



Major Writers of Modern English Literature

现代英国文学大家

● 朱望 编著



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前言

20世纪是西方历史上风起云涌的时代：工业革命引导现代化运动；帝国主义、殖民扩张和法西斯主义引发两次世界大战；苏维埃社会主义国家和斯大林主义引起欧洲的震动与不安；现代主义文学艺术引领时代新潮流；战后冷战导致资本主义与社会主义阵营的意识形态对峙；60年代的欧美民权运动指导西方社会进行深入民主改革；第三世界国家民族独立运动终结帝国主义。急风暴雨般的社会政治运动和层出不穷的文化思潮使西方传统生活方式和价值观发生了激变。唯科学主义、工具理性和拜金主义、殖民帝国主义、各式极权主义、冷战意识，都成为现当代英国文学家的忧患而被写入文学作品中，由此赋予了英国现代和后现代文学颇具时代意义的人文关怀。现当代文学家们又是创新文学审美观和创作技巧的先锋，每一个作家都以其独特的审美意识和写作手法完善了独具特色的文学作品，为英国文学的伟大传统做出了卓越贡献，也使其文学作品流芳百世。20世纪英国文学精彩纷呈，是具有前卫思想意识和反传统创作美学观的现代主义和后现代主义的文学与文化之大观。因此，20世纪英国文学是英语专业教学中不可或缺的重要内容。

本教材涵盖了20世纪最有代表性的英国现代和后现代文学家：康拉德、E. M. 福斯特、曼斯菲尔德、叶芝、T. S. 艾略特、D. H. 劳伦斯、乔伊斯、伍尔夫、A. 赫胥黎、奥威尔、贝克特、戈尔丁和多丽丝·莱辛（小说家、短篇小说家、诗人和剧作家，五位诺贝尔文学奖获得者）。每篇课文包括作家的生平、创作时期及主要作品、思想观点、美学原则和创作手法、选读或评论和思考题六部分，概括了对作家创作最有影响的事件、作家的生活哲学、政治观、道德观、美学观、创作手法和艺术风格，结合宏观的社会背景研究和微观的文学文本分析，探究各个作家批判现代工业异化效应、质疑殖民主义和欧洲民族中心主义、抨击法西斯主义极权主义、反对男权社会的女权主义呼声、深刻的民主意识、深思传统与现代性、历史与现代文明的冲突等多方面的现代主义和后现代主义文学主题意义，分析文学作品中蕴涵的象征主义、反传统叙事、意识流、荒诞派艺术等创新美学观，系统阐释20世纪英国文学丰富的思想价值和艺术性。

本教材有以下创新点：

一、这是国内鲜有的以作家为中心的英国文学教材，突出重要作家，精干扼要，讲好作家，史在其中，除却了以史为主线的教材弊端：过多史实挤占了对作家研究的分量；重要作家因篇幅不够而阐述不足；重点不突出而导致师生选择课文的困惑。

二、突出重要信息，包括最重要的作家、作家最重要的观点和最重要的作品，让学生对现代英国文学的整体风貌、主要作家的创作主题和文学作品艺术特质有一个宏观和微观的把握；生平部分以简历替代，文字部分不再赘述生活琐事，而是重在阐述影响作者创作的重要事件意义；课文主体涵盖了每一个作家的核心理念和重要观点。

三、提供多面信息：1. 这是全国第一部选入作家文论的外国文学教材，揭示每个作家的独特美学观，完整展示其文学与文论的相互印证，对于学生正确解读作家的主题意义和创作风格有直接的帮助，为学生撰写研究论文提供了理论依据这一极大便利；2. 尽可能完整呈现每个作家的思



想体系，甚至作家自我矛盾的思想与行为；不回避有关作家的不利信息和有争议问题，如康拉德的“种族主义”问题、艾略特的“反犹太”问题、赫胥黎和奥威尔思考斯大林主义的问题等；3. 吸收关于作者的最新信息和文学评论信息，如后现代批评的重要观点或视角，包括后殖民主义批评和女性主义批评；4. 文本注释非简单的词语解释，而是兼文字解释与主题意义阐释为一体，十分有助于读者理解作者；5. 同时代的其他作家列表附后，以方便读者查找；6. 周学时课程表设计附后，以方便师生备课参考。本教材力图在素材选取、内容的广度和深度、课文编排和语言表述等方面适合高校英语专业学生、研究生和相关英专教师。

21世纪的外国文学教学和教材编写有其困惑。一方面，全球一体化和中国国际化要求现代人才具有宽广的文化视野和综合素质，这须在文史哲的人文教育中获得。另一方面，唯科学主义和实用主义颠覆了传统人文主义，人文教育被边缘化。同时，后现代是娱乐休闲替代读书思考的时代，学生不愿钻研学术，教师不敢教授理论，游戏娱乐淡化了学术内涵，常使文学课蜕变为一场闹剧。如此肤浅学习，难得文化真谛，也无法提高英语语言水平。具有讽刺意义的是，此等浮泛的文学教学正好成为 T. S. 艾略特半个多世纪前就痛斥的现代世俗主义毁灭传统文学的明证：“我们可以观察到在至少近三百年来，文学经历了这种逐渐世俗化……整个现代文学都受到我称之为世俗主义的败坏。”不读原著是“假学”，不作理论研究的文学教学不过是浮光掠影。本人认为，文学的学习始于直觉感悟和心性体验，通过理性分析和逻辑阐释，达到提高知识学养与人文修养的双重目的。因此，本教材强调学术，深入理论，鼓励读书写作，教学目的是帮助学生打造高级语言，拓宽文化视野，发展逻辑思维，提高理论意识，激发创新思想，达到培养学生的英语语言能力和综合人文素质的双重目标。

本人早年随云南大学外语系第一任美国教师 Mrs. Elisabeth B. Booz 学习现代英国文学，读的是她后来编辑出版的 *A Brief Introduction to Modern English Literature* (上海外语教育出版社, 1984) 的素材，那是中国最早的英国文学教材之一。在禁书忌言压制思想的“文革”刚刚结束之时，西方老师的文学启蒙教育令我震撼。涉世未深的我以我心读文学：康拉德的《黑暗之心》玄妙又沉重；奥威尔的《一九八四》仿佛是描写“文革”的外文版“伤痕文学”；乔伊斯的《一个青年艺术家的画像》好似讲述我在荒诞年代中迷失信仰，困惑成长的十万个为什么；艾略特的《荒原》和赫胥黎的《美丽新世界》给我们向往现代化的中国青年一个难解的预言。在研究生阶段，我随加拿大文学理论家诺思洛普·弗莱 (Northrop Frye 1912—1991) 和 Darrell J. R. Nunn 教授进一步学习西方文学理论和现代英国文学。自1997年起，本人在云南大学开设“现代英国文学”课程，继而在汕头大学 (2005至今) 的科研和教学实践中不断完善这门课程。我看到，学生入学时漠然无知，随着教学展开，学生在课上目光炯炯，课下读书如饥似渴，思考如痴如醉。我知道，打动情感、启蒙心智的文学正引导青年学子步入人生的一个高境界。文学不止是学术，更是看待世界的人文价值观体系，是我愿意与学生分享的最大精神财富和愉悦，也是我编写这部教材的心劲。

朱 望

汕头大学文学院外语系

2011年3月5日

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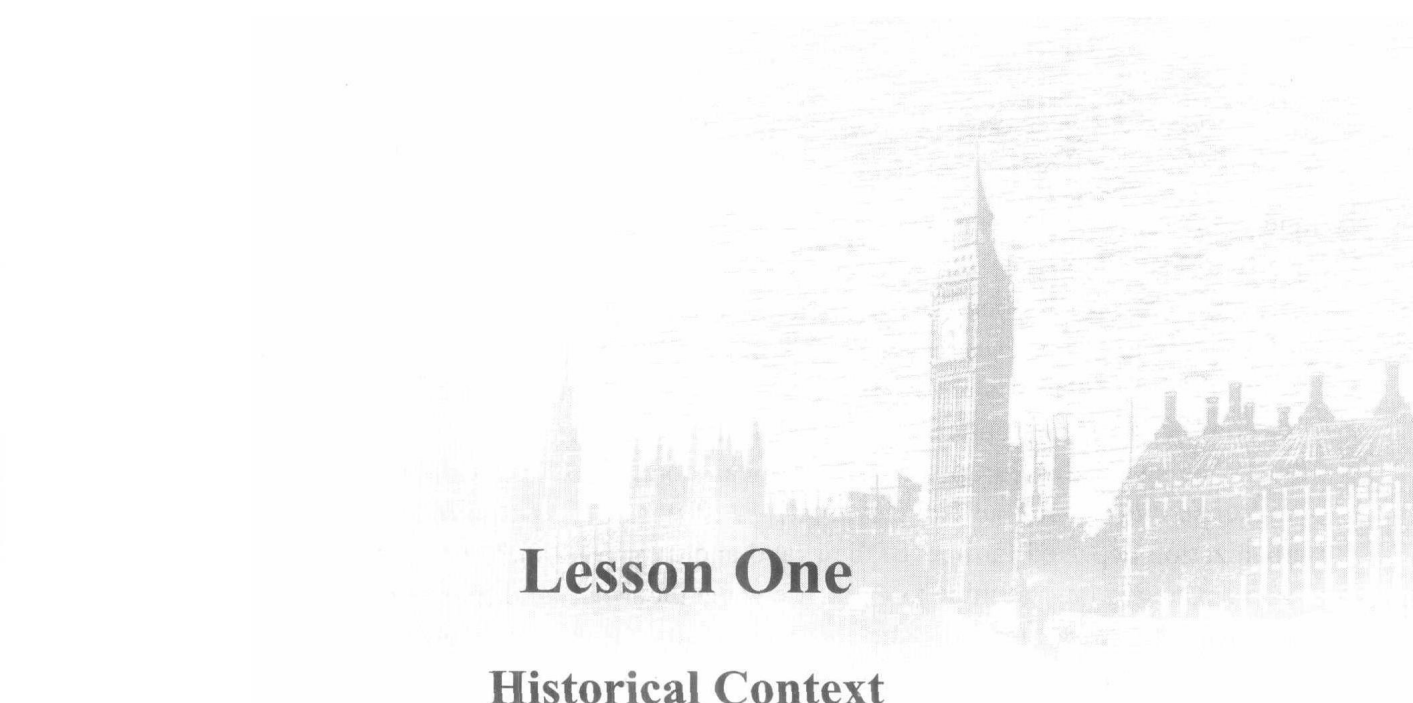
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Lesson One

Historical Context

I. The First Half of the Twentieth Century

1.1 The Industrial Revolution and the Modernization Movement

The Industrial Revolution originated in Britain and developed through two phases. In the mid-eighteenth century, the Industrial Revolution started with the invention of simple machines such as “Spinning Jenny” which replaced the manual tools of home-based labour and manufacturing, so it is known as the Revolution of “Cottage Industry.” Since the mid-nineteenth century, the Industrial Revolution gained greater momentum aided with science and technology. By 1914 Europe had become highly industrialized despite uneven development. The most advanced countries were Britain, France and Germany. Britain was the leading power, honoured as “the cradle of the Industrial Revolution,” “the workshop of the world” and “the industrial powerhouse of the world.”

The Scientific Revolution and the Industrial Revolution gave birth to an age of great discovery and great invention. The modern industrial system enhanced production efficiency. Modern industrial economy squeezed agricultural economy and remodelled traditional society. Many new inventions facilitated housework and improved working conditions; this material betterment began to improve public health and extend the life span of modern people. Industrialization stimulated population growth and it prompted urbanization, turning the country into towns and cities into metropolitan centres such as London, Paris and Berlin where political, social and cultural activities occurred and connected philosophies, politics



and cultural fashions. The Industrial Revolution marked great social progress and initiated global modernization.

Alongside social benefits, industrialization however caused new social problems and set the seed of new crises in the twentieth century. Ever-increasing industry and business required overseas development and accelerated European expansionism. Cyclical economic crises affected many countries in a global economic system. The Great Depression during the 1930s swept the European and American continents. Industrialization ravaged natural landscape and caused an irretrievable loss of wildlife. Widespread industrialization and urbanization deprived farmers of their land and dislocated them physically and emotionally. People changed their attitude towards life when their means of livelihood altered. Traditional virtues of modesty, gentility and thrift gradually disappeared; money-consciousness and commodity fetishism formed modern mentality; dissipation and corruption ran rampant. Humanism declined when the spiritual life of philosophy, religion, ethics and aesthetics were superseded by the instrumental means and pragmatic ends of scientism, commercialism and consumerism.



1.2 Colonialism and Imperialism

The terms “colonialism” and “imperialism” are basically synonyms which refer to the integration of strategy and maneuver of military conquest, political rule, economic exploitation and cultural hegemony over the peoples and territories under colonization, although “colonialism” is used more often to describe population immigration between territories. Early colonists might be either world wanderers for adventure or those who tried to escape religious or political persecution. Later colonists grew to be imperialist, regarding themselves superior to non-European peoples and going to “civilize” so-called “savages” in other parts of the world. Their overseas expansion developed into an intentional invasion of the territories beyond Europe for “Glory, Land and Gain!” Escalating European expansion finally resulted in global colonization in political, military, economic, and cultural means and ends.

In the fifteenth century, the earliest imperial empires such as Spain and Portugal started overseas exploration and created the Great Age of Discovery; England, France and Germany launched broader expansion soon; Netherlands, Belgium and the United States quickly joined in global colonization. Immediately after their military conquest of new lands, Western powers wanted profit from their subject states: “Trade follows flag.” They took away local treasures, exploited cheap resources, labour and land, set up trading posts to control markets for capital investment and product sale, enslaved local peoples and even traded them like animals. Western colonialism caused colonized peoples the miseries of bloodshed, loss of lives, home and property, forced slavery and immigration, and the loss of their national sovereignty. All those evil deeds were done in the name of a “civilizing mission.” Colonialism and imperialism reached its zenith in the first half of the twentieth



century when Western powers had reached every corner of the earth. Throughout the last five centuries Western powers scrambled for political control and economic gains. Wars occurred frequently, including regional wars such as the Boer Wars (1899—1902) between Britain and two independent Boer republics in South Africa, and the two world wars as the final devastating consequences.

The British Empire was one of the earliest global powers; it lasted for almost four hundred years from the sixteenth century up to the twentieth century. It possessed the greatest number of colonial territories and a quarter of the world's population on a quarter of the land on the earth, with Ireland as its nearest conquered territory and its farthest subject states in Asia and Africa. From this imperial rule Britain gained benefits of political, economic and socio-psychological importance.

The Empire maintained its spheres of political influence over the globe in its vast territories “where the sun never sets.” It subjugated other nations, although it claimed the so-called moral goal of salvation by carrying the “white man’s burden.” Britain always took the lion’s share of profit to secure national interests in its transnational economic activities. During this time, imperialism became part of the collective unconscious of Westerners. The imperial cause has long been a very important source of British national pride and strength.



The Map of the United Kingdom
of Great Britain and Northern Ireland



1.3 Fascism

In Europe, fascist regimes seized power and consolidated their authority in three waves. Mussolini (1883—1945) established his fascist government in Italy in 1922. In 1933 Hitler (1889—1945) stepped into power by founding the Third Reich. In 1939 fascism launched the Second World War, but it fell to its doom in 1945.

There were various causes of the rise of German fascism. Hitler had an ambition to establish the “Thousand-Year Reich” and enlarge its territory through military conquest. The defeated Germany in WWI had strong revengeful sentiment and a long-suppressed wish to rehabilitate German glory. Nationalism became the key tone of German society and Hitler came to answer the nation’s call for recovery. In the Great Depression in the 1930s, six million people were jobless and the unemployment rate in Germany reached 30%. Hitler appeared as the “Great Savior” of the German nation, promising to overcome the economic difficulty. In this socio-political situation, fascism arose and quickly grew to be a powerful regime.

Fascist leaders intended to create personal cult. Adulation and allegiance to Hitler was expressed in superlative rhetoric. “Believe! Obey! Fight!” was the public response to Hitler’s Leadership Principle: “Authority from above and obedience from below!” The Hitler Myth was evil and extravagant, manipulating national emotions and creating high-sounding political romanticism in a pseudo-religious atmosphere. The people wanted a spiritual and actual leader to guide them out of dismay; Hitler needed mass support to be the supreme ruler; the Nazi Party would have Hitler to stand for its power. The fascist trinity of Hitler, the Nazi Party and the German people was therefore consolidated into one people, one will and one deed.

German fascists intended to build the “Master Race of Aryans.” Jewish laws justified storm-troopers’ violence against Jews. Jews were forced to leave their homes for concentration camps. Genocide was conducted under Hitler’s instruction for “annihilation of the Jewish race in Europe!” Nazi eugenics was racially-based social policies and experimentation to ensure the super Germans race. Marriage law forbade the marriage or sexual relations between Jews and Germans; officers were checked in their family bloodline back to three generations; subsidies were granted to the “heroic mothers” who brought new blood to Germany; pure-blooded women were conscribed to breed children of pure stock at the “Maternity Homes” for Gestapo. Nazi racists conducted anti-human eugenic experiments at home and overseas.

Nazi Germany created a “Police State” of anti-Semitism, anti-Christianity, anti-Marxism, anti-liberalism and against all types of opposition forces even within the Nazi Party. Fascist legislative, executive and judicial systems abolished citizens’ civil rights and civil liberties, but legitimized mass surveillance, arrest, exile and execution of anyone for any doubt about the Führer or the Nazi State. The fascist regime maintained its dictatorship



through terrorist coercion and suppression.

1.4 The Two World Wars

World War I (1914—1918):

Western powers grew more competitive among themselves and fought for colonial territories—the spheres of political influence and the bases for greater economic growth. The First World War was started in the context of imperialism, chauvinism and public heroism, earnest or sensational. In the war, Britain, France and Russia were on one side as “the Entente” fighting against Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy on the other as “the Central Powers.” It became the first global war involving 1.5 billion people (over 20 million were killed) from 33 countries and the warfare turned Europe into a killing field.

At the end of the four-year-long war, the European powers suffered economic and spiritual exhaustion. The Czarist Russia perished in the Bolshevik Revolution in 1917. The first socialist regime was established in the Soviet Union.

World War II (1939—1945):

Depression, fascism and war were the signs of the time from 1929 to 1945. Mussolini declared: “The twentieth century is the Fascist century!” Hitler proclaimed: “German Today; the Whole World Tomorrow!” The fascist ambition of global conquest soon developed from an official ideology to the national awareness and action in mass hysteria.

Joined by Italy and Japan, Hitler acted as the general commander of the fascist military forces of “the Axis” against “the Allies” of Britain, France, the Soviet Union and the United States. The Second World War involved over 2 billion people and killed over 20 million in more than 60 countries and regions, including China.

The world was gravely ravaged by the two world wars. Violence destroyed human faith in reason and distressed people so much that the sense of “le fin de siècle”^① persisted even long after the war. The greyness of everyday life and the dark despair of war-time shrouded Europe. Profound pessimism marked the modern era.

1.5 Modernism

Modernism started near the end of the nineteenth century and flourished from 1900 to 1920. This new form of art and literature and a cultural critique emerged at a progressive and perplexing time of radical social change and profound crises. Pessimistic European intellectuals warned the world that “God is dead!” (F. Nietzsche, 1844—1900) and “Man is dead!” (S.A. Kierkegaard, 1813—1855). They reacted strongly to the changing politics, economy, mass psychology and cultural values of modern society under the impact of post-

① The end of the century.



Victorian ethics, industrialism, imperialism, totalitarianism and the world wars. Modernist writers had more apprehension of social problems than appreciation of social progress. They criticized the negative side of modern life in their artistic works. Their cultural critiques and unique artistic expression formed the contents of modernism.

Modern literature was characterized by an anti-conventional outlook and innovative artistic techniques. Modernist writers drew themes and subject matters from the chaotic world and widespread disillusionment. The general mood of modernist literature was pessimism about the absurdities of modern life at the age of dismay. Modern writers focused on subjective impressions on the world from multiple perspectives, particularly through one's mind's eye. It exposed the inner life of man through self-consciousness more than on his outward behavior as in traditional writing. Modern literature merged reality and dream, consciousness and unconsciousness into a super-reality to represent the spiritual hysteria or depression of modern man. The experimentation in modern literature created new writing techniques, new styles and aesthetic values. Modern literature has cast a long influence on the writers of later generations and it has become an important part of world literature.

Modernism was also an avant-garde cultural thought and experimentation in architecture and arts. Modern art and architecture started as a high culture, later it gradually entered popular culture shaping new fashions.

II. The Second Half of the Twentieth Century

2.1 The Cold War

The Cold War was the long-standing tension between the “Western bloc” of capitalist countries and the “Eastern bloc” of socialist countries headed by the Soviet Union under the Warsaw Pact. As soon as WWII was over, the both parties started open confrontation against each other and the Cold War escalated in the new situation of the post-war world: “an iron curtain has descended.” (Churchill in 1946) Rather than military warfare, the Cold War was antagonism in political, ideological and economic fields, caused by opposing political philosophies, political systems and economic policies. The Cold War was waged through political disputation and propaganda, economic competition and boycott, arms races, military force deployments, proxy wars, espionage, technological competition, and even at sports meets. In the Cold War, power relations and political spheres changed, including the consolidation of the “capitalist camp” and the “socialist camp,” the division of Germany and Austria, the relations of USSR, US and China, mostly throughout these critical events—European reconstruction and the Marshall Plan (1948), McCarthyism (1947—1954), de-Stalinism (1956), the Korean War (1950—1953), the Berlin Wall Crisis (1961), the Vietnam War (1959—1975), the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962), and the Shanghai Communiqué (1972).



In Europe, important organizations developed for political, military and economic unity. America was always a supporter to Europe, providing the Marshall Plan which was great military and economic assistance to all European nations for their postwar reconstruction and prevention of communist expansion. America played a key role in the global anti-Communist campaign. At home McCarthyism persecuted communists; in the Korean War and the Vietnam War America intended to check communist influence in Asia.

After WWII, Germany was divided into four occupation zones and then into two countries—the German Federal Republic in West Germany with 60 million people and the German Democratic Republic in East Germany with 17 million people. In 1961 the Berlin Wall was erected by East Germany with the urge of the Soviet Union. The Berlin Wall became the symbol of the block and barrier between the “capitalist camp” and the “socialist camp.”

The US-Soviet relation was tense. In the late 1950s America regarded the Cuban government headed by Fidel Castro (1927—) as an anti-American outpost of the Soviet Union. In 1962 Khrushchev placed missiles in Cuba and it was an actual threat to America. In the Cuban missile crisis, the Cold War between the US and the USSR was almost turned into a hot nuclear war.

In 1956 Khrushchev launched de-Stalinism at the 20th Congress of the Soviet Communist Party, which marked a sharp turn in Soviet political life at home and international affairs. Then Khrushchev declared Soviet “peaceful coexistence” with the West. The Soviet Union and Western countries entered the “Era of Détente.”

The Sino-American relation was part of the tension between America and the communist countries headed by China in Asia, as described as the “Bamboo Curtain” between the 1960s and 1970s.

2.2 The Civil Rights Movement

The Civil Rights Movement refers to widespread campaigns for civil rights and civil liberties during the years from 1950s to 1960s in the Western world. The most influential part is the African-American Civil Rights Movement that took place in the United States between 1955 to 1968 when the black people rose to fight against racial discrimination and segregation, and struggled for equality and dignity in political, economic and public life. Under the call of Martin Luther King (1929—1968), the black people gave nonviolent protest of sit-ins and achieved their social rights at the cost of bloodshed. This nation wide campaign of civil disobedience transformed America into a democratic society open to political tolerance and cultural diversity. Other disadvantaged social groups, such as women, different ethnic groups, students, homosexual people, also took actions for their rights. The LGBT social movement in Germany was a call for lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender rights. Revolutionary students’ movements occurred, such as 1968’s “May Storm” in Paris. The Civil Rights Movement is the most radical social reform during the postwar time and it



casts a profound influence particularly on the postmodern society of the West.

2.3 Postmodernism

Postmodernism is composed of multidimensional intellectual movements since the 1970s in philosophy, literary criticism, linguistics, architecture, visual arts, music, and cultural fashion. Jacques Lacan (1901—1981), Lévi-Strauss (1908—2009), Roland Barthes (1915—1980), Jean-François Lyotard (1924—1998), Gilles Deleuze (1925—1995), Influential postmodernist philosophers include Michel Foucault (1926—1984), Richard Rorty (1931—2007), Jacques Derrida (1930—2004) and Fredric Jameson (1934—).

Postmodernism in the late twentieth century is associated with the modernism of earlier periods and then diverges from it. Both modernism and postmodernism probe deeply into the major issues of the modern age: tradition vs. modernity, liberalism vs. totalitarianism, East-and-West tension, feminism vs. patriarchy. Postmodernist thinkers develop an even more open attitude by demolishing authority and orthodoxy and challenging the principles of unity, certainty and universal truth. Postmodernism stresses more flexibility, difference, diversity and multiplicity in power and discourse; it breaks cultural hegemonies and tries to establish equality in power relations between state and society, grand narratives and local narratives, men and women, the East and the West. They undermine a master or grand narrative grounded on canonical theories which unify mind and totalize the world. Postmodernism advocates diversifying epistemology through interdisciplinary or intertextual studies, readers' freedom of learning and interpretation, and multi-perspective observations and references. Postmodernist theorists are more open and dynamic than modernist writers in their exploration of socio-cultural issues, generating more critical theories on historical and present problems. Unlike modernist writers who criticize modern secularism and culture industry, postmodernism promotes mass culture and turns knowledge into language games or a commodity in the trend of postmodern commercialism and consumerism, diverging from a spiritual association with traditional humanities.

Poststructuralist deconstruction of traditional and modern cultures results in the decentralization of social life and the collapse of the cultural hierarchy from its former firm ground to a broad but slippery space. Due to its flexibility and inconsistency, some people criticize the tendency of postmodernism as counter-enlightenment and anti-intellectual hoax.

III. Study Questions

1. What are the most important social movements in the first half of the twentieth century?
2. What are the most influential social movements in the second half of the twentieth century?
3. How much do you know about modernism and postmodernism?