriate for private citizens' ['no[n] conveniente a privati cittadini'], covered the princely seat of honour. Adding to the general glittering effect achieved by the display of these objects within a candlelit interior were gilded bread, gilded oysters, gilded wax candles and forty or so women dressed in gold-patterned and silk clothes. We know about this event because it was recorded for posterity by the thwarted state chronicler Sanudo. However, Sanudo was not a disinterested historian: the owner of the palace in which this testa occurred - and whom he took care to mention at the start - was a young male relative. As this example suggests, the display of sumptuous personal effects at Venetian public events offered a means for private citizens to avoid the negative associations which such ostentation normally entailed.

While this private involvement in state ceremonial encourages us to question the purpose of civic sumptuary legislation, it also indicates that Venetian consumers remained sensitive to the ideological concerns provoked by unwarranted displays of such goods.

This chapter has dwelt upon such mixed views of consumption in the Italian peninsula during the 'long' sixteenth century. In this respect it has adopted an approach advocated by the well-known historian of consumption John Brewer at a conference on the art market in Renaissance and Early Modern Italy held in the year this project began. Brewer urged the participants at that conference to become cultural anthropologists instead of economists, and he particularly championed the idea associated with the theorist Pierre Bourdieu, that people are essentially resistant to commodification. This idea - that people find it difficult to treat their belongings simply as objects of exchange - has informed certain recent studies of consumption and is supported, as far as Renaissance Italy is concerned, by Sharon Strocchia's investigation of the rituals associated with death.
in Renaissance Florence, as well as by Luke Syson and Dora Thornton's magisterial study of Renaissance art objects. The evidence from Venice cited in this chapter bears out Strocchia's argument that the social worth of the objects used in rituals such as funerals was more important than their material value. The example of Zuane the Venetian shopkeeper, for instance, who specified in 1579 that he wished to be buried in a Capuchin cowl, suggests that in spite of Venice's predominance as a hub of trade and retailing, economic considerations were not consistently uppermost in the minds of its citizens.

Yet at the same time, the existence of the market cannot simply be ignored. As indicated at the start of this study, Venetian inhabitants took advantage of the developed commercial facilities available in their city. They acquired and disposed of material goods as a matter of course. In short, with the possible exception of the precious objects donated to serve liturgical functions (and even they occasionally cropped up on the second-hand market), sixteenth-century Venetians seem to have had few difficulties in treating their material possessions as commodities. For example, the numerous pious legacies left by Zuane, the shopkeeper, in his will of 1579 (including 100 ducats to the money-shy Capuchins), were to be funded by auctioning off his material possessions. Acknowledging their active participation in the market for consumer goods does not, however, mean that Venetians were necessarily motivated by consumerism. Indeed, what is so interesting about sixteenth-century consumption is that it occurred alongside a dynamic and intricate ideological framework concerned with material goods. This chapter has highlighted the diverse range of ideas about the consumption of such goods which existed in the Italian peninsula during the period c.1450–c.1650, and it has also emphasized the co-existence of contradictory systems of beliefs within each of the three bodies of thought considered. Unfortunately it has not been possible to do full justice to the dynamic nature of these ideological systems: to show, for example, how certain ideas were supposed to carry greater weight during specific phases of the religious calendar, such as at Lent, or during the different stages of a person's life cycle. An awareness of this varied, inconsistent and changeable ideological framework is useful because it enables us to appreciate that the ownership and use of material goods could not simply have been causes for 'celebration' and 'unashamed enthusiasm' in the period. In fact it encourages us to believe quite the opposite. While the exact extent to which these ideas impacted upon a particular individual's patterns of consumption remains extremely hard to gauge, it is clear that the possession and deployment of material goods not only required sixteenth-century Venetians to engage with, but also to negotiate their way carefully among, a plethora of contradictory values. Knowledge of this ambiguous complex of beliefs
complicates our understanding of consumption as a 'long' sixteenth-century phenomenon, but historical analyses of the subject which are informed by it are likely to be much more convincing.

Notes

I wish to thank the following for their helpful comments, criticisms and references: Stephen Bowd, Michael Bury, Marie Chessel, Silvia Evangelisti, Maurice Howard, the Material Renaissance group, and participants in the Material Renaissance conference and in a material culture symposium held in St Andrews in 2003. References provided by Cordelia Beattie, Giuseppe Ellero, James Lindow, Irene Marcuccio and James Shaw, and Helen Webster were also very much appreciated.


12 See Patricia Allerston, ‘Wedding Finery in Sixteenth-Century Venice’, in Trevor Dean

13 Braunstein, 1993, p. 219, 28 February 1506. They contained an emerald, a ruby and a diamond. He was told they were worth 24 ducats, but good acquaintances subsequently said they were worth only 22 ducats. He sent them to Pirckheimer to have valued and keep for that value, if he liked them. On such exchanges, see also Matchette's essay (chapter 10).

14 On the study of consumer culture in Early Modern Europe, and the identification of that culture among people without surplus economic means, see Tiersten, 1993, pp. 118, 139–40.


about the narrowness of this definition of culture are expressed by Gene Brucker, 'The Italian Renaissance', in Ruggiero, ed., 2002, p. 25.

19 Burke, 1998, p. 175. Burke described the consumption of classicizing objects as part of a process by which 'fashionable' Renaissance ideas became 'domesticated', see ibid., p. 14 and chapter 5. See also Taylor's essay (chapter 8), which discusses what Pietro Aretino called the 'anciently modern' appeal of Giulio Romano's silverware. The early sixteenth-century 'Dickhead Plate', attributed to Francesco of Urbino, in the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, demonstrates that these artefacts were not solely restricted to edifying messages. On the acquisition of this plate, see The Guardian, 18 September 2003.

20 The goblet is discussed by Syson and Thornton, 2001, on pp. 52–3; see also chapter 5, pp. 182–200, on the technological aspects of glass. On the ability of glass to express refined taste as well as aristocratic status, see Patricia Fortini Brown, Private Lives in Renaissance Venice, New Haven, 2004, pp. 217–40.


22 See Martines, 1980, p. 291, on the 'two different humanist moods on the moral worth of riches. One in praise and one in blame', although on pp. 291–2 he qualifies the impact of these moods.


Cf. Martines, 1980, pp. 452, 457–8, which instead emphasizes the importance of Platonic ideas about love and beauty. Doni was one of several writers of modest origins who lived by their pens in early sixteenth-century Venice and as such have been seen as a means of understanding prevailing attitudes. See Grendler, 1969, pp. 3–19. On Doni see ibid., pp. 49–65; and Claudia di Filippo Bareggi, Il mestiere di scrivere: lavoro intellettuale e mercato librario a Venezia nel Cinquecento, Rome, 1988, pp. 26–31. On the use of texts produced by popular writers to detect sources of popular resentment, see James S. Amelang, 'Vox Populi: Popular Autobiographies as Sources for Early Modern Urban History', Urban History, 20:1 (1993), p. 35.


This distinction is highlighted by Syson and Thornton, 2001, pp. 229, 233. A somewhat different interpretation of the same phenomenon is given in Von Martin, 1944, p. 60.

Poggio Bracciolini’s depiction of Venetian nobles as ‘boorish merchants’ is noted in Connell, 1972, p. 178, n. 166; see also pp. 163, 175–82 for the library which contained books in Greek and humanists’ works which was the exception in Connell’s sample. Hankins, 1991, I, p. 142, sees Plato’s Republic as having a warmer reception in Milan than in republican Venice and Florence. Kallendorf, 1999, which posits the broad-based appeal of Virgil’s poetry in Venice during the later 1400s and early 1500s, includes a useful summary of past scholarship on this topic on pp. 19–20. For a broad-ranging and informative reassessment of this presumed indifference, see Fortini Brown, 1996; also Ronald G. Witt, In the Footsteps of the Ancients: The Origins of Humanism from L Austria to Brun, Leiden, 2000, pp. 454–75. An addition is Virginia Cox, 'Rhetoric and Humanism in Quattrocento Venice', RQ, 41 (2003), 652–94.

Fortini Brown, 1996, argued that while Venice did become a centre of classical scholarship (pp. 147, 272), the Venetian interest in the antique was pursued in aesthetic and tangible forms such as images and artefacts, and in ephemeral events such as pageants, rather than in written texts (pp. 60, 183, 206–7, 219, 221). She also notes that this interest was initially associated with the domestic sphere, rather than the public one (pp. 33, 248–52). Isabella Palumbo-Fossati also raised this issue in L’interno della casa dell’artigiano e dell’artista nella Venezia del Cinquecento’, SV, new ser., 8 (1984), p. 147 (see also p. 133 on the relative lack of books in inventories); whereas John J. Martin made a similar point, about Palladio’s engagement with classical ideas, in a paper given at the conference of the Renaissance Society of America held in New York in April 2004 ('Andrea and Palladio'). The existence of


35 The quote is from Palumbo-Fossati, 1984, p. 147; Thornton, 1997, p. 10, also discusses this subject. See Kallendorf, 1999, pp. 140–204, for his ideas about the broad Venetian readership of Virgil.

36 See Palumbo-Fossati, 1984, pp. 146–7 (miniature painter, 1576) and pp. 122, 129 (lead founder, 1590, the painting hung in the kitchen). For the carpenter obliged to sell his copies of 'Paladio' and 'Batta Alberti de archittettura', see ASV, Signori di Notti al Civil, busta 271, Vendite, registro 1, fol. 25r, 28 September 1601; and for the smith, *ibid.*, fol. 26r, 5 October 1601: 'turqueseta d'oro all'antiga'. On Palladio's cabinet designs, see Thornton, 1997, pp. 71–2. Burke, 1998, also dates what he calls the 'domestication' of Renaissance thought (including the popularity of images of emperors) to the 'later Renaissance' (c.1530–1630), although he downplays the involvement of lower social groups outside Venice and Florence; see pp. 170–1, 187.

37 Carlo Goldoni, *La famiglia dell'antiquario* (1750), Turin, 1983. See especially Act I, Scenes 1, 16 and 18; Act II, Scenes 9, 10 and 11.


Burke made the valuable point that objects could speak more than one language in 'The Presentation of Self in the Renaissance Portrait', in Burke, 1987, p. 158; see also Strocchia, 1992, p. 30. The methodological difficulties posed by overly narrow interpretations of other sorts of historical texts are also highlighted by Chartier, 2001, p. 182. See also my review of Syson and Thornton, 2001, in RS, 17 (2003), p. 134.

42 On the 'detailed, almost autobiographical' nature of this will, see Peter Humfrey, Lorenzo Lotto, New Haven, 1997, p. 2. On the utility of artisans' personal documents - including the bombastic autobiogaphy of the infamous sculptor Benvenuto Cellini - to reconstruct the 'multiple identities of humble citizens from the past', see Amelang, 1993, p. 35.

43 On seal-dies with ancient devices, see Thornton, 1997, pp. 128–30. On Lotto's use of his cameos as pledges against debts, see Lorenzo Lotto, Il Libro di spese diverse con aggiunta di lettere e d'altri documenti, ed. Pietro Zampetti, Rome, 1969, pp. 158–9, December 1547–January 1548 (Venice); pp. 162–3, January–February, 21 May 1552 (Rome and Ancona); pp. 177–91, various dates and references, 1540–54. For his attempts to sell the cameos, see ibid., pp. 111, 113, 4 September 1548, and 118, 27 November 1550. On his use of his seals on letters, see Mauro Zanchi, Lorenzo Lotto e l'immaginario alchemico, Clusone BG, n.d., p. 7.

44 See Lotto, Il Libro di spese diverse', 1969, p. 304, 25 March 1546: 'Ancora un anello doro ligato una belissima corniola antica, con una gruva che si leva a volo con un iugo ai piedi et in becho el segno de Mercurio, significato la vita activa e la contemplativa con meditazione spirituale levarsi dale cose terrene.' A manuscript copy is in the Archivio delle Istituzioni di Ricovero e di Educazione, Venice, Testamenti no. 76. On the ownership of such goods in intellectual and higher social circles, see Syson and Thornton, 2001, pp. 83–90; and for a Venetian example, Perry, 1978, p. 216, n. 4, p. 217.


46 On the use of such mnemonic devices in the period, see Woolf, 2003, pp. 263–7. Useful general points about the contemporary importance of such ideas about salvation, and the utility of the Platonic scheme - to 'the mystically minded' - for explaining it in the period, are also highlighted by Tillyard, 1973, p. 29. Pietro Aretino notoriously mocked Lotto for his religious zeal in a letter dated 1548 reproduced in Lotto, Il Libro di spese diverse', 1969, pp. 305–6; see also Humfrey.
37 in Renaissance Venice

1997, p. 158; whereas Vasari described Lotto's piety and unworldliness in Le vite de' più eccellenti pittori, scultori e architettori nelle redazioni del 1550 e 1568, ed. Rosanna Bettarini, IV, Florence, 1976, p. 554 (Life of Lotto); see also Humfrey, 1997, p. 4. For an in-depth discussion of Lotto's spirituality and of his relationships with heretical Venetians, see Massimo Firpo, Artisti, giottelli, eletti: il mondo di Lorenzo Lotto tra riforma e controriforma, Rome, 2004.


52 The place of religious poverty in the late sixteenth-century reforms of nunneries is explored in Silvia Evangelisti, Monastic Poverty and Material Culture in Early


57 Niccolo Nelli, *Proverbi*, Venice: Fernando Bertelli, 1564. For proverbs as a means of accessing contemporary perceptions see Michelle A. Laughran, *’The Body, Public
Health and Social Control in Sixteenth-Century Venice', Ph.D. dissertation, University of Connecticut, 1998, pp. 37–9. However, this sheet of proverbs is unusual in being illustrated, and is more sophisticated than the sayings in Veneto dialect included in the popular early sixteenth-century collection: Manlio Cortelazzo, ed., Le dieci tavole dei proverbi, Vicenza, 1995. See also Gian Antonio Cibotto, Proverbi del Veneto, Florence, 1995 and 2000. For evidence that proverbs were also appreciated by an educated audience, see Ficino, Letters, no. 22, p. 60. A very similar expression is used by Erasmus in his guide for spiritual living, see Dolan, 1964, p. 71.

58 ASV, Notarile, Testamenti, Atti Cigrini, busta 199, no. 319, Zuane Strazzaruol - Sant'Apollinar, 17 November 1579. On the poverty and asceticism associated with the Capuchins (who witnessed their heyday of popularity in the 1600s), see Bireley, 1999, pp. 28–9. Lotto made a similar request in his will of 1546, and he subsequently dedicated himself and all his worldly possessions to the Holy House of Loreto, becoming a lay brother in that institution in 1554. See Lotto, Il 'Libro di spese diverse', 1669, p. 303 (1546 will: the funeral was part of the payment for his famous painting of the observant Dominican Saint Antonino), p. 151 and p. 298; also p. 311, 8 September 1554 (Loreto); and Firpo, 2004, p. 309.

59 Thomas Coryate, Coryat's Crudities 1611, introduction by W. M. Schutte, London, 1978, p. 255: ‘... because they believe there is such virtue in the Friers cowle, that it will procure them remission of the third part of their sinnes ...’ Strocchia, 1992, p. 236, cited this example as proof of the long-term continuities in the ritualistic use of symbols in Renaissance Italy.

60 Strocchia, 1992, also makes this important point on pp. 236–7; and highlights the ‘very powerful statement’ made by opting to be buried in a mendicant habit when the practice was no longer standard, on p. 41. On the ‘anxiety of all anxieties’ provoked by death in the late seventeenth century; and for horrific seventeenth- and eighteenth-century descriptions of the hell which awaited sinful people, see Camporesi, 1990, pp. 36, 58–9. Cf. Christophe, 1985, II, p. 67.


62 See, for example, the comments about ‘cose del mondo’ in Vasari 1976, p. 554 (Life of Lotto).

63 À Kempis, 1886, book 1, chapter 1, p. 5. The animated nature of objects has been stressed by Anne Rosalind Jones and Peter Stallybrass, Renaissance Clothing and the Materials of Memory, Cambridge, 2001, p. 2.


66 In addition to being stored in coffers along with sweet-smelling herbs and pine needles, perfume was applied to interior furnishings to keep them clean, as well as fragrant on special occasions. See Carole Frick, ‘Dressing a Renaissance City: Society, Economics and Gender in the Clothing of 15th-Century Florence’, Ph.D. dissertation, UCLA, 1995, pp. 430–1; Giovanventura Rosetti, Notandissimi secreti de l'arte profumatoria (1555), ed. Franco Brunello and Franca Facchetti, 2nd edn, Vicenza, 1992,
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67 The role played by the senses in helping people to understand was emphasized by Ficino, *Letters*, 1975, no. 39, p. 80. The sensuous qualities of textiles and other types of goods were positively celebrated in the letters written by the Venetian habitué Pietro Aretino. See, for example, Pietro Aretino, *Il secondo libro delle lettere*, I, ed. Fausto Nicolini, Bari, 1916, letter 187, 29 May 1539, which highlights the sparkle of precious stones, pleasant smells and the delicate nature of fabrics among the pleasant diversions of life. On the sensuous nature of Aretino's writings and life, see Grendler, 1969, pp. 8–10. On the classical notion of splendour, see Welch, 2002, pp. 211–29; Lindow, 2004, chapter 2; and Shepherd's essay below (chapter 2).

68 For Neo-Platonic-influenced religious views of the senses, see Ficino, *Letters*, 1975, nos 39, 43 and 115, pp. 80, 85, 172; and most famously, Baldassare Castiglione, *Il libro del cortigiano con una scelta delle opere minori*, ed. Bruno Maier, Turin, 2nd edn, 1964, pp. 514–18. See also Dolan, 1964, pp. 170–1 and 49–50. The hierarchy of the senses, in which touch was the basest and sight the highest, is noted by Bowd, 2002, p. 171. On the dangerous nature of the senses, see Carla Casagrande and Silvana Vecchio, *Histoire des pechés capitaux au Moyen Âge*, Paris, 2003 (orig. pub. as *I sette vizi capitali: storia dei peccati nel Medioevo*, Turin, 2000), pp. 234–5, 238. In this respect they were like vainglory; see ibid., p. 62, and Maria G. Muzzarelli, *Guardaroba medievale: vesti e società dal XIII al XIV secolo*, Bologna, 1999, pp. 324–36. Such negative ideas are among the reasons why Aretino's works were considered to be provocative, see Grendler, 1969, p. 17. In his letter to the Cardinal of Trent cited above (n. 67), Aretino notes that the sensual diversions mentioned might not be appropriate for his addressee.


70 Camporesi, 1990, p. 59 (example taken from a text published in Venice in 1670).

71 Berry, 1994, p. 101. The 'discourse of “luxury” which “pre-industrial societies deployed ... to discuss consumer behaviour” is also linked to the seven deadly sins by De Vries, 2003, p. 41.

72 On this close association, see Casagrande and Vecchio, 2003, p. 238; and Berry, 1994, p. 94, which discusses Augustinian ideas on the subject. According to Morton W. Bloomfield, whereas the seven sins were not deadly to start with, they became so over the course of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. See Morton W. Bloomfield, *The Seven Deadly Sins: An Introduction to the History of a Religious Concept, with Special Reference to Medieval English Literature*, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1952, pp. viii, 43–4, 157.

73 On 'the breadth of meaning possessed by the term [luxury] in pre-modern discourse', and the addition of lust as the 'Christian contribution' to this ancient concept, see Berry, 1994, pp. 87–98, and Sekora, 1977, pp. 42, 45–7.


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76 Coryate, Crudities, 1978, pp. 265–7, at 266.

77 The ‘vanity and vice’ quote is from R. Ascham, The Schoolmaster (1570), in The Norton Anthology of English Literature, 5th edn, I, New York, 1986, p. 1026. See especially Thomas Nashe, The Unfortunate Traveller or the Life of Jacke Wilton (1594), ed. Herbert F.B. Brett-Smith, Oxford, 1920, p. 96, whose fictional protagonist describes Italy as ‘the Paradise of the Earth, and the Epicure’s heaven.’ Like Coryate later, Nashe also placed his traveller in a Venetian courtesan’s house in which every room was like ‘a haberdasher’s shop’ (p. 52).


80 See Casagrande and Vecchio, 2003, pp. 334–7, who also highlight the role of the seven capital sins in Ignatius Loyola’s Spiritual Exercises, as well as in Erasmus’s Handbook of the Militant Christian, which was recommended to the Council of Trent for use by the reformed clergy. Cf. Bloomfield, 1952, pp. xiv, 123.

81 The idea that worldly wealth was corruptive and a threat to virtue was one of the oldest ideas associated with the term, which persisted into the Christian era; see Berry, 1994, p. xiii.

82 Another pertinent visual example is the presumed Mary Magdalene, an early work by Caravaggio in the Galleria Doria Pamphilj, Rome.


84 Another pertinent visual example is the presumed Mary Magdalene, an early work by Caravaggio in the Galleria Doria Pamphilj, Rome.

85 On the use of the print as a fan, see Rigoli and Amitrano Savarese, eds, 1995, p. 431. For sumptuary restrictions on fans and decorated ones, see Bistort, 1969, pp. 198–200; and Fortini Brown, 2004, p. 151 (which also reproduces fan-related prints by Tozzi). Surviving examples of such ‘weathercock’ fans (with decorative turned handles) are
reproduced in *I mestieri della moda a Venezia/Serenissima: The Arts of Fashion in Venice from the 13th to the 18th Century*, exhibition catalogue, Limena, 1995, p. 125, cat. 158; see also *ibid.*, pp. 125 and 127, especially cat. 160, for examples of fans incorporating printed illustrations. A weathercock fan is also included in fig. 6.


88 ASV, Pompe, busta 6, Denuncie, 27 August 1639; see also Allerston, 2000, p. 380. For an example of a sumptuary law which specifically forbids lace to be used on such items, see Bistort, 1969, pp. 447–51, 20 August 1644; see also *ibid.*, p. 457, 31 August 1644, for similar limits on prostitutes' clothes.


90 See especially Peter Burke, *Venice and Amsterdam: A Study of Seventeenth-Century Elites*, London, 1974, p. 63; Piergiorgio Mometto, 'Vizi privati, pubbliche virtù: aspetti e problemi della questione del lusso nella repubblica di Venezia (secolo XVI)', in
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A particularly vehement example is Edward Muir, *Images of Power: Art and Pageantry in Renaissance Venice*, *American Historical Review*, 84:1 (1979), pp. 31 and 33. This idea also underpins Fortini Brown, 2004, although it is much more restrained in its expression. Especially influential in this regard has been Burke, 1987, pp. 132–49, which applied the sociological–anthropological concept of ‘conspicuous consumption’ to the upper echelons of baroque Italian society, including Venice; see especially p. 144. On the social mobility associated with dynamic urban contexts, see Peter Burke, “Material Civilisation” in the Work of Fernand Braudel*, *Itinerario*, 5 (1981), p. 41. On this interpretation, and its applicability to Venice, see Allerston, 2000, pp. 374, 381. Increasing social differentiation in Venetian society is emphasized, for example, by Dennis Romano, in *Housecraft and Statecraft: Domestic Service in Renaissance Venice, 1400–1600*, Baltimore, 1996, pp. 227–35.


ASV, Pompe, busta 6 Denuncie, 18 January 1605 more veneto (mv):

*These goods were apparently seen by the capitano of the sumptuary magistrates and his men. Details of the sorts of goods forbidden on such occasions are cited by Bistort, 1969, pp. 203, 394–400 (1562), 463–6 (1644).*

Along with the denunciation against Pasquetta, this document is one of very few examples of enforcement by the sumptuary magistrates, and the outcomes are equivocal. The methodological problems cannot be underestimated, see Patricia Allerston, “Contrary to the Truth and Also to the Semblance of Reality”? Entering a Venetian “Lying-in” Chamber (1605), *RS*, 20:5 (2006), pp. 629–39.
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98 ASV, Pompe, busta 6, Denuncie, 18 January 1605 (mv): 'La denontia data sotto di /18/ genero passato contra la persona di me Vic. v Zuccato humil servo delle SS. 
Vv. Ecc. ms, non solo è contraria alla verità ma anco al verisimile: Poichi se io in 
occazione del molti parti di mia moglie, non sono mai uscito de i termini della 
modestia, et della tenue mia fortuna, et condizione, non è da credere che in questo 
parto, ch'è stato l'ultimo di sette io habbia operato diversamente con fare quello, che 
in nissun tempo mi si conveniva.' The links drawn between expenditure and social 
condition, and the inappropriate association of a merchant with a sumptuous life-

Newett, 1902, p. 277; Molà, 2003, p. 54, and more generally, Kovési Killerby, 2002, 
pp. 133–63.

100 ASV, Pompe, busta 6, Denuncie, 27 August 1639.

101 Ibid. On a previous attempt to prevent this type of intervention on the part of noble 
clients, see Michelle A. Laughran, The Body, Public Health and Social Control in 

102 The close identification of aristocratic interests with judicial structures and the 
problems posed by the socially embedded nature of the Venetian judicial system 
are central to Claudio Povolo, L'intrigo dell'onore: potere e istituzioni nella repubblica 
di Venezia tra Cinque e Seicento, Verona, 1997; see, for example, p. 275. The topics of 
noble honour and criminal justice in Venice were also explored by Jonathan Walker, 
in chapter 4 of 'Honour and the Culture of Male Venetian Nobles, c.1500–1650', 

103 This section is a condensed version of a paper on the practical arrangements behind 
these receptions, presented at the conference, 'Cultural Exchanges: The Courts of 
findings are developed in my forthcoming book. On the political importance of such 
occasions, see ASV, Consiglio dei Dieci, Parti Comuni, filza 69, fol. 95, 12 November 
1556; as well as Mackenney, 1987, pp. 137–8; Patricia Fortini Brown, 'Measured 
Friendship, Calculated Pomp: The Ceremonial Welcomes of the Venetian Republic', 
in Barbara Wisch and Susan Scott Munshower, eds, 'All the World's a Stage . . .: Art 
and Pageantry in the Renaissance and Baroque, University Park, PA, 1990, pp. 137–86; 
and Matteo Casini, I gesti del principe: la festa politica a Firenze e Venezia in età rinasci-
mentale, Venice, 1996, pp. 287–94. On the traditional and continuing importance of 
material wealth in Venetian public ritual, see Muir, 1979, p. 41.

104 ASV, Rason Vecchie (RV), busta 222, Spese fatte . . . nelli refresamenti p[er] l'ocasion 
[sic] deli Ser. m. Principi di Savoia, principia a di 21 April 1608, section 6, Spese 
Diverse. On procurators in the seventeenth century, see Burke, 1974, pp. 17–19 and 
21–3.

105 ASV, RV, busta 222, Spese fatte . . . nelli refresamenti p[er] l'ocasion [sic] deli Ser. m. 
Principi di Savoia, principia a di 21 April 1608, section 6, Spese Diverse. The reasons 
for the Jewish community's involvement in these events are discussed in Allerton, 
1996, pp. 203–8. On the specific sets of sumptuary laws drawn up for the Jewish 
community in Venice, see Bistort, 1969, pp. 261–4; and David J. Malkiel, A Separate 
Republic: The Mechanics and Dynamics of Venetian Jewish Self-Government, 1607–1624, 

106 The amount paid to the person who invited them is listed in ASV, RV, busta 222, 
Spese fatte . . . nelli refresamenti p[er] l'ocasion [sic] deli Ser. m. Principi di Savoia, 
principia a di 21 April 1608, section 6, Spese Diverse. The 'official function' which
women fulfilled at these events is also highlighted by Casini, 1996, p. 297, and Fortini Brown, 2004, p. 153.

107 For the more usual interpretation of the relationship between the so-called myth of Venice and Venetian public ceremonial, see Edward Muir, Civic Ritual in Renaissance Venice, Princeton, 1981; and MacKenney, 1987, pp. 133-49 (which also discusses the important role played by the craft guilds on these occasions). Cf. Currie's essay in this volume (chapter 7) which shows that conspicuous consumption on the part of courtiers could also benefit a princely state.

108 On the issue of costs, see Casini, 1996, p. 295. An idea of the increasing costs of public ceremonial can be had from the amounts spent on a meal held after the Venetian boat race to the Lido held four times a year. Whereas 15 ducats were allocated for this purpose in 1535, by 1615 the amount then spent, 30 ducats, was considered inadequate, and it was raised to 70. In 1633, at the behest of the officials involved, the sum was raised again to 120 ducats. See ASV, RV, busta 3, fol. 157v, 20 September 1535; Ibid., busta 1, fol. 138, 3 June 1615, and fol. 151, 20 July 1633.


110 This contradiction was highlighted by Muir, 1979, p. 33.

111 On the opportunities which these events offered to private citizens to make a public appearance, see Casini, 1996, p. 296.

112 The 'important role played by the concept of space' in official welcomes, and its relationship with political power, are, for example, emphasized in ibid., pp. 288-9, in relation to public places and the city's boundaries.

113 On the French king's visit to Venice and the Foscari's involvement, see Nicolas Ivanoff, 'Henri III à Venise', Gazette des Beaux-Arts, American edn, 6th ser., 80 (1972), pp. 316, 318, 325. The hospitality extended to Sforza in Florence is noted by Lauro Martines in April Blood: Florence and the Plot against the Medici, Oxford, 2003, pp. 89, 107. On the notion of a palace as the embodiment of the family that inhabited it, see Lindow, 2004, chapter 2; and Fortini Brown, 2004, pp. 24-6 (special attention is also devoted to Ca' Foscari on pp. 26-8).


118 Muir, 1979, pp. 38–9. The Ortolani had just accepted the prince as one of their members. On the role of these companies, including the Ortolani, in such events, see also Lionello Venturi, Le compagnie della calza (sec. XV–XVI), Venice, 1983 (orig. pub. 1908–09). pp. 58–9; and Casini, 1996, pp. 298–304.


120 The practice of gilding food, which was legislated against from 1473, is noted by Bistort, 1969, p. 207. This particular banquet is cited Ibid., p. 209.


122 On this, specifically in relation to the compagnie della calza, see Venturi, 1983, pp. 59, 63. Venturi also argued in these pages that an increasing intolerance of ostentatious display, in the latter part of the sixteenth century, affected the activities of these festive companies.

123 My fellow contributor to this volume, Luca Molà, has attributed the creation of Venetian sumptuary legislation to economic and moral motivations rather than socio-political ones; see Molà, 2003, pp. 49–51.

124 The conference was held in Florence in 2000. John Brewer was invited to make a formal commentary on the last day, but unlike the contributions of Richard Goldthwaite and Dennis Romano, his contribution was not included in the final publication: Marcello Fantoni, Louisa C. Matthew and Sara F. Matthews-Grieco, eds, The Art Market in Italy, 15th–17th Centuries/Il mercato dell’arte in Italia, secc. XV–XVII, Moderna, 2003.


126 See Strocchia, 1992, p. 32.

127 On such bequests of goods, see Patricia Allerston, ‘Reconstructing the Second-Hand Clothes Trade in Sixteenth- and Seventeenth-Century Venice’, Costume, 33 (1999), pp. 51–2; and for an example of a nobleman’s carpet stolen from a church during a religious festival, and thought to be resold or pledged in the Ghetto, see ASV, Ufficiali al Cattaver, busta 244, registro 5, fol. 91v, 9 September 1593.

128 ASV, Notarile, Testamenti, Atti Cigrini, busta 199, no. 319, Zuane Strazzaruo1, 17 November 1579: ‘di far vender tutto il mio al’incanto, et pagar li legati ...’ On the Venetian Capuchins’ reluctance to accept control of Palladio’s expensive new building, il Redentore, which was being built as Zuane wrote his will, see Deborah Howard, The Architectural History of Venice, rev. and enlarged edn, New Haven, 2002.


130 See also Parr, 1999, pp. 168–9, on the need for historians ‘to resist overstating consumption as a sphere of liberty and self-expression’.

131 See Ibid., p. 268, on the notion of consumption patterns resulting from ‘a complex arbitration among the political, moral and household economies from which the entitlement to spend results’.