## 文学间的契合

一王佐良比较文学论集

- ▶ 王佐良 著
- ▶ 顾 钧 汇编

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#### 前言

蔡元培先生当年在《北京大学月刊》的"发刊词"一文中曾对单一学科的教育提出过批评。蔡先生说:"破学生专己守残之陋见。……治文学者,恒蔑视科学,而不知近世文学,全以科学为基础;治一国文学者,恒不肯兼涉它国,不知文学之进步,亦有资于比较;治自然科学者,局守一门,而不肯稍涉哲学,而不知哲学即科学之归宿,其中如自然哲学一部,尤为科学家所需要;治哲学者,以能读古书为足用,不耐烦于科学之实验,而不知哲学之基础不外科学,即最超然之玄学,亦不能与科学全无关系。"用今天的话来说,蔡先生提倡的是通才教育。蔡先生的这个提法对中国的外语类院校来说是十分重要的。人文教育的相对薄弱,中国文化的素养相对不足,使得外语类院校的毕业生的文化和学术视野相对狭窄,并已经严重阻碍外语类院校的学科发展,其严重性已经引起了很多专家和学者的重视。正如有的学者所说,我们今天的外语教学已经与当年吴宓先生在清华大学外语系所倡导的"会通中西,学识博雅"的外语教育思路相距越来越远了。

那么,如何在外语类院校加强人文学科的教育呢?把比较文学课程列人外语类院校的基础课程应该是办法之一。杨周翰先生当年曾经说过:"我们出版的外国文学史在联系实际方面做得很不够,有时又很勉强,最不够的是外国文学和我国古今文学的联系……我觉得教外国文学有意识地同中国文学作些比较,辨其异同,可以加深对外国文学的理解,同时也加深了对本国文学的理解。"杨先生的话点出了我国外国文学教学中的一个缺憾。外国文学是外语类院校的主干课程。但是,长期以来我们在外国文学的教学中往往忽略了比较文学的视野,只是单纯地分析和讲解外国的文学作品,很少自觉地将外国文学和中国文学加以比较,无论是历史地比较还是平行地比较。其实细想起来,如果完全抛开比较文学,外国文学的讲授和研究也会受到影响。因为我们毕竟是在中

国的大学里讲授外国文学,我们面对的是在中国文化熏陶中成长起来的 青年学生。如果我们在教学中能够从中国文化的主体性出发来讲授和研究外国文学,我们的学生就不会跟在国外研究人员的后面,人云亦云, 而会逐渐学会用一种比较独特的视角来欣赏和分析外国的文学作品。

北京外国语大学是一所有着优良学术传统的大学。当年吴宓先生的两位高足王佐良和周珏良教授不仅是北外比较文学研究的奠基者,也是20世纪80年代以来中国比较文学学科创立时期的奠基人。王佐良先生是中美比较文学研讨会的前三届的中方代表团团长,他的《论契合》一书曾获得中国比较文学学会的最高荣誉奖。他们为我们北京外国语大学留下了十分宝贵的学术遗产。另外,北外讲授着34种外国语言,这也为我们展开比较文学和比较文化的教学和研究创造了语言上和学术上的条件。去年北京外国语大学比较文学与比较文化研究中心正式成立,标志着我们将继承这份珍贵的学术遗产,发挥北外的优势,把比较文学作为我们的重要学科来建设。

为发扬北京外国语大学比较文学研究的优良传统,我们于2004年11月在北京召开了全国部分外语类院校比较文学学科建设讨论会,大家一致认为应该尽快在外语类院校开设比较文学课程,同时也应发挥外语类院校的学术力量,推动比较文学的学术研究。基于这一考虑,我们北京外国语大学比较文学与比较文化研究中心组织了这套比较文学研究丛书。第一辑收录了五本,分别为《超越文化的屏障——胡文仲比较文化论集》、《文学间的契合——王佐良比较文学论集》、《构设普遍诗学——周珏良比较文学论集》、《他乡有夫子——汉学研究导论》(上、下)、《碰撞与融会——比较文学与中国古典文学》。希望该丛书的推出能够对我国的比较文学的教学与研究工作有所助益,有所启示,也衷心希望我们的比较文学研究在新世纪全球化背景下能够开出一片崭新的天地。

北京外国语大学比较文学与比较文化研究中心

#### 编者序

#### ——王佐良先生与比较文学

王佐良先生是我国20世纪的著名学者,1916年生于浙江省上虞县,1939年毕业于西南联合大学,1947年秋赴英国牛津大学茂登学院学习,获B. Litt学位,1949年9月回国后一直任教于北京外国语大学直至1995年去世。王先生在英国文学研究方面成就卓著,这多少掩盖了他在其他领域所取得的成就,比较文学便是其中之一。上个世纪八九十年代王先生在《中外文学之间》、《论契合》、《翻译:思考与试笔》、《论新开端》、《论诗的翻译》等多部著作中做了大量的比较文学研究,取得了丰硕的研究成果。据我粗略的考证,王先生最早的一篇有关比较文学的文章可以追溯到1946年,<sup>①</sup>当时王先生还是西南联合大学外文系一名年轻的助教,可见对中西文学关系的研究贯穿了王先生一生的学术事业。

本论文集从上述多部著作中精选了王先生有关比较文学的论文 15 篇,分两个部分编排。第一部分"论契合"中的 8 篇文章主要研究的是 20 世纪中西方文学之间的关系,这种关系可以简单地归纳为影响与接受,王先生也主要是从这两方面来着手的。"The Shakespearean Moment in China"以及"English Poetry and the Chinese Reader"研究的是英国作家在中国的影响,而"Lu Xun and Western Literature"则很明显是以鲁迅为个案讨论接受问题。第一部分的其他几篇文章集中探讨了中国新诗中的现代主义,这是王先生最为关心,也是用力最多的一个问题。

在中国文学的现代化进程中,诗歌所遇到的困难要远远大于小说和 戏剧,但是诗歌的现代化是不可阻挡的历史潮流,西方现代主义与中国 诗歌的碰撞也就成为早晚的事情。这一碰撞的结果怎样呢?王先生经过

① 王佐良:《论契合》, 北京:外语教学与研究出版社, 1985年。

细致的研究得出了如下结论: "西欧的现代主义诗歌给中国的诗创作带来了新风格、新音乐,但并不能为所欲为,因为它面对的是处在战争与革命环境里的中国诗人,他们对未来的公正社会有憧憬,而在他们背后则是世界文学里一个历史悠长、最有韧力的古典诗歌传统。这里并不出现先进诗歌降临落后地区的局面,思想上如此,艺术上也如此。除了大城市节奏、工业性比喻和心理学上的新奇理论之外,西方现代诗里几乎没有任何真正能叫有修养的中国诗人感到吃惊的东西;他们一回顾中国传统诗歌,总觉得许多西方新东西似曾相识。这足以说明为什么中国诗人能够那样快那样容易地接受现代主义的风格技巧,这也说明了为什么他们能够有所取舍,能够驾驭和改造外来成分,而最终则是他们的中国品质占了上风。戴望舒、艾青、卞之琳、冯至、穆旦——他们一个一个地经历了这样的变化,而在变化的过程里写下了他们最能持久的诗。"①简言之,中国新诗中出现过现代主义,但却是经过改造和变形的现代主义,这种改造和变形的压力来自纵横两个方面——中国古典诗歌的传统和充满了战争与革命的社会现实。

面对三四十年代中国内忧外患的现实,诗人们无法逍遥,他们从欧洲带回的芦笛总会吹奏出另外的声调。王先生在他们的诗中明确感受到了"对国家困境的担忧,而这种感情是西欧和北美的现代主义诗歌少有的"。诗歌可以没有国度,但诗人却有自己的祖国。作为诗人们的学生、朋友和同学,王先生也从未将自己关在文学的象牙塔中,当年他中断在国外的进修毅然回到即将解放的祖国,表现的不正是一股赤子之情,抒写的不正是一首人生好诗吗?

现实难以回避,但是面对传统,诗人们却可以自主选择。无论是戴望舒的旧瓶新酒,还是穆旦的自出机杼,王先生都给予了充分的肯定,因为两种不同路径都产生了好诗。相比较而言,王先生似乎更赞赏穆

① 参见本书《中国新诗中的现代主义——一个回顾》。

旦: "同他的师辈冯至、卞之琳相比,穆旦对于中国旧诗传统是取之最少的",因此他也就"把现代主义更加推进一步"。这是王先生四十年代的看法,到了八十年代仍然没有改变。可见王先生始终主张中国新诗应当大胆革新,尽管他看到这样的革新常常伴随着冷遇。王先生与穆旦终生的友谊在我看来决不是偶然的:他们对于新诗有着共同的见解和追求。

王先生与这批三四十年代的诗歌革新者们都有私人交往,但在讨论他们的诗作时,我们却看不到一点私人情感的夹杂,而是纯正的学院派研究:言必有据、不尚空论,而且全部从原文出发,所以在这些以英文和中文为写作语言的论文中,我们也能不断看到法文、德文、俄文、西班牙文等多种文字的引文,令人如人山阴道中,目不暇接,也不由自主地叹服老一辈学者的丰厚学养。

或许不是完全的巧合,戴望舒、冯至、卞之琳、穆旦等现代诗人同时也是诗歌翻译家,他们的创作与翻译之间的关系不可能不受到关注。 王先生发现,他们写诗和译诗几乎是同步发展、互为增益的,以戴望舒为例,"他的诗风有过几次改变,各有背景,其中一个重要因素则是:他在译诗的过程里对于诗的题材和艺术有了新的体会;因为译诗是一种双向交流,译者既把自己写诗经验用于译诗,又从译诗中得到启发。"①卞之琳是另外一个例子,王先生在《一个莎剧翻译家的历程》一文中谈到了这一点,但由于这篇文章主要是谈翻译,所以被放在了本书第二部分——"论翻译"里。

王先生对翻译问题一直非常关注,这不仅因为他本人是优秀的翻译家,而且也是来自他对翻译重要性的认识:"在我看来,在文化接触(不必说文化互动)中没有什么比翻译更为重要的了,特别是在一个长期封闭像中国这样的国家里更是如此,每一部文学作品的翻译都是一个

① 参见本书《译诗与写诗之间——读〈戴望舒译诗集〉》。

新开端。" <sup>®</sup>确实,一个民族、一个国家对其他民族、国家文化的了解,就其大部分成员而言,是通过翻译文本来实现的;从这个意义上来说,翻译乃是比较文化、比较文学研究的中心问题。近年来英国学者苏珊·巴斯奈特 (Susan Bassnett)甚至认为,"从现在起,我们应该把翻译研究视为一门主导学科,而把比较文学当作它的一个有价值的,但是处于从属地位的研究领域"。<sup>®</sup>她这话说得有点过头,我们把它理解为是对翻译研究重要性的极端化说法。

本论文集的第二部分收录了王先生讨论翻译的7篇文章,其中有对两位早期著名翻译家——林纾和严复——的比较和评价,有对近代翻译理论的回顾和分析,也有对翻译中语言和文化关系的解剖,既高屋建瓴,又深入细致,许多结论我想对今天致力于建设"译介学"的人们会有很多帮助和启发。

就具体的文学作品的翻译而言,王先生讨论最多的是诗的翻译。在 所有的文类中诗是最难译的,有人甚至认为诗是不能译的。但是王先生 却没有这么悲观,他坚持认为诗是可译的,而且应该多加翻译,因为诗 歌的翻译"特别能培养一种新的感受力,特别能给另一种语言和文化注 人新的活力"<sup>③</sup>。我国从19世纪后期开始大量译介西方的诗歌、诗剧, 但由于种种原因许多作品被翻译成了散文体,王先生对此不很满意,认 为这不能称为严格意义上的翻译,他极力主张的是"以诗译诗",或者 用卞之琳先生的话来说,就是"尽可能在内容与形式上忠于原作,实际 上也就是在本国语言里相当于原作。"<sup>④</sup> 卞先生译的莎士比亚四大悲剧 以及查良铮的《唐璜》译本被王先生推举为"以诗译诗"的典范,完全

① 王佐良:《论新开端・序言》, 北京: 外语教学与研究出版社, 1991年。

② 乐黛云:《比较文学原理新编》, 北京: 北京大学出版社, 1998年, 第28~29页。

③ 王佐良:《论新开端·序言》, 北京: 外语教学与研究出版社, 1991年。

④ 参见本书《一个莎剧翻译家的历程》。

可以和乔治·恰普曼的《荷马史诗》英译相媲美。其实王先生本人的翻译杰作《彭斯诗选》恰好与上述两者鼎足为三。

总的来说,在王先生广泛的讨论中,卞之琳、查良铮(即诗人穆旦)、戴望舒是他用墨最多的三位,不仅涉及他们的创作,也涉及他们的翻译以及翻译与创作之间的关系。我认为,对这三位诗人翻译家的研究不妨可以作为本论文集第一、二部分之间的纽带。

最后想说明一点的是,王先生对于中西文学的比较不仅表现在这些专门探讨文学关系和翻译的论文中,也体现在其他文章当中。例如他在一文中讨论托马斯·堪必安时,就将他与南宋词人姜白石做了简要的对比<sup>①</sup>,虽然只有寥寥数语,却让人对这位不太知名的英国诗人留下了深刻的印象。

按照当代一位学者的观点,比较文学在学科成立上的本体不是研究对象,而是研究主体的比较视阈——"在两种文学关系之间或文学与其他相关学科关系之间的内在透视"<sup>②</sup>,也就是说,只要一位学者具有了比较视阈,那么他做的所有研究都可以看作是比较文学。据此我们可以说,王先生的《中外文学之间》、《论契合》固然是比较文学研究,而他的《英国浪漫主义诗歌史》、《英国散文的流变》同样可以作为比较文学论著来研读。

顾 钧 2004年11月5日

① 王佐良:《文艺复兴的清晨》、《王佐良文集》、北京:外语教学与研究出版社、1997年、第48页。

② 杨乃乔:《比较文学概论》、北京:北京大学出版社、2002年、第107页。

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### 论 契 合

# On Affinity Between Literatures

When one reads James Wright's poem entitled:

As I Step over a Puddle at the End of Winter, I Think of an Ancient Chinese Governor.

and comes to lines like:

Did you find the city of isolated men beyond mountains?

Or have you been holding the end of a frayed rope

For a thousand years?

one finds unmistakable affinity between an American poet writing about his solitude on the bank of the Mississippi in the 1960s and a Chinese poet sitting uneasily in a boat being towed upstream on the Yangtze in the ninth century. When one marvels at Dai Wangshu's Chinese translation of Baudelaire's Fleurs du Mal or of Federico Garcia Lorca's "Romance de la Guardie Civil española", one finds affinity too between translator and poet, though it varies in scope, depth or intensity from poem to poem.

Affinity works in all sorts of ways. It is not restricted to any one period, but can cut across centuries. Revival of interest in ancient authors shows affinity at work between one generation and another. Charles Lamb's Specimens of English Dramatic Poets Who Lived about the Time of Shakespeare

revealed a Romantic interest in Jacobean drama which was to find a modernist sequel in T. S. Eliot's revaluation of Webster and Tourneur in the next century.

Perhaps the most thought-provoking kind of affinity is to be found where people least expect it: between literatures of widely divergent languages and traditions.

There has been such affinity between Chinese and European literature from 1900 onwards. On the face of it, nothing could be wider apart than these two, each with a distinct social and cultural background of its own.

Yet after the Chinese had suffered repeated military defeats at the hands of the Europeans in the second half of the nineteenth century, a cultural situation arose in China marked by a mounting interest in Western technology and institutions. From 1896 to 1908, Yan Fu took it upon himself to introduce to the scholar-mandarins a whole new ideology by translating some of its basic books, ranging from L'Esprit des Lois and Wealth of the Nations to On Liberty. There was still some doubt about whether the Europeans, devilishly clever as they appeared to be in building steamships and forging howitzers, had any polite literature. This was effectively dispelled by Lin Shu's translations of Western novels, ranging from Alexandre Dumas fils's La Dame aux Camélias to Charles Dickens's David Copperfield, which revealed the depth of their feeling as well as, in some cases, the refinement of their manners. Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe's "protest" novel, Uncle Tom's Cabin, which Lin also translated, made both the translator and his readers indignant over black slavery and apprehensive about yellow slavery, a fate that seemed to be hanging over the heads of the Chinese.

English Romantic poetry made its impact too, at first mainly by quotable lines of a political significance. Three Chinese versions of Byron's "Isles of Greece" appeared in quick succession in Shanghai at the turn of the century and the translators were, respectively, a half-Japanese monk-poet, a German-trained educationist and Dr. Hu Shih, a disciple of the American pragmatist philosopher John Dewey. These versions, of varying degrees of accuracy and poetic felicity, appealed to an intelligentsia who were getting daily more restive under the rule of the Qing emperors. Thus they were extraordinarily stirred when they came to lines like:

'Tis something, in the dearth of fame,

Though link'd among a fetter'd race,

To feel at least a patriot's shame,

Even as I sing, suffuse my face;

For what is left the poet here?

For Greeks a blush — for Greece a tear.

Must we but weep o'er days more blest?

Must we but blush?— Our fathers bled.

Soon enough, they also bled, in insurrections which eventually overthrew the Qing Dynasty and established a Republic.

Shelley's "Ode to the West Wind", translated somewhat later by the poet-historian Guo Moruo, stirred a new generation of Chinese intellectuals. The line most often quoted—and not by poets alone, but also by revolutionaries in prison and even on the eve of their execution—was the ending:

If Winter comes, can Spring be far behind?

Perhaps that was precisely the kind of effect Shelley meant to achieve, but did he have any idea that it would be so fully realized in distant China?

In all this, one sees affinity.

With the rise of the New Culture Movement of 1919, things took a more

decisive turn. There occurred a gigantic language reform. All writings, except official notices, antiquarian essays, and polite verses for ceremonial occasions, were henceforth to be done in baihua, the plain speech, instead of wenyan, the literary medium which had remained virtually unchanged for over a thousand years. Many to this day lament this rash change, particularly poets of the old school, but it certainly facilitated, among other things, translation of foreign works, literary and otherwise. The Communist Manifesto was translated from a Japanese version in 1920, and soon China was convulsed in changes that shook the world. For that slim book showed the Chinese intelligentsia and the nascent working class that there could be a juster, more equitable society than the bourgeois democracy many of their elders had been hankering for. The immediate task, however, was to deal with problems arising out of a medievalism which was supposed to be moribund but actually still had plenty of kicks left. Here again translation of foreign literary works proved to be helpful. Ibsen's Doll's House touched a chord in every feminist heart in China, which however only caused the sardonic Lu Xun to ask, "What happened to Nora after she left her husband?"

For Lu Xun found affinity elsewhere, namely, between the suffering masses of Eastern Europe and those of China. He started his literary career by writing an essay on the "Satanic" Byron and translating the short stories from Poland and Russia. A medical man by training, he believed in Darwinian evolution but in his later years moved on to Marxism, translating with stubborn passion the treatises on art and literature by Lunacharsky and other Soviet theoreticians. In between he wrote his own stories which, classically Chinese in their economy of words, were European in their approach, structure, atmosphere, down to their direct, abrupt way of presenting dialogue, a novelty in Chinese fiction. He practiced the art of earthbound realism, etching sharply a few significant details, but always managed to stop this side of

dullness by his feeling for poetry. A giant bestriding both the classical Chinese and the surging modern worlds, he actively supported those new trends in art and literature that voiced the protest of the poor against the rich — the terrifying etchings of Käthe Kolowitz and the intense, vigorous woodcuts of the young left-wing artists of Shanghai. There were also bonds of sympathy between him and Bernard Shaw the iconoclast, as also between him and progressive American journalists — Agnes Smedley, Edgar Snow and Harold Isaacs.

Thus affinity between Chinese and Western literature in the twentieth century has had many manifestations, but never purely literary. Confronted with an acute problem of survival, China has been attracted by those elements in Western culture that answered to her needs and aspirations at a particular point of time. Many literary endeavours were impelled by a sense of crisis.

Has there not been repulsion also? Yes, of course. Different sections of Chinese writers were repulsed by different things in Western literature: some by its pandering to popular taste for sex and violence, others by its abstruse over-abstraction, still others by its exaggerated sense of its own importance or enlightenment. But even in repulsion there was attraction of opposites, while the mainstream in both literatures had a lot in common, being subject to the same pressures of modern life and aspiring to express the same hopes for a better world.

How did China's long classical tradition react in these encounters and confrontations? It resisted change, of course. However, it had within itself elements that responded to calls from the outside world. The reason why it had such resilience was precisely that it could in some way or other accommodate modifications and reforms. Even when it failed to contain the onslaught of the new, it acted as a shock absorber and a sieve, for long expe-