

## Romanticism

**Introduction:** Romanticism, originated in Europe toward the end of the 18th century, was a literary, artistic and Intellectual movement (from 1800 to 1850). Critics label it as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution and the scientific rationalization of nature. Romanticism revived medievalism against the rational and Classical ideal models.

**What is Romanticism:** Romanticism was a movement in the field of literature and art against the Neoclassicism. "Romantic" in English ('Romantique' in French) was adjective of praise for natural phenomena, but it 'never incorporated the sexual connotation'. This term was first applied to literature in Germany. Friedrich Schlegel wrote in his *Dialogue on Poetry* (1800), "I seek and find the romantic among the older moderns." Friedrich Schlegel was a German Poet who for the very first time used the term *romantic* for 19th century literature. He defined it as, "Literature depicting emotional matter in an imaginative form." Thus, the work of art became an expression of a 'voice from within', as the leading Romantic painter Caspar David Friedrich (1774-1840) put it. Romanticism in English literature began in the 1790s with the publication of the *Lyrical Ballads* of William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau is a key to the entire Romantic movement. Back in 1754, Rousseau had entered an essay competition set by the Academy of Dijon in which the question was: what was the origin of inequality among men? Rousseau's answer was that inequality came with property and with the development of civil society in which differences of rank become all too apparent. In contrast to the inequality of the present, he posited a state of nature, in which natural man is unconstrained by social forces. Though he did not use the phrase, this is where the idea of the noble savage comes from. Mary Shelley actually makes *Frankenstein's* creature into just such a man when he's out in the woods before he's corrupted by society and turns destructively against his maker. Rousseau's point was not so much to argue that man ever really did live in a state of nature, but rather that the idea of the state of nature and man's inherent goodness and perfectibility was a heuristic tool to show what was wrong with the inequalities of the present—it's a kind of thought experiment. The idea of the return to nature: from here you can see it's a short step to the famous opening sentence of *The Social Contract*—truly one of the foundations of the French Revolution: "Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains." If man in the state of nature is one example of humankind uncorrupted by the divisive inequality of social

institutions, the other is of course the child- the romantic child. Rousseau's book on childhood and education, *Émile*, which in its model of natural child-rearing perhaps exerted more influence on the Romantic movement than any other single text.

**Romantic Originality:** Romantic Originality was the concept of the artist who was able to produce his own original work through this process of “creation from nothingness,” which is key to Romanticism. To be derivative was totally prohibited.

**Importance of Emotion:** The German painter Caspar David Friedrich stressed on the importance of emotion and said that “the artist's feeling is his law”. To William Wordsworth, poetry should begin as “the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings,” which the poet then “recollect[s] in tranquillity”. There should be less interference from “artificial” rules.

**Distinction Between Imagination and Fancy:** Coleridge divided the “mind” into two distinct faculties: “Imagination” and “Fancy.” ‘Fancy was concerned with the mechanical operations of the mind’ and Imagination described the “mysterious power”. It also determined “the various operations of constructive and inventive genius.”

Coleridge has distributed imagination into two categories: primary and secondary. Primary imagination is “the living power and the prime agent of human perception”. Through it we identify the world around us; it works through our senses and is usual to all human beings. Secondary imagination is the poetic vision, the faculty that a poet has “to idealize and unify”. When we are in a state of trance, images do not appear secluded, but linked according to laws of their own. The imagination is juxtaposed with fancy, which is inferior to it.

**ROMANTICISM AROUND THE WORLD:** Towards the end of 18th century in France and Germany, literary taste began to change. From classical and neoclassical conventions people moved to science and reason. Doubts and pessimism now confronted the hope and optimism of the 18th century. People felt an intense concern for the issues like existence, death, and eternity. It was in this setting that Romanticism was born.

### **Sturm und Drang**

During the 18th century, Germany was not a nation but a collection of principalities, of which Prussia was the most powerful. And across those

principalities, the language of the aristocracy, of the courts, of politics, diplomacy, and public life was French, and the culture was accordingly dominated by French models: French neoclassical values. The French were great imitators of the classics of ancient Rome. The early phase of Romanticism, known as the *Sturm und Drang*—storm and stress—was devoted to the overthrow of those values, to the espousal of a native German culture in opposition to all things French. A key figure in this movement was Johann Gottfried Herder. He despised Prussian autocracy and its code of military nationalism, arguing instead that the true spirit of Germany was to be found in the traditions of the folk, the people: in ballads and songs, in the traditions of the peasantry and the land. And he argued that the models for German authors to follow were not the polished, elite French ones such as the writings of Voltaire and the tragedies of Racine, but rather the raw, energetic native plays and poems of Britain—Shakespeare's history plays above all, in which he gave the people the history of his own nation—and on the Celtic fringe, the poems of Ossian.

### **Spanish Romanticism (1810-30)**

Francisco de Goya (1746-1828) was the leader of Spanish Romanticism. People know him for his set of 11 small paintings, popularly known as *Fantasy and Invention*.

### **French Romanticism (1815-50)**

Antoine-Jean Gros (1771-1835) was the first major Romantic painter in France. He was associated with the academic style of painting. Theodore Gericault (1791-1824) was another important pioneer of the Romantic art movement in France. He is famous for masterpiece *Raft of the Medusa*.

### **Romanticism in England (c.1820-1850)**

Turner is an important forerunner of modern abstract painting. The Romantics, including Pre-Raphaelites, focused on emotion and fantasy. The realists stuck to a more naturalistic idiom having Realism and Impressionism. Other famous English Romantic painters were William Blake (1757-1827) and John Martin (1789-1854).

### **Dark Romanticism:**

Dark romanticism is developed from the transcendental philosophical movement popular in America. Dark Romantic works are notably less optimistic than transcendental texts about mankind, nature, and divinity. Representative of dark

romanticism are Edgar Allan Poe, Nathaniel Hawthorne and Herman Melville. They present individuals as prone to sin and self-destruction and nature in a much more sinister light than does Transcendentalism. Dark Romanticism presents that individuals are not changing for the better.

### **The Tenets of Romanticism**

**Romantic Imagination:** Imagination was the keystone of the writers of Romantic era. ‘Coleridge’s dual definition of the Imagination, combined with Wordsworth’s comments on Romantic literature, can be seen into three simple functions: Essentially, the Imagination is a mode of memory, a mode of perception, and a mode of projection.’

In the words of William Wordsworth, ‘poetry is the first and last of all knowledge’. According to romantic poets, it is possible to attain a transcendental experience by means of imagination. It takes us near to the spiritual truth. The imagination of the Romantics allowed them to foresee a better world as well as helped them to make their poetry visible to the reader.

Romantic poets rejected strict old rules for poetry and focused on the poet's inner imagination. It's not just inventing things—it's a creative power that helps see deeper truths in nature and reality, like symbols of something hidden.

For William Blake, imagination is like God's creation—it's how we perceive the world inwardly. He saw all nature as imagination and aimed to find infinity in small things, like a grain of sand. His view is inward-focused, like dream-like thinking.

Inspired by philosopher Immanuel Kant, Romantics saw imagination as turning raw senses (what we see/hear) into personal, meaningful experiences. It's subjective, shaped by our memories and feelings, not just objective facts.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge brought German ideas to England. He saw imagination as a "shaping" power that mixes thoughts and feelings to create joy and unity. It's original and divine, like repeating God's creation, and uncovers hidden truths beyond everyday appearances.

For William Wordsworth, imagination lets us relive past moments in the present, like memories of nature. This restores calm, connects us to a richer "life of things," and helps understand deeper meanings.

**Individuality and Personal Freedom:** Bold and courageous heroes are presented as individuals who were responsible to God alone. They loved their personal freedom. This individualism permitted rebellion against established rules and authority.

**Emotions and Intuition:** Romanticism promoted antinationalism and rebellion against the strict forms and the emphasis placed on reason during the Enlightenment. The Romanticist belief was that virtue and truth can be found easily by the “heart” than by the “head”. Truth could be found within oneself or perceived through one’s inner feelings and intuition.

When it comes to romantic poetry, reason and logic take a backseat. The overflow of emotions transcends the boundaries of logical reasoning. Spontaneity in romantic poetry arises from an emotional outflow. William Wordsworth's definition of Romantic poetry is “a spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings recollected in tranquillity.” (*Preface to Lyrical Ballads*)

**Gothicism or Supernatural Element:** Gothicism flourished in the 19th century. The movement saw a revival in the 1740s when Horace Walpole purchased a grand estate and refashioned it in the “Gothick” style. He made the building quite a scary place by adding towers, arched windows, and steeples. Many houses in the surrounding areas did the same and supported this movement in their own way. It’s classified by highlighting on the surreptitious elements. Conceptions such as magic, hidden passages, bloody hands, screams, and other supernatural creatures and happenings were all that supports the Gothic literary movement. Walpole published a novel, *The Castle of Otranto*, in 1764, which promoted Gothic movement in the true sense. The supernatural, the mysterious, death, the grotesque, the dark and horror were dear to Romanticists. They felt that these things were natural and there was an unacknowledged beauty in such things. Writers like Ann Radcliffe, Mary Shelley, and Jane Austen also used Gothic elements in their writings.

**Glorification, Personification and Idealization of Nature:** Nature offers relief from the man-made world that we occupy. Romanticism rejected the Enlightenment view of nature as a precise, harmonious whole. Nature to the Romanticist is divine, spiritual as well as life-like, occasionally changing. It is said that romantic poetry associated with nature is a kind of a contemplative process, while the rationalists managed to link nature with some kind of machine.

**Interest in the Rustic or Pastoral Life:** Romantic poetry frequently comments on the pastoral life, culture and traditions. In most cases, the relaxed and slow-paced pastoral life of shepherds is depicted in these poems. Romantic poetry retains this item in order to present before readers the complications of life in a simple manner.

**Rejection of Reason and Enlightenment:** To the Romanticist, rationalism had been too concerned with reason; classicism, with old forms; deism, with a cold, uninspired, impersonal approach to God. Romanticism rejected the concept that natural law could be found through human reason, and it further rejected the Enlightenment notion that society should be reformed by scientific methods.

**Primitivism/ Celebration of the Simple Life:** A belief in the goodness and value of the unspoiled naturally created state of individuals and groups. For example, children and savages were regarded as heroic and admirable in the Romantic world view. Also, the artistic productions of the "uncivilized" population, the folklore and folk art of the peasantry, were highly esteemed for their natural, unspoiled quality. It follows that each of the artist's productions will be unique. Therefore, Romanticism insists on novelty and originality in art, in contrast to the Neoclassical view that the measure of artistic excellence is to be found in the conformation of particular works to known, established-in-the-past standards of artistic goodness.

**Glorification of Nationalism, Patriotism:** Romanticism emphasized folk tales, traditional costumes, country and village life, and national histories, although the history promoted was an idealistic, not a realistic one. Romanticists expressed a vital optimism about life and the future. Romantic nationalists were fanatical patriots and passionate revolutionaries. The Romantic hero played an important part in the nationalist rebellions of the early nineteenth century.

**Use of Common Language and Diction:** Romantics used more natural rhythms and expression in place of the grandiloquent and pompous language of the eighteenth century. The relinquishment of the heroic couplet in favour of blank verse, the sonnet, the Spenserian stanza, and many experimental verse forms cannot be overlooked. In poetic forms, rhymed stanzas were replaced by Blank verse, which was unrhymed but still rhythmic. Its purpose was to heighten conversational speech. Poetry came to be regarded as the spontaneous expression of the poet's own subjective feelings and did not conform to the poetic conventions of classical doctrines. Poets have completely avoided the use of 'Heroic Couplet'

and replaced it with simpler verse forms like the ballads, which belonged to the English rural Folk. In fact, the 'Ballad Revival' is said to have sparked off the English Romantic Movement. Robert Burns uses his Scottish dialect to support the "common everyday language" of the age. William Blake supports the emphasis of emotion in his *Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience*. Poetry focused upon common language and resisted poetic diction of past: Wordsworth claims in his *Preface to his Lyrical Ballads* that his poems "choose incidents and situations from common life and relate and describe them throughout, as far as was possible in a selection of language really used by men." (Preface to Lyrical Ballads)

### **Famous Romantic Writers**

For the Romantic Era in England, there are six writers who dominate the age. They are listed here in chronological order based on birth:

#### **William Blake (1757 – 1827)**

Blake was a great poet, a greater painter and a master engraver. Blake is famous not only for his highly visual poems, but for the illuminated plates on which he printed his poems. The poems often function in pairs, one from the perspective of childlike "innocence," the other from the perspective of disillusioned "experience." Blake was much ahead of his time and his greatest contribution lies in his building up a personal mythology of creation and imagination.

#### **William Wordsworth (1770–1850)**

Wordsworth is one of the domineering figures of British Romanticism, popularly known as 'father of English Romanticism'. He settled in the Lake District in north-western England with his close friend S T Coleridge, hence also known as 'The Lake Poets.' In 1798, Wordsworth and Coleridge anonymously published a collection of poems entitled *Lyrical Ballads*. Second edition of *Lyrical Ballads* was published under Wordsworth's name alone in which he added a preface. This preface is often considered as a manifesto of Romantic ideology. In his poems Wordsworth tried to show the natural dignity, goodness, and the worth of the common man.

**Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772–1834):** Coleridge's role in *Lyrical Ballads* is often overshadowed by Wordsworth, but Coleridge's poetic skill stands on its own. "Rime of the Ancient Mariner" is a narrative poem that is a mix of traditional ballad form, adventure story, and tale of spiritual redemption. *Kubla Khan's* back

story is worth mentioning: Coleridge fell asleep while high on opium dissolved in alcohol. He had a crazy dream in which he wrote a few hundred lines of poetry, woke up claiming to remember everything he had written in the dream and started writing it in real life, only to be interrupted by a knock on his door after recording about 50 lines. The knock on his door caused him to forget everything else.

**Lord Byron** (1788–1824): Lord Byron is one of the few British Romantic writers to achieve widespread fame during his lifetime. Byron was a good friend with Percy B. Shelley, but he really disliked Wordsworth and Coleridge. In fact, Byron's poetry bears little resemblance to that of the Lake Poets. Its style and form is much more similar to British poetry of the 18th century.

**Percy Bysshe Shelley** (1792–1822): Percy Bysshe Shelley was in many ways a stereotypical degenerate artist. He was a great romantic who inspired many. His poems have almost all the characteristics of romantic literature like imagination, love for nature, emotions, pictorial imagery etc. Shelley's first mature work, *Queen Mab*, was printed in 1813, but not distributed due to its inflammatory subject matter. It was not until 1816, with the appearance of *Alastor; or, The Spirit of Solitude, and Other Poems*—a visionary and semi-autobiographical work—that he earned recognition as a serious poet. Shelley's next lengthy work, *Laon and Cythna; or, The Revolution of the Golden City*, is an account of a bloodless revolution led by a brother and sister. It was immediately suppressed by the printer because of its controversial content, and Shelley subsequently revised the work as *The Revolt of Islam*, minimizing its elements of incest and political revolution. In 1819 Shelley wrote two of his most ambitious works, the verse dramas *Prometheus Unbound* and *The Cenci*. In *Prometheus Unbound*, Shelley seems to have been rebellious by nature. He was particularly fascinated by the Gothic tradition. Shelley died in 1822, 30 years old, and the circumstances around his death and cremation were truly befitting a romantic rebel.

**John Keats:** (1795 – 1821)

Keats was the prodigy of the Romantics: 'Romantic, Escapist and a pure poet of Nature'. He died at the age of 25. During his brief career, he was stubbornly insistent on maintaining his artistic independence and originality. He refused to befriend Percy Shelley because he apprehended that Shelly might influence his writing. He is best known for his sonnets and odes, particularly "Ode to a Nightingale" and Ode on a Grecian Urn." He is also well known for his love of the classics of antiquity, which often filters into his poetry. He sought an escape

in the past. The ancient Greeks and Middle Ages attract his imagination. Keats' themes are romantic in nature. Most of his poetry is devoted to the quest of beauty, love, chivalry, adventure and pathos. He loved pure nature and beauty was Keats' religion. Keats was true romantic poet, because his attention was not only beauty but also truth. He saw beauty in truth and truth in beauty.

“Beauty is truth, truth beauty that is all  
Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.’

### **Romantic Criticism – An Introduction**

A thousand handicraftsmen wore the mask  
Of Poesy. Ill-fated, impious race!  
That blasphemed the bright Lyrist to his face,  
And did not know it, no, they went about,  
Holding a poor, decrepid standard out  
Mark'd with most flimsy mottos, and in large  
The name of one Boileau!

- John Keats, “Sleep and Poetry” (1817)

Keats condemns the mechanical rules of writing as arbitrary and artificial. Any adherence to regularity is an external restraint superimposed on the poet. Poetry must transcend the particularities of time and space, and transport the reader to an imagined realm. While Enlightenment, as Immanuel Kant defines in “What is Enlightenment?”, is a process of man's liberation from bondage and oppression through the faculty of reason; Romanticism ushered in an alternative school of thought that emphasized subjective emotions (against reason and intellect), spontaneity (against order), and a radical scepticism with regard to the precepts of Enlightenment. Published first in 1798, William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge's *Lyrical Ballads* embody the intellectual impulses of this period, and is often seen as a critical manifesto of Romanticism. The Preface to *Lyrical Ballads* (1800) argues that poetry ought to convey authentic human feelings, use the ordinary “language of conversation”, the ‘lower’ forms of diction, and emerges from the poet's feelings and imagination. Coleridge, however, departs from Wordsworth's definition of poetry as “the real language of men” and the Poet as “a man speaking to men”, and proposes a critical study of aesthetic experience in *Biographia Literaria* (1817). Coleridge's distinctions between fancy, primary imagination, and secondary imagination and the

‘revolutionary Powers’ of the mind re-appears in Percy Bysshe Shelley’s *Defence of Poetry* wherein the higher imaginative powers of the mind enable man to realise love, beauty and delight. From *Lyrical Ballads* to *Defence of Poetry* romantic prose writings critique the certainties of the intellect and establish poets, as Shelley puts it, “the unacknowledged legislators of the world” (220).

Rene Wellek’s classic definition: “Imagination for the view of poetry, nature for the view of the world, and symbol and myth for poetic style” (10) identifies nature, imagination, and symbolism as the defining features of Romanticism. The Romantics reject the emphasis on reason, and retreat from the neoclassical norm of writing. This subjective turn of aesthetic theory is influenced by John Locke’s *Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690). Locke argues that the human mind does not have innate or *a priori* ideas, and like a blank sheet of paper (*tabula rasa*), absorbs ideas derived from sensations. The mind, first, senses, perceives the world through sensory faculties, and then, reflects, generates ideas based on the perceptions. Knowledge is built up of perceptible qualities that give rise to sense impressions. Locke’s theory of association of ideas is developed further by David Hartley in *Observations on Man* (1749). Hartley proposes that external objects create vibrations in the mind which thereafter form the basis of ideas. Through a process of association, man arrives at knowledge, that is, morality and divinity.

Both Locke and Hartley believed that knowledge is derived from experience and an appropriate environment is crucial to the development of benevolence and love. This notion of association is crucial to Wordsworth’s theory of poetry that illustrates the “primary laws of our nature: chiefly as far as regards the manner in which we associate ideas in a state of excitement” (3). For Wordsworth, poetry is dependent on the habits of association and natural landscape is vital to the development of the poet’s mind. At the same time, for Wordsworth, the source of the poem is not the external nature, but the poet’s individual consciousness. Unlike Locke who believed that the sensory experience of the external world shaped the human nature, Wordsworth stressed the individual consciousness that creates perceptions and in turn poetry. This emphasis on the inner feelings of the poet as a resource for poetry, rather than the external world, became a major turn in Romanticism. Introspection and reflection become the hallmarks of poetic creation. The subject of reflection, the poetic self, thus occupies the center stage in Romantic aesthetic theory.

When Wordsworth's Preface to *Lyrical ballads* defines the poet as 'a man speaking to men', he alerts to a democratisation of letters that was emerging in this period, and turns to hermeneutics and interpretation to explain the phenomenon of poetry. The psychological impulse of the poet to create poetry, and the interpretative act of reading poetry is married together. Sublime, for example, does not remain a characteristic of the natural landscape, but a power of the mind itself – as Wordsworth puts it in *Prelude* (1805) - the "mind/ Is lord and master" over "outward sense" (270-1). This psychological impulse becomes the meta-value of Romantic poetry rather than the formal structures of rhetoric. Therefore, poetry, for Wordsworth and Coleridge, reflects a transcendent vision. This vision is always created by a poet. A poet is an imaginative, sensitive, and a conscious being. Theorising about poetry becomes a theory of who is a poet, about the creative process, and responses to this creative process.

### **William Wordsworth – "Preface to *Lyrical Ballads*"**

The principal object, then, proposed in these poems was to choose incidents and situations from common life, and to relate or describe them, throughout, as far as was possible, in a selection of language really used by men, and, at the same time, to throw over them a certain colouring of imagination, whereby ordinary things should be presented to the mind in an unusual aspect (154)

The Preface imparts not just a "systematic defense of the theory" upon which the poems of *Lyrical Ballads* were composed, as Wordsworth states; it also presents a systematic theory of poetic complexity and poetical limits set against a world of experience and material things. Wordsworth defines poetry as "the spontaneous overflow" of feelings that are recollected in tranquillity. Language, form, and meter are added to this 'overflow' of feelings. Wordsworth argues against the poetic diction, the "gaudiness and inane phraseology" and the "vague, glossy and unfeeling language" of poets. For Wordsworth, poetic diction alienates human sympathy. There is no essential difference between the language of prose and of metrical composition. Poetry should be composed in the "real language of men" and the less-restrained language of the low and rustic. Meter is not essential to poetry, but only an additional source of pleasure.

Expanding his apologia for the rejection of poetic diction and privileging of ordinary language, Wordsworth defines a Poet as a man speaking to men. A poet has greater knowledge of human nature, a greater power of communication, and

can communicate not only feelings he individually experiences, but also those he perceives in his environment. Poetry, for Wordsworth, is the most philosophic of all writings, with its object as truth that is general and operative. Poetry embodies the “breath and finer spirit of all knowledge” and is emblematic of a deep sympathy between man and nature. The verbal artifices and poetic expressions are therefore mere ornamentation. Because the rules of meter are fixed, poetic diction can have a restraining effect with the use of meter.

M. H. Abrams in *The mirror and the lamp* characterizes this emphasis on the human mind as the progenitor of poetry as the shift from mimetic to ‘expressive’ critical standards. Hayden argues that the ‘Romantics’ were interested not in the expressive but rather in ‘creative theory’. Wordsworth’s Preface is a manifesto that expresses some of the poet’s most familiar and powerful ideas within a conveniently small space. The conception of animistic powers ready to feed the mind, the superiority of natural to human law, and the potential moral application of that law, are all discernible within the Preface. Wordsworth defends the ideational content of what his mind perceives in solitary, unmediated contemplation of nature against the claims of that knowledge is reason and intellect. This conflict must be understood as parallel to the tension in Wordsworth’s socio-historical context of French Revolution. The dictates of the ideally unchained individual conscience and the subjective lyric are forces against the institutionalized dictates of the society. The connection is made clear by the fact that Wordsworth’s meditation is understood to have not just aesthetic but moral consequences. Wordsworth asserts that the essentially private contemplation in which he is engaged is the only proper foundation of moral conscience. His “thoughts and feelings” demonstrate his superior nature, they must be seen not as *perceptions* but *creations*: “thoughts and feelings” which proceed “by his own choice” and “from the structure of his own mind.”

### **S. T. Coleridge – *Biographia Literaria***

On 30 March 1815, Coleridge wrote to Byron of his intention to add to his poems “A general Preface will be pre-fixed, on the principles of philosophic and genial [having to do with genius] criticism relatively to the Fine Arts in general; but especially to Poetry” (26). Several weeks later when Wordsworth’s 1815 *Poems* with its new Preface to *Lyrical Ballads* is printed, Coleridge asserts – “altho’ Wordsworth’s Preface is half a child of my own Brain ... yet I am far from going all lengths with Wordsworth . . . I rather suspect that some where or other there is a radical Difference in our theoretical opinions respecting Poetry – / this I shall

endeavor to go to the Bottom of’ (83). Eventually in 1817 Coleridge publishes *Biographia Literaria*, an extended dialogue with – and a critique of – Wordsworth’s two Prefaces (1800 and 1815).

*Biographia Literaria* is an autobiographical, philosophical, religious and critical text. The first four chapters present literary events of Coleridge’s life from Christ’s Hospital to 1798; chapters 5–9 summarise his intellectual migration from various mechanistic and associative systems to rest on religious and transcendental principles; chapters 12 and 13 discuss fancy, primary and secondary imagination; chapter 14 is a philosophic discussion of perceptions, imagination, and the aesthetic experience of fine arts, particularly poetry. Sections in chapters 10, 12, 13, and 24 explain Coleridge’s religious and moral beliefs, wherein Coleridge rejects the mechanistic view of the universe and adopts a principle of imagination that rests on the Logos or the Word. In chapters 17-20 and 22, Coleridge critiques Wordsworth’s theoretical principles of poetry. Rejecting empiricism and materialism as adequate explanations of human psyche, Coleridge develops an argument on how the mind works, processes details, reflects, associates, and connects impressions and ideas derived from the senses. Poetry in *Biographia Literaria* emerges as a nexus of philosophy, life, religion, friendship, theory and practise of writing.

Coleridge describes poetry in chapter fourteen as “that species of composition, which is opposed to works of science, by proposing for its immediate object pleasure, not truth; and from all other species (having this object in common with it) it is discriminated by proposing to itself such delight from the *whole*, as is compatible with distinct gratification from each component *part*” (32). A single word or stanza in a poem does not gratify or achieve perfection.

In the same chapter, Coleridge defines the poet as:

The poet, described in ideal perfection, brings the whole soul of man into activity, with the subordination of its faculties to each other, according to their relative worth and dignity. He diffuses a tone and spirit of unity, that blend, and (as it were) fuses, each into each, by that synthetic and magical power, to which we have exclusively appropriated the name of imagination. This power, first put in action by the understanding, and retained under their irremissive, though gentle unnoticed, control (*laxis effertur habenis*) reveals itself in the of reconciliation of opposite or discordant qualities: of sameness, difference; of the general, with the

concrete; the idea, with the individual, with the representative; the sense of novelty and freshness, with old and familiar objects; a more than usual state of emotion, more than usual order... (43)

For Coleridge, “what is Poetry?” fuses with “who is a Poet?” and finally “what is Art?” Imagination, as Coleridge defines in chapter seven, is “a superior degree of the faculty [of synthesis], joined to a superior voluntary control over it” (22). The mind not only gathers details (fancy), but also creates something new by the coming together of all images (imagination). Fancy is the passive power of the mind. Imagination is the active power – of forging new territories. The passive power enables the mind to pause, make sense, and sequentially, through a series of apprehensions, consolidate images into perceptions and meanings. Fancy works with “fixities and definites” untransformed individually or by the work as a whole; through “choice” or “memory”. The active power of Imagination transforms, rearranges the “fixities and definites” to create:

The IMAGINATION... dissolves, diffuses, dissipates, in order to re-create; or where this process is rendered impossible, yet still at all events it struggles to idealize and to unify. It is essentially vital, even as all objects (as objects) are essentially fixed and dead. FANCY, on the contrary, has no other counters to play with, but fixities and definites. The Fancy is indeed no other than a mode of Memory emancipated from the order of time and space; while it is blended with, modified by that empirical phenomenon of the will, which we express by the word CHOICE. But equally with the ordinary memory the Fancy must receive all its materials ready made from the law of association... (23)

While fancy observes and is a function of memory, imagination associates, and discovers connections between disparate images to create something new. This skilful arrangement of parts to create a harmonious whole is what Coleridge further classifies as Primary and Secondary imagination. The power of perception, an innate ability of man, is the primary imagination. Secondary imagination is a heightened degree of the conscious will which a poet possesses. A poet with the “synthetic and magical power” of secondary imagination becomes an agent of the unifying process. The formless mass of experience that fancy accumulates is dissolved, dissipated, diffused, and unified by the poet through secondary imagination. This act of creation by the poet “with form, connections, and unity” is an aesthetic experience. In chapter fourteen, Coleridge

describes the reading experience as: “The reader should be carried forward, not merely or chiefly by the mechanical impulse of curiosity, or by a restless desire to arrive at the final solution; but by the pleasurable activity of the mind excited by the attractions of the journey” (34).

In chapter 18, Coleridge argues that there neither is nor can be any essential difference between the language of prose and that of metrical composition. Metrical composition implies an ‘order’, one that in poetry is directed by “that prospectiveness of mind, that *surview*, which enables a man to foresee the whole of what he is to convey” (58). Coleridge stresses the organic integration of all resources of language in poetry, something that reconciles opposites into an organic whole. A poet, “an ideal perfection”, speaks in “delight from the *whole*, as is compatible with a distinct gratification from each component *part*”; that ‘the parts...mutually support and explain each other’ (13).

### **Dialectic unity between Wordsworth and Coleridge**

While Wordsworth described imagination as a mode of association, Coleridge believed that powers of imagination perceive, create, transform and unify our perceptions. For Wordsworth, imagination associates and can explain the human powers of creativity. For Coleridge, mind in its dynamic, active relation to the world has primacy; possesses a power unmentioned and unaccounted for in the materialists’ schemes – “the living Power and prime Agent of all human Perception”, that allows man to create perceptions in a manner constitutive not only with nature but with the creator of nature, God (‘the infinite I am’). This power produces the fine arts and poetry. Fancy is valued but confined to the reorganisation and recombination of already existing, separate sense impressions; it juxtaposes or yokes but does not transform or unify. Imagination, for Coleridge, metamorphoses. *Biographia Literaria* echoes Wordsworth’s distinction between science and poetry, but critiques Wordsworth’s emphasis on the language of the rustic. Wordsworth responds to the neoclassical poetic diction wherein individual vocabulary and experience was considered inappropriate for poetry, and develops the notion of a poetic diction that imitates the language of common experience. Coleridge, on the other hand, claims that the rustic’s language “purified from all provincialism and grossness, and . . . made consistent with the rules of grammar . . . will not differ from the language of any other man of common-sense” (52-4).

For Coleridge, the best parts of language are derived from the mind. This understanding of creative power of the mind re-appears in Keats’s idea of

“negative capability”, and Shelley’s *Defence of Poetry* in which he distinguishes between the materialistic ‘reason’ and the spiritual imagination.

### **P. B. Shelley – “A Defense of Poetry”**

“A Defence of Poetry” is an essay by Percy Bysshe Shelley written in 1821 and first published posthumously in 1840 in *Essays, Letters from Abroad, Translations and Fragments* by Edward Moxon in London. Shelley aims to provide a justification of poetry against the attacks of an age of scientific materialism. He insists on the social and moral utility of poetry and how poetry produces its useful effect on men. Refusing to justify poetry either as mere pleasure or as didacticism, Shelley develops a theory for art that is aware that imagination is not autonomous. The ‘defense’ is about the act of writing itself, and attempts to reconceive the Poet, who will otherwise become an empty sign. Shelley develops a romantic ideology of vision that draws the reader’s attention to the hermeneutic problem of fiction.

Shelley begins his defense against Thomas Love Peacock’s account of poetry, “The Four Ages of Poetry”, as a sentimental anachronism in the modern age of reason and science. Shelley asserts:

in the infancy of society every author is necessarily a poet, because language itself is poetry. . . . Every original language near to its source is in itself the chaos of a cyclic poem: the copiousness of lexicography and the distinctions of grammar are the works of a later age, and are merely the catalogue and the form of the creations of poet (82).

Language is inherently metaphorical and expressive, hence poetic. From the idealistic defense of the morality of poetry, Shelley moves to a psychological support of his theory, explaining how “poetry acts to produce the moral improvement of man.” Shelley divides the mental faculty into two parts: reason and imagination. Reason implies a kind of logical process that enables one to connect ideas together and/or determine their relationships to one another. It is a passive thing. Imagination, meanwhile, acts upon those thoughts. It enables creation; it is the source of our artistic desires. For Shelley a poet receives inspiration through his imaginative apprehension of “the indestructible order,” or his participation “in the eternal, the infinite, the one.” Inspiration, moments of “transitory brightness” that come unbidden, is the heart of poetry, while composition, when the mind is already but “a fading coal,” produces at its best only “a feeble shadow on the original conception of the Poet” (135). If Shelley

sees the poet as the happiest and best of men, it is not only because of his “most refined organisation” but also because he is capable of penetrating the veil of the world and apprehending the universal and eternal reality.

For Shelley, imagination arises “from within”. Shelley represents the imagination’s displacing power by rewriting the Aeolian lyre figure. From a transcendental a priori (such as nature or the imagination) to its effect in the phenomenal world, the Aeolian lyre is like the wind that moves the strings to the “invisible influence” of the causative imagination. This idea of imagination has two distinct sources: Neo-Platonism and the associationism. Neo-Platonism is evident in Shelley’s concept of the imagination as apprehending “the eternal, the infinite, the one”; thus, poets “imagine and express [the] indestructible order” (112) or “apprehend the true and the beautiful” (3). The Neo-Platonic aspect of imagination in Shelley’s *Defence* also informs such statements as “Poets are the hierophants of an unapprehended inspiration” (140). Associationist theory is apparent in Shelley’s treatment of imagination as the faculty of love or sympathy, the moral effect of poetry. Both the Neo-Platonic and the associationist concepts of the imagination operate to free man from a Lockean world of sense impressions. The imagination that Shelley describes is capable of apprehending that reality that lies beyond the phenomenal world and is therefore unavailable to the senses: “...poetry defeats the curse which binds us to be subjected to the accident of surrounding impressions” (137). Imagination is not mechanically chained to the world of sense impressions, nor does it deal with sense-stimulated thoughts; rather it responds to those impressions and colours them with its “light”. The autonomy of the imagination as it is here described provides an escape from the dry and fixed empirical concepts of the mind.

Shelley’s notion of language’s proximity to imagination departs from an earlier, empirical conception that subordinates word to referent in favour of understanding language as self-reflexive. For Shelley imagination is nothing but an effect of language. From Wordsworth to Shelley, a trajectory of aesthetic theory appears that, as William K. Wimsatt, Jr. and Cleanth Brooks puts it, prefer “the primitive, the naïve, the directly passionate, the natural spoken word” (339). In words of Kathleen M. Wheeler this trajectory is the precursor of the twentieth century post-structuralist theories: “Coleridge’s concept of polarity, of opposition, is in many ways anticipatory of Derrida’s concept of difference ... for Coleridge, as for Derrida, relations and oppositions form the substances of experience.” The Romantic aesthetic theory posits a visionary idea of poetry,

orchestrates carefully theorised claims on the value of a poet, and espouses a poetic selfhood that is inward, introspective, and reflective. This turn of self-consciousness in a context of French Revolution, industrialisation, and emerging scientific materialism is crucial to the legacy of Romanticism. Not only do the Romantics reject diction, craftsmanship and decorum of meter, their intense self-absorbing individualism that emphasized an organic unity with landscape, radically critiques the inorganic human community. Paul de Man and Geoffrey Hartman see this as a moment of blindness that offsets Romantic tradition by denying the *imitatio naturae* principle and Enlightenment visualism, turning from the outward to the inward and establishing of the imaginative autonomy. But blindness is also insight – the “flash upon that inward eye” (Wordsworth’s phrase in the poem “I wandered lonely as a cloud”) – revealing the truth of nature that appears in metaphors, symbols, hieroglyphs, emblems. Unlike the Petrarchan or Elizabethan love-poems, the first-person Romantic lyric reinvents the organic form of English literary criticism. The revolutionary impulse of the Romantic aesthetic theory is complex and lies in each poet’s individual responses to the ideas of imagination, nature, nature, and poetry itself.

**The Decline of Romanticism:** By about the middle of the 19th century, romanticism began to give way to new literary movements: the Parnassians and the symbolist movement in poetry, and realism and naturalism.