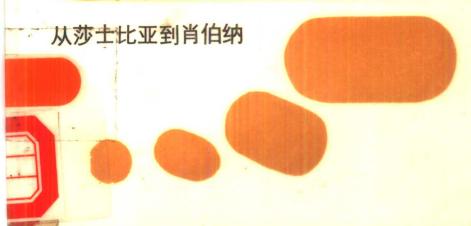
THE GREAT TRADITION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE

From Shakespeare to Shaw

VOLUME I

英国文学的伟大传统



THE GREAT TRADITION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE

FROM SHAKESPEARE TO SHAW

Volume I

William Shakespeare to Jane Austen

by

Annette T. Rubinstein

Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press
Beijing

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Modern Reader Paperback Edition 1969, 1980

Reprinted in 1988 by

Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press
19 Xisanhuan Beilu, Beijing, China

英国文学的伟大传统(英文本) YINGGUO WENXUE DE WEIDA CHUANTONG

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外语教学与研究出版社出版。

(北京市西 环北路十九号)

外语教学等研究出版社编辑部电子计算机房排版 中国印**勒技术研究所照排研究**中心制版

北京市印刷一定印刷

新华书店北京发行所发行

开本 787 🟃 1092 1/32 30 印张 814 千字

1988年5月第1版 1988年5月第1次印刷

印数 1-5000 册

ISBN 7-5600-0414-6/H • 168 全工券定价 18.50 元

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THE GREAT TRADITION IN ENGLISH LITERATURE VOLUME II

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In 1982-1983 when I first spent a year teaching in the People's Republic of China I was both amazed and pleased to find that almost all advanced English students were familiar with my somewhat polemical 900 page survey of English literature, published in the United States thirty years earlier.

Many colleagues and students complained that there was no comparable study of American literature available, so I promised to begin work on one as soon as I returned home.

The result — American Literature: Root and Flower (1775 – 1955) — has just been published as a two-volume paperback by the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press in Beijing. Now the editors have asked my permission to re-issue The Great Tradition in English Literature: From Shakespeare to Shaw in a similar format.

I am, of course, very happy to think that both the English and the American book will be available for a new generation of Chinese students and many other readers here. I hope that this acquaintance with some of the best, most concerned, most independent Western minds of the past four centuries will help build an understanding of what is truly admirable — and what is not — in the two great English-speaking nations.

Annette T. Rubinstein Beijing, 1988

FOREWORD

The great tradition in English literature is the tradition of those great writers who could, as Shakespeare said, "sense the future in the instant." The future is always stirring beneath the heart of the present and it is therefore those who live closest to the heart of their own time who can most surely sense the pulse of the life-to-be.

The great tradition in English literature is the tradition of the great realists; that is to say, of the writers who know and are concerned with the vital current which moves steadily beneath the innumerable eddies and confusing crosscurrents of life's surface.

This feeling for the essential direction of history, this profound understanding of the significant events and potentialities of one's own age, has little relation to any skill at observing and reproducing its minutiae. Snobbish or sentimental writers like Pope, Thackeray and Trollope, angry and honest ones like Zola or Gissing or Morrison, can often create an impressive facsimile of the life led by the men and women whom they have had occasion to observe. But, as Bacon said in another context, "a crowd is not company, and faces are but a gallery of pictures; and talk but a tinkling cymbal, where there is no love." And it is in the love which makes them sensitively aware of their fellows' needs, in the respect they feel for man's potentialities, that the work of the great realists is rooted. It is this deep assurance of man's strength, this ardent concern for his rights, that has so often enabled them to "look into the seeds of time and say which grain will grow and which will not." It is this which paradoxically makes their work, written out of the most immediate care for contemporary events, most relevant to those of a far distant future.

This seemingly prophetic insight has taken many forms. One was the daring, closely reasoned scientific prevision of a Bacon or a Huxley. Another was the equally daring, less fully conscious, anticipation of a Blake or a Burns. At some periods we find that this central conviction of man's power to shape his own future expresses itself in the common religious mythology of his time, as with Bunyan. At other periods the writer is forced to create his own

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myths as Dickens does in his metaphorical use of an apparently factual plot. Often the great humanist was also a fiercely indignant revolutionary like Milton or Hazlitt or Shelley; less often he shared the brief serenity of an optimistic postrevolutionary age like Defoe or Fielding or Jane Austen. But always the great writers have, in one way or another, participated in the essential struggles of their own times. The old miners' song has it, "They say in Harlan County, there are no neutrals here," and that is also so in the great world of art.

True, it has long been a dogma in the academies that art and politics are two separate worlds; that the value of a work of art is unaffected by the artist's relation to the social movements of his own time, his concern with human needs, or his hopes of future progress. And in the last three quarters of a century the artist himself has too often concurred in this belief. But his acceptance of his separation from society, whether melancholy or defiant, was always only a special instance of that alienation of man from himself which has characterized the end of the great bourgeois epoch.

The representative art of the great epochs of human culture have always been political and partisan. Aristotle defined man as the political animal, and surely the most human of men—the great artist—are not the least political.

The following pages attempt a rapid survey of one of the greatest of such epochs—that of the expanding bourgeois world in its hopeful youth and its troubled but still rich maturity. The twenty-odd major figures here examined are all chosen from those acknowledged, by the most conservative academicians and critics, to be the greatest writers of their own times, and among the greatest of all time. Yet almost invariably scholarly discussions as well as popular biographies and anthologies minimize, distort, or altogether ignore the political concern and activity which lay at the root of the art they praise. And so, inevitably, they misunderstand and misrepresent vital elements in it, no matter how great their admiration.

A full consideration of the life and work of any of these major figures in the history of English literature soon shows us just how clear, conscious and complete the great writer's consistently progressive partisanship in the political and social conflicts of his own time has always been. But it is difficult for the nonacademic reader to find the time and factual material for such a consideration, and the nonpolitical literary student too often himself unquestioningly accepts the retired tradition of the academies.

This book grew out of one student's attempt first to learn in

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concrete detail, and then to teach in convincing summary, the part played by the great writers in man's continuing fight for freedom.

It begins with a brief synopsis of the social and political background for the great literature of Shakespeare and his contemporaries, and proceeds to a more detailed consideration of perhaps the two most important Elizabethans—Shakespeare himself and Bacon.

Each of the four succeeding sections similarly opens with a rapid sketch of its age, with emphasis upon those aspects of its history most directly related to the literary development of the period, and proceeds to a more specific consideration of its most representative figures.

There has been little attempt to impose any formal uniformity on the material presented. In some instances a rather full biographical account seemed desirable; in others more space has been devoted to a consideration of certain specific works. Nor is the length of any one chapter an indication of the relative importance of the writer to whom it is devoted. Here again the story to be told determined the manner of its telling. For example, the tragic fact that Keats died at twenty-six, after barely six writing years, made it possible to treat his life and work in less than half the space demanded by Hazlitt or Dickens or Shaw.

In many of the discussions my conclusions as to a writer's political and social attitude necessarily run counter to the conventional impression, so I have thought it best to use the impeccable evidence of direct quotation as far as possible. There are, therefore, substantial extracts from personal letters and diaries as well as from more deliberate literary works included in every chapter but the one on Shakespeare, and even in that there is an unusual amount of such quotation from more or less intimate contemporary sources. I believe that anyone judicially considering these great writers' own statements must conclude, whatever his own opinion may be, that they all felt "that those who are above the struggle are also beside the point."

Finally, although the book presents a continuous development, each of the five major sections of which it is composed can really be read as an independent unit. It may, in fact, be advisable for those readers not well acquainted with the earlier periods of English history and literature to begin with the discussion of the more familiar modern world in the third section, and then to turn back to the Elizabethan Age.

To those lovers of literature who already "think continually of

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those who are truly great," the book's approach may suggest a different interpretation of familiar beauty, and reveal another dimension in the well-known lives of many long beloved masters. To those men and women who are themselves deeply immersed in the political life of our stirring and difficult age it will, I think, introduce new allies and fresh sources of strength. That, at least, is the hope with which I here complete this long and rewarding labor of love.

ANNETTE T. RUBINSTEIN

New York, N. Y. September, 1953

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

For arrangements made with various authors and publishing houses whereby certain copyrighted material was permitted to be reprinted, and for the courtesy extended by them, the following acknowledgments are gratefully made:

D. Appleton & Co., Bernard Shaw: Playbou and Prophet by Archibald Henderson; Jonathan Cape, The Aesthetic Adventure by William Gaunt; Chanticleer Press, Inc., John Milton by Rex Warner; Chatto & Windus, Ltd., Mliton by E. M. Tillyard; The Citadel Press, The Hidden Heritage by John Howard Lawson; William Collins Sons & Co., Ltd., The Life of William Cohbett by G. D. H. and M. Cole; Columbia University Press, John Bunyan, Mechanick Preacher by W. Y. Tindall; Cresset Press, Ltd., Jane Austen and Some Contemporaries by Mona Wilson; Dodd, Mead & Co., Charles Dickens by G. K. Chesterton; Gerald Duckworth & Co., Ltd., Huxley by E. W. MacBride; Victor Gollancz, Ltd, Bernard Shaw: Art and Socialism by E. Strauss, Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., The Poet in the Theatre by Ronald Peacock, The Common Reader by Virginia Woolf; Harper & Brothers, Color by Countee Cullen, The Poems of Emily Dickinson by Emily Dickinson, Hodder & Stoughton, Ltd., Men of Letters by Dixon Scott; Horizon Press, Modern Greek Poetry by Rae Dalven; Hutchinson & Co., Ltd., Introduction to the English Novel by Arnold Kettle; International Publishers, The Novel and the People by Ralph Fox; The Kenyon Review, "Fiction and the 'Matrix of Analogy'" by Mark Schorer; Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., Shelley by Neuman Ivy White, John Lane, The Bodley Head, Ltd., George Bernard Shaw by G. K. Chesterton; Lawrence & Wishart, Ltd., Charles Dickens-The Progress of a Radical by T. A. Jackson, A People's History of England by A. L. Morton, Crisis and Criticism by Alick West, A Good Man Fallen Among Fabians by Alick West; The Macmillan Co., Shakespeare and the Rival Tradition by Alfred Harbage, Collected Poems by Thomas Hardy, History of English Literature by Legouis and Cazamian, Science and the Modern World by A. N. Whitehead; Macmillan & Co., Ltd., Political Characters of Shakespeare by John Palmer; McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., Shakespeare Without Tears by Margaret Webster; Methuen & Co., Ltd., John Bunyan-Maker of Myths by Jack Lindsay; New Statesman & Nation, "The Economic Deter-

minism of Jane Austen" by Leonard Woolf; The New Yorker, "Charles Dickens" by Martha Keegan; Oxford University Press, Shelley, Godwin and Their Circle by H. N. Brailsford, The Dickens World by Humphrey House; Philosophical Library. Charles Dickens by Jack Lindsay; Princeton University Press, Prefaces to Shakespeare by H. Granville-Barker, Jane Austen, Irony As Defense and Discovery by Marvin Mudrick, The Court Wits of the Restoration by J. H. Wilson; G. P. Putnam's Sons, Ellen Terry and Bernard Shaw by Ellen Terry; The Quarterly Review, "Jane Austen" by Reginald Farrer; Routledge & Kegan Paul, Ltd., Biography of Bacon by Mary Sturt; Henry Schuman, Inc., Francis Bacon by Benjamin Farrington; Scrutiny (Magazine), "Regulated Hatred" by D. C. W. Harding; Secker & Warburg, William Blake: A Man Without a Mask by J. Bronowski; Society of Authors (London), William Morris As I Knew Him by Bernard Shaw, The Works of Bernard Shaw by Bernard Shaw, George W. Stewart, Inc., The Great Tradition by F. R. Leavis; University of California Press, Swift and Defoe by John Frederick Ross; Viking Press, Inc., Collected Works by Dorothy Parker.

THE ELIZABETHAN AGE

It is difficult for us today to imagine the reality and vigor of England's great Renaissance age, and of that early period of triumphant revolution which ushered in our modern world.

Sixteenth century England, and especially, its capital city London, were in the full enjoyment of a belated Renaissance, a humanist flowering of secular learning like that which had, a little earlier, reached Italy and France. But partly because of certain political events sketched below and the strong feeling of somewhat aggressive patriotism they engendered, partly because of the powerful current of the Reformation which had affected England almost as much as it did the Netherlands (and had inspired such martyred Protestant leaders as John Wyclif, William Tyndale, and Hugh Latimer) England wore its Renaissance with a difference. As the excellent French critic, Emile Legouis, says in his History of English Literature:

While in France the Renaissance was eminently aristocratic, in England it was always regardful of the masses. It preserved and increased the vogue of the ballads. The theatre, the home of the most magnificent product of the period, was accessible to all men, appealed to the humble as well as to the great.

A striking example of this English integration of the new Renaissance emphasis on learning with the older popular cultural traditions is shown by the development of the medieval morality play in the early sixteenth century. (In France, on the contrary, this flourishing medieval folk art died out entirely during the Renaissance, and after 1548 popular performances of the other

medieval religious plays, the mystery plays, were forbidden by law.)

One of the first of these new English morality plays was written by John Skelton in 1516. A famous humanist, noted as a Latinist and grammarian, and appointed tutor to the future Henry VIII, Skelton turned his back on the language of the court and university to write poetry in the still unrespected English vernacular. Thomas More's famous *Utopia*, for example, was written in Latin in 1516 and although widely known in his own time, was not translated into English until 1551. But Skelton said:

Though my rime be ragged, Tatter'd and jagged, Rudely raine-beaten Rusty and moth-eaten; If ye take wel therewith, It hath in it some pith.

His morality play, Magnificence, does not represent the medieval struggle between heaven and hell for the soul of man. It represents a kingly Renaissance hero, Magnificence, who is almost ruined by following the advice of bad counselors but is saved by the help of such good, but equally worldly, ones as Hope, Circumspection and Perseverance.

An even more interesting secular adaptation of the old religious form, printed anonymously three years later, is called *The Four Elements*. It has as its devil, Ignorance, and as its hero, Humanity, son of the "Natura Naturata" who is saved by his guardian, Studious Desire.

In the late forties The Play of Wyt and Science was performed. In this a noble father, Reason, wishes to marry his daughter, Science, to the poor and low-born Human Wit, son of Nature. He answers arguments about the disparity of the match:

Wherefore, syns they both be so meet matches
To love each other, strawe for the patches
Of worldly mucke! syence [science] hath inowghe [enough]
For them both to lyve.

In this play, too, one of the villains is Ignorance, born of Idleness.

About the same time another form of literature which desply

allocate the developing Educatetian draws began to appear.

In 1548 Edward Hall published his Chronicles which treated the history of the Civil Wars of Lancaster and York (the Wars of the Roses) and the reigns of Henry VII and VIII. Shakespeare's two great series of History Plays, which we will soon consider, drew much of their material from these very popular Chronicles.

In 1561 another Summarie of English Chronicles was printed and ran into eleven editions in the following half century.

From 1578-1586 Raphael Holinshed's Chronicles, to which Shakespeare was also greatly indebted, appeared and were enthusiastically received by a public deeply interested in political affairs and avid for any lessons that might be learned from history.

The history which those who could not read were soon eagerly following on the bare Elizabethan stage was indeed a thrilling one.

The intoxication of freedom from feudal ties, and the excitement of the new horizons and possibilities which were opening upbefore the rising young bourgeoisie all over England, were already the very breath of the great Elizabethan Age when Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558.

Her grandfather, Henry VII, founder of the Tudor dynasty, had with his victory ended the hundred and fifty year fratricidal "Wars of the Roses" in which the feudal nobility had been largely destroyed. His need for support and his fear of any reviving rival power in the remnants of the old nobility made his Tudor monarchy from the beginning closely ally itself with the growing new power and wealth of the "middle class." His policies naturally fostered this growth and in many respects met the needs and paralleled the thinking of the most advanced sections of the bourgeoisie.

For example, the only way in which the notoriously thrifty Henry VII willingly spent royal funds was in bounties to encourage shipbuilding. And a century before Geoffrey Chaucer had already noted that, of all the pilgrims en route to Canterbury, only the prosperous "new man"—an active bourgeois merchant—was typically

concerned about the neglect of England's sea power.

Henry's son, Henry VIII, had, in the course of England's opposition to Spain, then the center of European reaction, been led to defy the medieval power of the Catholic Church. With amazingly general support and virtually no internal opposition he had succeeded in asserting England's independence of that till then almost unchallenged supernational feudal authority.

By his confiscation and immediate piecemeal resale of the vast church estates, Henry VIII had enormously increased the power