



Manonmaniam Sundaranar University

*DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE AND CONTINUING EDUCATION
TIRUNELVELI - 627 012, TAMILNADU*

B.A. ENGLISH (SIXTH SEMESTER)

ART AND LITERARY AESTHETICS

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Learning Objectives

LO1	To introduce the multidisciplinary of Art and Literary Studies.
LO2	To gain an understanding of various movements in art history.
LO3	To help students find relevant and associative ideas.
LO4	To engage with works of art that directly refer to literary works and also draw inspiration from from it.
LO5	To recognize how all forms of art is part of a continuum.

ART AND LITERARY AESTHETICS

Unit	Details
I	Literature And Visual Arts - Essays. Margarete Landwehr – Introduction: Literature and the visual Arts; Questions of Influence and Intertextuality Jeoraldean McClain – Time in the Visual Arts: Lessing and Modern Criticism
II	Romanticism Through Coleridge and Delacroix James H. Rubin - Delacroix's Dante and Virgil as a Romantic Manifesto: Politics and Theory in the Early 1820s Sanghapal Uttam Mhaske 1, et al., - Romanticism and Art: An Overview
III	Pre-Raphaelite Movement - D.G. Rossetti's Prosperine (Painting And Poem)
IV	Post-Impressionism - Amritya Shergill's Ancient Story Teller Painting And Virginia Woolf's The Waves (Novel)
V	Expressionism - Munch- Scream (Painting) And Kafka- Metamorphosis (Novella)

References Books

(Latest editions, and the style as given below must be strictly adhered to)

1. Herbert Read – extract from The Meaning of Art (pg 17-48) Pelican Books, 1959.

Web sources

1. Astor, Dave. Music in Literature. 2 Apr. 2013, www.huffpost.com/entry/music-in-literature_b_2590404
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ART AND LITERARY AESTHETICS

UNIT 1

LITERATURE AND VISUAL ARTS-ESSAYS

Literature and visual arts are two of the most powerful modes of human expression. Though they employ different materials—words on one hand and images, colors, and forms on the other hand, they share a common purpose: to interpret, represent, and transform human experience. Across history, these two artistic domains have influenced each other in profound ways, creating a rich dialogue that transcends boundaries of language, culture, and time. Together, they shape how societies remember the past, understand the present, and imagine the future.

At their core, both literature and visual arts seek to tell stories. Literature uses language to construct narratives, evoke emotions, and explore ideas. Through poetry, drama, and prose, writers build worlds that readers enter through imagination. Visual arts, by contrast, communicate through sensory perception. A painting, sculpture, photograph, or film conveys meaning through composition, color, texture, light, and spatial relationships. Yet despite these differences, both forms rely on symbolism, metaphor, and interpretation. A novelist may describe a storm to symbolize inner turmoil, while a painter may depict dark, swirling skies to achieve the same effect. In this sense, literature paints with words, and visual art speaks without them.

Historically, the relationship between the two fields has been deeply intertwined. In ancient civilizations, storytelling and imagery often appeared together. Egyptian tomb paintings, for example, were accompanied by hieroglyphic texts describing the journey of the soul in the afterlife.

Greek mythology was preserved not only in epic poems but also in vase paintings and sculptures.

During the medieval period, illuminated manuscripts combined handwritten texts with intricate

illustrations, making religious and literary works visually engaging. These examples demonstrate that the separation between literature and visual arts is relatively modern; for much of human history, they functioned as complementary forms.

The Renaissance marked a period of particularly strong interaction between literature and visual arts. Humanist ideas encouraged artists and writers to draw inspiration from classical antiquity and from direct observation of the world. Painters depicted scenes from literary works, while writers described artworks in vivid detail. This mutual inspiration continued into later periods. Romantic poets wrote about landscapes that painters were simultaneously portraying on canvas, emphasizing emotion, nature, and individual perception. In the nineteenth century, novels began to include detailed descriptions of interiors, fashion, and urban life, mirroring the visual richness of contemporary painting.

One important concept that highlights the connection between the two fields is “ekphrasis,” the literary description of a visual artwork. Through ekphrasis, writers translate visual experience into language, often adding layers of interpretation or a narrative that the original artwork only implies. Such descriptions allow readers to “see” an artwork through words, demonstrating literature’s capacity to evoke imagery as powerfully as visual art itself. Conversely, many artists create works inspired by literature—illustrations of novels, paintings of mythological scenes, or cinematic adaptations of books. These reinterpretations show how stories can migrate across media while retaining their emotional core.

The modern era has expanded the relationship between literature and visual art even further. The invention of photography introduced a new way of capturing reality, influencing literary movements such as realism and naturalism. Writers began to adopt a more observational style, focusing on everyday life with documentary precision. Later, the rise of cinema brought together

narrative, visual composition, music, and performance into a single medium. Film can be seen as a synthesis of literature and visual arts, transforming written scripts into dynamic visual storytelling. Graphic novels and comics represent another hybrid form, combining textual narration with sequential art to create immersive experiences.

Beyond direct influence, both literature and visual arts play crucial roles in shaping cultural identity and social consciousness. They document historical events, challenge political systems, and give voice to marginalized perspectives. A novel can expose injustice through character and plot, while a painting or photograph can confront viewers with the stark reality of social conditions.

Because visual art communicates instantly and across language barriers, it often reaches audiences who might not engage with written texts. Literature, however, offers depth and nuance, allowing readers to inhabit the inner lives of others. Together, they foster empathy and critical reflection.

Education also benefits from the integration of these forms. Visual elements can make literary works more accessible, especially for young readers or those learning new languages. Illustrations help clarify settings, characters, and actions, enhancing comprehension. At the same time, literature can deepen appreciation of visual art by providing historical context, thematic analysis, and interpretive frameworks. Museums frequently include written descriptions alongside artworks, guiding viewers toward richer understanding. In classrooms, combining reading with visual analysis encourages students to think creatively and analytically at once.

In contemporary digital culture, the boundaries between literature and visual arts continue to blur. Social media platforms emphasize visual storytelling through images, short videos, and graphic text. Digital artists incorporate typography into visual compositions, while writers experiment with multimedia formats that include images, sound, and interactive elements. Virtual reality and immersive installations allow audiences to experience narratives spatially, moving through

environments that combine visual design with scripted storytelling. These innovations suggest that the future of artistic expression will be increasingly interdisciplinary.

Despite their differences, literature and visual arts share a fundamental reliance on the audience's participation. A reader must imagine scenes and characters, filling gaps left by the text. A viewer must interpret shapes, colors, and symbols, constructing meaning from visual cues. In both cases, the artwork becomes complete only through engagement. This participatory aspect explains why different people can respond to the same work in diverse ways. Personal experiences, cultural background, and emotional state all influence interpretation, making art a deeply human exchange rather than a fixed message.

Ultimately, literature and visual arts complement rather than compete with each other. Each offers unique strengths: literature excels at exploring inner thoughts, temporal development, and abstract ideas, while visual arts capture immediate sensory impact and spatial relationships. When combined, they create multidimensional experiences that neither could achieve alone. From illustrated manuscripts to modern films, from poetic descriptions of paintings to artistic adaptations of novels, their collaboration has enriched human culture for centuries.

In conclusion, literature and visual arts are interconnected forms of expression that together illuminate the complexity of human life. They communicate across time and space, preserve cultural memory, challenge perceptions, and inspire imagination. As technology evolves and artistic boundaries dissolve, their dialogue will likely grow even more dynamic. Whether encountered separately or in combination, both forms remind us of the enduring human desire to create meaning, beauty, and connection through art.

The Relationship Between Essays and Visual Arts

Essays and visual arts are often considered different forms of creative and intellectual expression, yet they share many fundamental connections. Both mediums aim to communicate ideas, evoke emotions, and encourage reflection. While essays use language and structured arguments, visual arts rely on images, colors, shapes, and composition. Despite these differences in medium, both forms function as tools of interpretation and expression, shaping how audiences understand the world around them. The relationship between essays and visual arts can be understood through their shared goals of communication, interpretation, creativity, and cultural representation.

One of the most significant connections between essays and visual arts is their shared purpose of communicating ideas. Essays present arguments, reflections, or explanations through written language. Similarly, visual art communicates messages through imagery and symbolism. A painting, photograph, or sculpture can express social criticism, personal emotions, or philosophical reflections in much the same way that an essay does. For example, a written essay might discuss the impact of industrialization on society, while a painting depicting crowded factories and polluted landscapes could convey the same critique visually. In both cases, the creator uses a particular medium to guide the audience toward a deeper understanding of an issue or experience.

Another important relationship lies in interpretation. Essays often analyze subjects such as literature, culture, politics, or art itself. Visual art, on the other hand, invites viewers to interpret meaning through observation and emotional response. In art criticism and art history, essays play a crucial role in explaining the significance of artworks. Through descriptive and analytical writing, essayists help readers understand the context, techniques, and meanings behind visual pieces. This shows that essays act as bridges between artworks and audiences, translating visual

experiences into intellectual discussions. At the same time, visual art can inspire essays, providing writers with material for reflection and interpretation.

Creativity also forms a strong link between essays and visual arts. While essays are often associated with academic writing, they are also a creative form. Personal essays, reflective essays, and literary essays involve imagination, narrative techniques, and stylistic choices. Writers carefully select words, structure arguments, and craft their tone to produce a meaningful piece of writing. Visual artists similarly make creative decisions about color, form, texture, and composition. Both essayists and visual artists shape their work intentionally to influence how audiences perceive their message. In this sense, writing an essay and creating a visual artwork are both acts of artistic design.

Structure and composition provide another area of similarity. In essay writing, ideas are arranged logically through introductions, body paragraphs, and conclusions. Each part contributes to the overall coherence of the argument. Visual art also relies on composition, which refers to how elements are arranged within a piece. Artists organize lines, shapes, and colors to guide the viewer's eye and emphasize certain aspects of the artwork. Just as a well-structured essay leads readers through a clear argument, a well-composed artwork directs viewers toward a particular interpretation or emotional response.

Both essays and visual arts are also deeply connected to cultural and historical contexts. Writers often address social issues, political events, or cultural movements in their essays. Visual artists similarly reflect the conditions of their time through imagery and symbolism. For instance, many artworks from different historical periods reveal social tensions, political struggles, or changing

cultural values. Essays discussing these works help audiences understand the historical background and interpret their meanings. Thus, essays and visual arts together contribute to documenting and interpreting cultural history.

The relationship between these two forms can also be seen in the concept of ekphrasis. Ekphrasis refers to the practice of writing about visual art. In literature, writers often compose essays or descriptive passages that vividly portray paintings, sculptures, or other artworks. Through detailed language, the writer attempts to recreate the visual experience for readers. This interaction demonstrates how essays can extend the meaning of visual art by providing interpretation, narrative, or critical commentary. Ekphrasis highlights the close dialogue between visual and verbal forms of expression.

Furthermore, both essays and visual arts encourage critical thinking and emotional engagement. Essays challenge readers to analyze ideas, evaluate arguments, and consider different perspectives.

Visual arts similarly invites viewers to question what they see and interpret symbolic meanings. A powerful artwork can provoke emotions such as curiosity, empathy, or discomfort, just as a persuasive essay can inspire reflection or debate. In both cases, the audience becomes an active participant in constructing meaning.

Education and academia further demonstrate the relationship between essays and visual arts. In art education, students frequently write essays to analyze artworks, discuss artistic movements, or reflect on creative processes. These essays help students articulate their understanding of visual forms and develop critical awareness. At the same time, visual elements such as illustrations, diagrams, and images are often included in essays to support arguments and enhance

comprehension. This integration shows that visual and textual forms can complement each other in intellectual exploration.

Finally, modern technology has strengthened the connection between essays and visual arts. Digital media platforms allow writers and artists to combine text and images more easily than ever before. Online essays, blogs, and multimedia articles often include photographs, videos, and visual designs to support written arguments. Graphic essays and visual essays blend narrative text with artistic imagery, creating hybrid forms that merge the strengths of both mediums. These developments demonstrate that the boundaries between essays and visual arts continue to evolve in contemporary culture.

In conclusion, essays and visual arts share a deep and meaningful relationship. Both forms communicate ideas, encourage interpretation, and reflect cultural contexts. They rely on creativity, structure, and emotional engagement to connect with audiences. Essays often interpret and explain visual artworks, while visual art can inspire written reflection and analysis. Through concepts such as a sketch and modern multimedia expression, the interaction between these two forms continues to expand. Ultimately, essays and visual arts complement each other, enriching human understanding and artistic expression through both words and images.

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain the relationship between literature and visual arts.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Outline the idea of influence between different art forms.	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Describe Jeoraldean McClain’s interpretation of time in visual arts.	K2	CO2	PO2
4.	Discuss the concept of temporality in visual representation.	K3	CO3	PO3

5.	Describe the interaction between image and text.	K2	CO2	PO2
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Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Evaluate Margarete Landwehr's contribution to visual-literary studies.	K5	CO5	PO5
2.	Discuss Jeoraldean McClain's theory of time in visual arts.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Assess the role of visual imagery in shaping literary meaning.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Evaluate the importance of interdisciplinary approaches in criticism.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Discuss how visual arts contribute to the interpretation of literature.	K5	CO5	PO5

UNIT 2

ROMANTICISM THROUGH COLERIDGE AND DELACROIX

Romanticism emerged in late eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century Europe as a complex intellectual, aesthetic, and cultural movement that challenged the rationalism, empiricism, and formal restraint of the Enlightenment and Neoclassicism. Rather than privileging order, harmony, and universal norms, Romantic thinkers foregrounded subjectivity, imagination, emotion, and the sublime dimensions of human experience. This shift manifested across artistic disciplines, producing profound transformations in both literature and the visual arts. The English poet Samuel Taylor Coleridge and the French painter Eugène Delacroix exemplify this movement in their respective fields. Although separated by medium, nationality, and artistic technique, their works

reveal convergent Romantic preoccupations with imagination, nature, the supernatural, political upheaval, and the expressive potential of art.

Coleridge occupies a foundational position within English Romanticism, particularly through his contributions to poetic theory and practice that redefined literature at the turn of the nineteenth century. His major poems, including *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* and *Kubla Khan*, articulate a distinctly Romantic poetics centered on the transformative power of imagination. In *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, Coleridge constructs a symbolic narrative in which a mariner's violation of the natural order—his impulsive killing of the albatross—initiates a sequence of supernatural punishments and spiritual revelations. The poem explores themes of guilt, alienation, and redemption, situating the individual within a morally charged cosmos. Nature functions not as a passive backdrop but as an animate, quasi-sacred presence that responds to human transgression. Such a conception reflects Romantic pantheistic tendencies and anticipates ecological modes of interpretation.

Moreover, Coleridge's deployment of the supernatural is not merely decorative but epistemological. By presenting uncanny phenomena as psychologically credible within the poem's narrative framework, he achieves what he famously termed the "willing suspension of disbelief." The mariner's spectral visions, the personified forces of Death and Life-in-Death, and the eerie stillness of the ocean collectively produce an atmosphere in which metaphysical questions about sin, suffering, and grace become experientially immediate. Coleridge thereby reorients poetry away from didactic clarity toward affective immersion.

Kubla Khan, by contrast, exemplifies Romanticism's fascination with dream, fragment, and visionary creation. Purportedly composed after an opium-induced reverie, the poem depicts the Mongol emperor's pleasure dome as a site of both aesthetic splendor and latent violence. The landscape—featuring caverns, a sacred river, and tumultuous natural forces—embodies the dynamic interplay between human artifice and primordial nature. Scholars frequently interpret the poem as an allegory of poetic creation itself: the dome represents the imaginative faculty imposing form upon chaotic energy, while the poem's fragmentary status underscores the precariousness of artistic inspiration. Thus, Coleridge elevates imagination to a quasi-divine power, aligning the poet with the creative force traditionally attributed to nature or deity.

If Coleridge articulates Romanticism in verbal form, Delacroix does so through color, composition, and painterly dynamism. Rejecting the linear precision and moral didacticism of Neoclassical painting, Delacroix embraced expressive brushwork and emotionally charged subject matter. His celebrated canvas *Liberty Leading the People* commemorates the July Revolution of 1830, transforming a contemporary political event into an allegorical tableau. The central female figure *Liberty* personified advances over a barricade, brandishing the tricolor flag and guiding a

heterogeneous group of revolutionaries. The painting synthesizes realism and symbolism: the corpses and urban debris anchor the scene in historical actuality, while the allegorical figure elevates it to mythic significance.

From a formal perspective, the composition's pyramidal structure and vigorous diagonals generate a sense of forward momentum, while the interplay of light and shadow heightens dramatic tension.

Delacroix's chromatic intensity particularly his use of warm, saturated hues serves not merely decorative purposes but expressive ones, conveying the fervor and violence of revolutionary struggle. In contrast to Neoclassical restraint, the painting foregrounds emotion, instability, and collective action, thereby embodying Romanticism's political dimension.

An even more radical expression of Romantic sensibility appears in *The Death of Sardanapalus*, which depicts the legendary Assyrian king ordering the destruction of his possessions and concubines before his defeat. The canvas is characterized by tumultuous movement, sensuous color contrasts, and an almost overwhelming density of detail. Rather than guiding the viewer toward moral condemnation or heroic admiration, Delacroix immerses the spectator in a spectacle of decadence and annihilation. The painting's exotic subject matter reflects contemporary European fascination with the "Orient," though modern scholarship critically interrogates such representations as products of colonial imagination.

Both Coleridge and Delacroix engaged deeply with the Romantic concept of the sublime, a category developed in eighteenth-century aesthetics to describe experiences that evoke awe, terror, or overwhelming grandeur. In Coleridge's poetry, the sublime emerges through encounters with vast natural forces and supernatural phenomena that destabilize human autonomy. The mariner's

isolation amid the boundless ocean or the tumultuous landscape of Kubla Khan exemplifies this confrontation with immensity and mystery. In Delacroix's paintings, the sublime manifests visually through scenes of violence, revolution, and catastrophic excess. The viewer is simultaneously attracted and disturbed, compelled to confront the limits of rational comprehension.

Despite differences in medium, both artists privilege subjective perception over objective representation. Their works resist closure and invite interpretive participation from the audience. Coleridge's narratives leave ambiguities unresolved, while Delacroix's compositions often lack a single focal point, encouraging the eye to wander across the canvas. This openness reflects a broader Romantic epistemology that regards truth as experiential rather than purely rational.

Furthermore, the intermedial resonance between their works underscores Romanticism's transdisciplinary character. Coleridge's poetry frequently evokes visual imagery with painterly precision, while Delacroix's canvases possess a narrative intensity akin to literary drama. Indeed, Delacroix himself was an avid reader who drew inspiration from literary sources, including Shakespeare and Byron, demonstrating the porous boundaries between textual and visual culture during the Romantic period.

In conclusion, Samuel Taylor Coleridge and Eugène Delacroix represent parallel articulations of Romanticism in literature and painting. Through their emphasis on imagination, emotion, the sublime, and the destabilization of classical norms, both artists contributed to a redefinition of artistic purpose in the modern era. Their works do not merely depict reality but interrogate its psychological, spiritual, and political dimensions. Consequently, they remain central to scholarly

understanding of Romanticism as a movement that sought to expand the boundaries of human expression and to reclaim the primacy of feeling and vision in an increasingly rationalized world.

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
Paragraph Questions				
1.	Describe the role of imagination in Romantic art.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Outline the themes in Delacroix's Romantic paintings.	K2	CO3	PO3
3.	Discuss the political context of Romantic art.	K2	CO2	PO2
4.	Explain the relationship between emotion and nature in Romanticism.	K3	CO3	PO3
5.	Write a note on the concept of individualism in Romantic works.	K2	CO3	PO3

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
Essay Questions				
1.	Examine Delacroix's <i>Dante and Virgil</i> as a Romantic manifesto.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Assess the political dimensions of Romantic art.	K5	CO5	PO5
3.	Evaluate Coleridge's contribution to Romantic thought.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Assess the political dimensions of Romantic art.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Critically examine the concept of individuality in Romantic works.	K6	CO6	PO6

UNIT 3

PRE-RAPHAELITE MOVEMENT – D.G. ROSETTI'S *PROSERPINE*

(PAINTING AND POEM)

The Pre-Raphaelite Movement was a significant artistic and literary development in mid-nineteenth-century Britain. Founded in 1848 by a group of young artists including Dante Gabriel Rossetti, John Everett Millais, and William Holman Hunt. The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood sought to reform British art by rejecting what they saw as the artificiality of academic painting influenced by Raphael and the High Renaissance. Instead, they advocated a return to the sincerity, vivid detail, and spiritual intensity of art produced before Raphael, particularly that of medieval and early Renaissance painters. Their work combined meticulous realism with symbolic richness, often drawing upon literature, mythology, religion, and medievalism.

Central to Pre-Raphaelite aesthetics were brilliant color, precise natural observation, moral seriousness, and a fascination with idealized beauty especially female beauty. The movement also blurred boundaries between literature and visual art. Rossetti, uniquely among the founders, was both a painter and a poet, and he frequently created paired works in which a painting and a poem explored the same theme. One of the most compelling examples of this synthesis is his treatment of the classical myth of Proserpine (Persephone), embodied in the painting *Proserpine* and the accompanying sonnet often titled *Proserpine*.

The myth of Proserpine originates in Greco-Roman tradition. Proserpine (Greek Persephone), daughter of Ceres (Demeter), is abducted by Pluto (Hades), the god of the underworld, and compelled to live as his queen. Because she eats pomegranate seeds while in the underworld, she is bound to return there periodically, spending part of each year away from her mother on earth.

This myth symbolically explains the cycle of these seasons: fertility in spring and summer, barrenness in autumn and winter. However, Victorian artists interpreted the story not only cosmologically but psychologically and emotionally.

Rossetti's *Proserpine*, painted in several versions between 1874 and 1882, presents the goddess not at the moment of abduction but during her captivity. The figure stands in a dim interior, holding a split pomegranate whose deep red seeds signify both sensual temptation and fatal knowledge. A faint shaft of light illuminates her face, suggesting her longing for the world above. The overall palette is cool and shadowy, dominated by blues and greens, reinforcing the atmosphere of confinement and melancholy. Unlike classical depictions of mythological figures as triumphant or heroic, Rossetti's Proserpine appears introspective, distant, and emotionally burdened.

Symbolism plays a crucial role in the painting. The pomegranate represents the irreversible choice that binds Proserpine to the underworld. The trailing ivy in the background traditionally signifies fidelity and eternal attachment, reinforcing her inescapable bond to Pluto. The incense burner, barely visible, evokes ritual and sacrifice. Even the narrow architectural space contributes to the theme of imprisonment. Such details exemplify the Pre-Raphaelite commitment to meaningful realism: every object is rendered with precision yet charged with symbolic significance.

Scholars frequently note that Rossetti's model for Proserpine was Jane Morris, wife of the designer and poet William Morris. Rossetti's intense personal attachment to Jane Morris has led many critics to interpret the painting autobiographically. In this reading, Proserpine's captivity mirrors Jane's constrained marriage and Rossetti's own emotional isolation. Whether or not such interpretations can be definitively proven, the work undeniably conveys a sense of personal melancholy characteristic of Rossetti's later art.

The accompanying sonnet deepens and complicates the painting's meaning. Written in the voice of Proserpine herself, the poem articulates her divided existence between light and darkness, earth and underworld, hope and resignation. Rossetti employs rich imagery of shadow, fragrance, and memory to evoke the sensory contrast between the living world and the realm of the dead. The speaker recalls the sunlight and flowers of the upper world while acknowledging her irreversible fate below. This introspective monologue transforms the myth from a narrative of abduction into a meditation on loss, longing, and psychological entrapment.

The interplay between painting and poem exemplifies Rossetti's theory of the "double work of art," in which visual and verbal forms illuminate each other without mere duplication. The painting captures a single suspended moment Proserpine poised between action and reflection, while the sonnet unfolds her inner consciousness over time. Together, they create a multidimensional portrait that neither medium could achieve alone. This synthesis reflects the broader Pre-Raphaelite ambition to unite the arts in a manner reminiscent of medieval culture, where image and text coexisted harmoniously in illuminated manuscripts and devotional objects.

From a thematic standpoint, *Proserpine* embodies several core concerns of late Victorian culture. The figure of the beautiful yet sorrowful woman recurs throughout Pre-Raphaelite art, often symbolizing unattainable desire, moral ambiguity, or spiritual yearning. At the same time, the work engages with contemporary debates about female agency and confinement. Proserpine is not depicted as a passive victim; her introspective gaze suggests awareness and emotional depth, though not freedom. This ambiguity has prompted modern feminist readings that interpret the image as both reinforcing and subtly questioning patriarchal control.

Furthermore, Rossetti's treatment of classical mythology reflects the nineteenth century's broader fascination with antiquity as a source of timeless human themes. Unlike academic classicism, however, the Pre-Raphaelites reimagined myth through a lens of medievalism, symbolism, and psychological realism. Proserpine becomes less a distant goddess and more a tragic, almost modern figure, defined by interior conflict rather than divine power.

In conclusion, the Pre-Raphaelite Movement represented a decisive turn toward sincerity, symbolism, and interdisciplinary creativity in Victorian art. Through the paired works of Dante Gabriel Rossetti the painting *Proserpine* and the sonnet *Proserpine*, the myth of Proserpine is transformed into a profound exploration of captivity, desire, memory, and divided identity. The visual image conveys the stillness of imprisonment, while the poem articulates the restless movement of thought and emotion. Together, they exemplify the Pre-Raphaelite ideal of art as a vehicle for intense feeling, symbolic depth, and the harmonious union of literature and painting.

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain the origins of the Pre-Raphaelite Movement.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Write a brief note on the symbolism in the painting <i>Proserpine</i> .	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Discuss the role of myth in Pre-Raphaelite works.	K3	CO3	PO3
4.	Explain the use of color and detail in Rossetti's art.	K2	CO2	PO2
5.	Discuss the aesthetic ideals of the Pre-Raphaelites.	K3	CO3	PO3

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Analyze the characteristics of the Pre-Raphaelite Movement.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Examine Rossetti's <i>Proserpine</i> as both a painting and a poem.	K5	CO5	PO5
3.	Assess the representation of women in Pre-Raphaelite art.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Evaluate the aesthetic principles of the Pre-Raphaelites.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Discuss the influence of Pre-Raphaelitism on later art forms.	K5	CO5	PO5

UNIT 4

POST-IMPRESSIONISM: AMRITA SHER-GIL'S *ANCIENT STORYTELLER* AND VIRGINIA WOOLF'S *THE WAVES*

Post-Impressionism refers to a diverse range of artistic developments that emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries as a response to Impressionism. While Impressionist painters focused on fleeting visual impressions, light effects, and outdoor scenes, Post-Impressionist artists sought greater structural solidity, symbolic depth, and emotional resonance. Rather than forming a unified movement, Post-Impressionism encompassed varied styles, including the expressive color of Vincent van Gogh, the structural experimentation of Paul Cézanne, and the symbolic approach of Paul Gauguin. Its influence extended far beyond painting, shaping modernist literature and new ways of representing consciousness and perception.

In the context of Indian art, Amrita Sher-Gil stands as one of the most significant figures associated with Post-Impressionist principles. Educated in Europe yet deeply engaged with Indian subjects, she synthesized Western modernist techniques with indigenous themes. Her painting *Ancient Story Teller* exemplifies this synthesis. The work depicts rural Indian figures gathered around a storyteller, capturing a moment of communal listening that evokes oral tradition, memory, and cultural continuity.

Sher-Gil's style reflects Post-Impressionist concerns with form, color, and emotional depth rather than mere visual realism. The figures in *Ancient Story Teller* are rendered with simplified shapes and subdued, earthy tones of browns, ochres, and muted reds, that convey the texture of village life. Unlike Impressionist scenes of urban leisure, this painting emphasizes stillness and introspection.

The composition directs attention inward, toward the act of storytelling itself, suggesting that narrative and collective memory are central to cultural identity.

Moreover, Sher-Gil's treatment of her subjects avoids romantic idealization. The figures appear contemplative, even solemn, embodying the dignity and hardship of rural existence. This seriousness aligns with Post-Impressionism's tendency to move beyond surface appearance toward psychological and symbolic meaning. The storyteller becomes a custodian of history, linking past and present through oral narration. In this sense, the painting operates not only as a depiction of a scene but as a meditation on time, tradition, and the persistence of cultural memory in a rapidly modernizing world.

Parallel developments occurred in literature, particularly within the modernist movement. Virginia Woolf's novel *The Waves* (1931) represents a radical departure from conventional narrative form. Rather than presenting a linear plot, Woolf structures the novel as a series of soliloquies spoken by six characters from childhood to old age. These voices are interspersed with lyrical descriptions of the sea at different times of day, creating a rhythmic, almost musical structure.

Like Post-Impressionist painting, *The Waves* prioritizes subjective experience over objective description. Woolf seeks to capture the fluidity of consciousness the way thoughts, memories, and sensations merge and dissolve. The novel's language is highly symbolic and impressionistic, yet its underlying structure reflects a search for deeper patterns of existence. The recurring imagery of waves suggests both individuality and unity: each character is distinct, yet all are part of a larger flow of life.

A central theme of *The Waves* is the construction of identity through time and relationship. The characters repeatedly define themselves in relation to one another, illustrating the instability of the self. This concern parallels Sher-Gil's focus on communal experience in *Ancient Story Teller*. In both works, individuality exists within a shared cultural or existential framework. The listeners gathered around the storyteller mirror Woolf's characters, who collectively narrate a composite portrait of human life.

Furthermore, Woolf's experimental narrative technique can be compared to Post-Impressionist innovations in visual form. Just as painters like Cézanne deconstructed perspective to reveal underlying structure, Woolf dismantles traditional narration to expose the processes of perception and memory. The novel does not aim to reproduce reality faithfully but to evoke the inner rhythms of experience. Its poetic prose, shifting viewpoints, and cyclical organization resemble a literary equivalent of modernist painting.

Both Sher-Gil and Woolf also engage with the theme of temporality. In *Ancient Story Teller*, the act of recounting ancient tales bridges generations, preserving the past within the present moment. In *The Waves*, time unfolds through stages of life, punctuated by the recurring movement of the sea. Neither work treats time as a simple linear progression; instead, time is cyclical, layered, and mediated through memory. This conception reflects broader modernist anxieties about change, loss, and continuity in the twentieth century.

Another point of convergence lies in their exploration of silence and voice. Sher-Gil's painting depicts listeners who are physically silent yet mentally absorbed, suggesting that storytelling involves both speech and receptive attention. Woolf's novel, though composed entirely of monologues, frequently gestures toward what cannot be articulated—the ineffable aspects of

experience that language struggles to capture. In both cases, meaning emerges from the interplay between expression and restraint.

Culturally, the two works also illustrate the global dimensions of Post-Impressionist influence. Sher-Gil adapted European modernism to Indian subjects, contributing to the formation of a modern Indian artistic identity. Woolf, meanwhile, transformed the English novel through formal experimentation rooted in broader modernist aesthetics. Their works demonstrate how artistic innovations circulate across national boundaries while acquiring new meanings in different contexts.

In conclusion, Post-Impressionism's legacy extends beyond painting into literature and global modernism. Amrita Sher-Gil's *Ancient Story Teller* and Virginia Woolf's *The Waves* exemplify parallel explorations of form, perception, and cultural memory. Sher-Gil uses simplified forms and symbolic color to depict communal storytelling as a vessel of tradition, while Woolf employs fragmented narration and lyrical language to represent the flux of consciousness and the passage of time. Though differing in medium and cultural context, both works move beyond surface realism toward a deeper engagement with human experience, demonstrating how Post-Impressionist principles helped shape the artistic imagination of the twentieth century.

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain the features of Post-Impressionism.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Outline the narrative style of <i>The Waves</i> .	K2	CO3	PO3
3.	Explain the concept of stream of consciousness.	K3	CO3	PO3

4.	Discuss the representation of time in <i>The Waves</i> .	K3	CO3	PO3
5.	Write a note on Woolf's experimental narrative techniques.	K2	CO3	PO3

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Analyze the characteristics of Post-Impressionism in art and literature.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Examine Sher-Gil's <i>Ancient Story Teller</i> in terms of style and theme.	K4	CO4	PO4
3.	Evaluate Virginia Woolf's narrative techniques in <i>The Waves</i> .	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Analyze the role of emotion and subjectivity in Post-Impressionism.	K4	CO4	PO4
5.	Critically examine the parallels between Sher-Gil and Woolf.	K6	CO6	PO6

UNIT 5

EXPRESSIONISM: EDVARD MUNCH'S THE SCREAM AND FRANZ KAFKA'S THE METAMORPHOSIS

Expressionism was a major modernist movement that emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, primarily in Northern Europe. In contrast to realism or naturalism, which sought to depict the external world accurately, Expressionism aimed to represent inner psychological states, often through distortion, exaggeration, and symbolic imagery. Expressionist artists rejected objective representation in favor of emotional intensity, exploring themes such as alienation, anxiety, fear, and the fragmentation of modern life. Two of the most influential works embodying this sensibility are Edvard Munch's painting *The Scream* and Franz Kafka's novella *The Metamorphosis*. Though produced in different media, both works articulate a profound sense of existential dread characteristic of the modern condition.

Edvard Munch, a Norwegian painter associated with Symbolism and a precursor of Expressionism, created *The Scream* in 1893 as part of his series "*The Frieze of Life*." The painting depicts a figure standing on a bridge, clutching its face in apparent terror, while the surrounding landscape undulates in turbulent waves of color. The sky burns with unnatural reds and oranges, and the fjord below appears equally disturbed. Two distant figures in the background remain indifferent, emphasizing the central figure's isolation.

Formally, *The Scream* abandons naturalistic perspective and anatomical accuracy. The figure's elongated skull-like head, hollow eyes, and open mouth suggest not a specific individual but a universal embodiment of anxiety. The curvilinear lines of the sky and landscape echo the figure's posture, creating a visual resonance between inner emotion and external environment. Color

functions symbolically rather than descriptively: the violent reds may evoke blood, fire, or apocalyptic dread. Munch himself described the inspiration for the painting as a moment when he felt “a great scream passing through nature,” indicating that the work represents not merely personal fear but cosmic anguish.

Art historians often interpret *The Scream* as a response to the disorienting effects of modernity, urbanization, industrialization, and the erosion of traditional certainties. The bridge may symbolize a threshold between stability and chaos, civilization and nature, sanity and madness. The painting's power lies in its capacity to externalize an internal emotional crisis, making visible what is normally invisible. In this sense, it epitomizes the Expressionist conviction that art should reveal psychological truth rather than physical reality.

A comparable exploration of inner turmoil appears in Franz Kafka's *The Metamorphosis* (1915), one of the most influential works of twentieth-century literature. The novella begins with the startling premise that the traveling salesman Gregor Samsa awakens one morning to find himself transformed into a gigantic insect. Kafka presents this absurdevent without explanation, focusing instead on its psychological and social consequences. Gregor's inability to communicate with his family, his gradual physical deterioration, and his eventual death constitute a bleak narrative of alienation.

Like Munch, Kafka employs distortion to express subjective experience. Gregor's metamorphosis literalizes feelings of dehumanization common in modern bureaucratic society. As a worker reduced to a function, he has already been treated as expendable; the transformation merely makes visible his existing condition. The family's reaction, initial shock followed by resentment and neglect, reveals the fragility of human bonds when confronted with difference and economic burden. Gregor becomes an object of shame, confined to his room and deprived of dignity.

Kafka's narrative style intensifies the sense of estrangement. The prose is precise and matter-of-fact, describing grotesque circumstances in a detached tone. This contrast between the extraordinary event and the mundane language heightens the uncanny effect. Unlike traditional fantastical literature, which offers wonder and escapism, *The Metamorphosis* generates discomfort and existential unease. The insect body symbolizes not only social exclusion but also the fragmentation of identity. Gregor retains human consciousness yet cannot participate in human life, creating a painful disjunction between self-perception and external reality.

Both *The Scream* and *The Metamorphosis* foreground the theme of isolation. Munch's figure appears cut off from both the natural world and other people, trapped within a vortex of anxiety. Kafka's protagonist experiences an even more literal isolation, physically separated from his family and eventually erased from their lives. In each work, communication breaks down: the scream is unheard or ignored, and Gregor's speech becomes unintelligible. This failure of connection reflects a broader Expressionist concern with the loss of meaning and community in modern society.

Another shared element is the externalization of inner states. Munch projects psychological anguish onto the landscape, while Kafka transforms psychological alienation into bodily metamorphosis. Both strategies challenge the boundary between subjective and objective reality. The world itself appears distorted because perception is distorted. This approach differs markedly from realist traditions, which maintain a clear distinction between mind and environment.

Moreover, the two works engage with existential themes later developed by twentieth-century philosophy: absurdity, anxiety, and the precariousness of identity. Neither offers resolution or redemption. The scream remains suspended in an eternal moment of terror, and Gregor dies

without reconciliation. Such endings underscore the Expressionist rejection of comforting narratives in favor of confronting the darker aspects of human existence.

Despite these bleak elements, both works possess enduring aesthetic power. Munch's painting achieves universality through visual simplicity and symbolic intensity, becoming one of the most recognizable images in modern art. Kafka's novella, through its paradoxical blend of realism and fantasy, has inspired countless interpretations across psychology, sociology, and literary theory. Together, they demonstrate how Expressionism transcends individual media to articulate a shared cultural mood.

In conclusion, Edvard Munch's *The Scream* and Franz Kafka's *The Metamorphosis* stand as paradigmatic Expressionist works that reveal the inner anxieties of modern life. Through visual distortion and narrative transformation, both artists expose the fragility of identity, the pain of isolation, and the pervasive sense of existential dread that characterized the early twentieth century. Their enduring significance lies in their ability to make the invisible visible, to give form to emotions that resist ordinary representation and thereby to redefine the possibilities of artistic expression.

Herbert Read, *The Meaning of Art*, pp. 17-48

1. The simple word 'art' is most usually associated with those arts which we distinguish as 'plastic' or 'visual', but properly speaking it should include the



2. Sensuality plunging barefoot into thorns. From an illuminated MS. of the *Psychomachia* of Prudentius. English; 11th century. *British Museum*.

arts of literature and music. There are certain characteristics common to all the arts, and though in these notes we are concerned only with the plastic arts, a definition of what is common to all the arts is the best starting point of our enquiry.

It was Schopenhauer who first said that all arts aspire to the condition of music; that remark has often been repeated, and has been the cause of a good deal of misunderstanding, but it does express an important truth. Schopenhauer was thinking of the abstract qualities of music; in music, and almost in music alone, it is possible for the artist to appeal to his audience directly, without the intervention of a medium of communication in common use for other purposes. The architect must express himself in buildings which have some utilitarian purpose. The poet must use words which are bandied about in the daily give-and-take of conversation. The painter usually expresses himself by the representation of the visible world. Only the composer of music is perfectly free to create a work of art out of his own consciousness, and with no other aim than to please. But all artists have this same intention, the desire to please; and art is most simply and most usually defined as an attempt to create pleasing forms. Such forms satisfy our sense of beauty and the sense of beauty is satisfied when we are able to appreciate a unity or harmony of formal relations among our sense-perceptions.

2. Any general theory of art must *begin* with this supposition: that man responds to the shape and surface and mass of things present to his senses, and that certain arrangements in the proportion of the shape and surface and mass of things result in a pleasurable sensation, whilst the lack of such arrangement leads to indifference or even to positive discomfort and revulsion. The sense of pleasurable relations is the sense of beauty; the opposite sense is the sense of ugliness. It is possible, of course, that some people are quite unaware of proportions in the physical aspect of things. Just as some people are colour-blind, so others may be blind to shape and surface, and mass. But just as people who are colour-blind are comparatively

rare, so there is every reason to believe that people who are unaware of the other visible properties of objects are equally rare. They are more likely to be undeveloped.

3. There are at least a dozen current definitions of beauty, but the merely physical one I have already given (beauty is a unity of formal relations among our sense-perceptions) is the only essential one, and from this basis we can build up a theory of art which is as inclusive as any theory of art need be. But it is perhaps important to emphasize at the outset the extreme relativity of this term beauty. The only alternative is to say that art has no necessary connection with beauty—a perfectly logical position to hold if we confine the term to that concept of beauty established by the Greeks and continued by the classical tradition in Europe. My own preference is to regard the sense of beauty as a very fluctuating phenomenon, with manifestations in the course of history that are very uncertain and often very baffling. Art should include all such manifestations, and the test of a serious student of art is that, whatever his own sense of beauty, he is willing to admit into the realm of art the genuine manifestations of that sense in other people at other periods. For him, Primitive, Classical and Gothic are of equal interest, and he is not so much concerned to assess the relative merits of such periodical manifestations of the sense of beauty as to distinguish between the genuine and false of all periods.

4. Most of our misconceptions of art arise from a lack of consistency in the use of the words art and beauty. It might be said that we are only consistent in our misuse of them. We always assume that all that is beautiful is art, or that all art is beautiful, that what is not beautiful is not art, and that ugliness is the negation of art. This identification of art and beauty is at the bottom of all our difficulties in the appreciation of art, and even in people who are acutely sensitive to aesthetic impressions in general, this assumption acts like an unconscious censor in particular cases when art is not beauty. For art is not necessarily beauty: that cannot be said too often or too blatantly. Whether we look at the problem historically (considering what art has been in past ages) or sociologically (considering what art actually is in its



3. Aphrodite riding on a goose. Bowl (Kylix), painted over a white ground. Greek; 5th century B.C. British Museum.

present-day manifestations all over the world) we find that art is often a thing of no beauty.

5. Beauty, as I have already said, is generally and most simply defined as that which gives pleasure; and thus people are driven into admitting that eating and smelling and other physical sensations can be regarded as arts. Though this theory can quickly be reduced to absurdity, a whole school of aesthetics is founded on it, and until lately this school was even the predominant one. It has now been superseded in the main by a theory of aesthetics derived from Benedetto Croce, and though Croce's theory has met with a flood of criticism, its general tenet, that art is perfectly defined when simply defined as *intuition*, has proved to be much more illuminating than any previous theory. The difficulty has been to apply a theory depending on such vague terms as 'intuition' and 'lyricism'. But the point to note immediately is, that this elaborate and inclusive theory of the arts gets on very well without the word 'beauty'.

6. The concept of beauty is, indeed, of limited historical significance. It arose in ancient Greece and was the offspring of a particular philosophy of life. That philosophy was anthropomorphic in kind; it exalted all human values and saw in the gods nothing but man writ large. Art, as well as religion, was an idealization of nature, and especially of man as the culminating point of the process of nature. Typical examples of classical art are the Apollo Belvedere or the Aphrodite of Melos - perfect or ideal types of humanity, perfectly formed, perfectly proportioned, noble and serene; in one word, beautiful. This type of beauty was inherited by Rome, and revived at the Renaissance. We still live in the tradition of the Renaissance, and for us beauty is inevitably associated with the idealization of a type of humanity evolved by an ancient people in a far land, remote from the actual conditions of our daily life. Perhaps an ideal is as good as any other; but we ought to realize that it is only one of several possible ideals. It differs from the Byzantine ideal, which was divine rather than human, intellectual and anti-vital, abstract. It differs from the Primitive ideal, which was perhaps no ideal at all, but rather a propitiation, an expression of fear in the face of a mysterious and implacable world. It differs also from the Oriental ideal, which is abstract



4. Orion crossing the sea. Bronze mirror. Etruscan; about 500s. c. *British Museum.*

too, non-human, metaphysical, yet instinctive rather than intellectual. But our habit of thought is so dependent on our outfit of words, that we try, often enough in vain, to force this one word 'beauty' into the service of all these ideals as expressed in art. If we are honest with ourselves, we are bound to feel guilty sooner or later of verbal distortion. A Greek Aphrodite, a Byzantine Madonna and a savage idol from New Guinea or the Ivory Coast cannot one and all belong to this classical concept of beauty. The last one at least, if words are to have any precise meaning, we must confess to be unbeautiful, or ugly. And yet, whether beautiful or ugly, all these objects may be legitimately described as works of art.

7. Art, we must admit, is not the expression in plastic form of any one particular ideal. It is the expression of any ideal that the artist can realize in plastic form. And though I think that every work of art has some principle of form or coherent structure, I would not stress this element in any obvious sense, because the more one studies the structure of works of art which live in virtue of their direct and instinctive appeal, the more difficult it becomes to reduce them to simple and explicable formulae. That 'there is no excellent beauty that hath not some strangeness in the proportion' was evident even to a Renaissance moralist.

8. However we define the sense of beauty, we must immediately qualify it as theoretical; the abstract sense of beauty is merely the elementary basis of the artistic activity. The exponents of this activity are living men and their activity is subject to all the cross-currents of life. There are three stages: first, the mere perception of material qualities—colours, sounds, gestures, and many more complex and undefined physical reactions; second, the arrangement of such perceptions into pleasing shapes and patterns. The aesthetic sense may be said to end with these two processes, but there may be a third stage which comes when such an arrangement of perceptions is made to correspond with a previously existing state of emotion or feeling. Then we say that the emotion or feeling is given expression. In this sense it is true to say with Benedetto Croce that 'art is expression'. According to Croce expression is the basic creative act in all the arts. The work of art comes into existence with the act of incarnation—that is to say, at the moment the artist finds the words (or other media) to express his emotion or 'state of mind'. Emotion and expression are then an organic unity that cannot be separated.

Croce does not make a clear distinction between expression that has the formal qualities we call beautiful and expression that has the informal qualities we call ugly. A formless or informal expression may or may not deserve to be called a work of art. It may produce effects of terror or horror which are powerful and even sublime and then, as Longinus was the first to claim, we are in the presence of a work of art. Croce dismisses all such 'modification of the beautiful' as aesthetic pseudoconcepts, and indeed they may be so incoherent that they express nothing but chaos and dark nothingness.

9. The permanent element in mankind that corresponds to the element of form in art is man's aesthetic sensibility. Sensibility as such we may assume static. What is variable is the interpretation which man gives to the forms of art, which are said to be 'expressive' when they correspond to his immediate feelings. But the same forms may have a different expressive value, not only for different people, but also for different periods of civilization. Expression is a very ambiguous word. It is used to denote natural emotional reactions, but the very discipline or restraint by which the artist achieves form is itself a mode of expression.

Form, though it can be analysed into intellectual terms like measure, balance, rhythm and harmony, is really intuitive in origin; it is not in the actual practice of artists an intellectual product. It is rather emotion directed and defined, and when we describe art as 'the will to form' we are not imagining an exclusively intellectual activity, but rather an exclusively intuitive one. For this reason I do not think we can say that Primitive art is lower in the scale of beauty than Greek art, because although it may represent an earlier stage of civilization, it may express an equal or even a finer instinct for form. The art of a period is a standard only so long as we learn to distinguish between the elements of form, which are universal, and the elements of expression, which are temporal. Still less can we say that in form Giotto is inferior to Michelangelo. He may be less complicated, but form is not valued for its degree of complexity. Frankly, I do not know how we are to judge form except by the same instinct that creates it.

10. Since the early days of Greek philosophy men have tried to find in art a geometrical law, for if art (which they identify with beauty) is harmony, and harmony is the due observance of proportions, it seems reasonable to assume that these proportions are fixed. The geometrical proportion known as the Golden Section has for centuries been regarded as such a key to the mysteries of art, and so universal is its application, not only in art but also in nature, that it has at times been treated with religious veneration. More than one writer in the sixteenth century related it to the Trinity. It is formulated in two propositions of Euclid: Book II, proposition 11 ('To cut a given straight line so that the rectangle contained by the whole and one of these segments is equal to the square in the remaining segment'), and Book VI, proposition 30 ('To cut a given finite line in extreme and mean ratio'). The usual formula is: to cut a finite line so that



5. Chalice of silver-gilt. English; about 1350. *Hamstall Ridware Church.*

the shorter part is to the longer part as the longer part is to the whole. The resulting section is roughly in the proportion of 5 to 8 (or 8 to 13, 13 to 21, and so on), but never exactly so: it is always what is known in mathematics as an irrational, and this has added not a little to its mystical reputation. There is a considerable literature on the subject, and from about the middle of the last century it begins to be treated with great seriousness. A German writer, Zeising, tried to prove that the Golden Section is the key to all morphology, both in nature and in art; and Gustav Theodor Fechner, the founder of experimental aesthetics, whose principal works were published in the 'seventies, made it one of the foremost objects of his research. Since then, practically every work on aesthetics includes some consideration of the problem.

An extremist like Zeising claimed that this section prevailed everywhere in works of art, but subsequent investigation has not upheld his claim. We can assume either that the good artist consciously applies this section in the structure of his work, or that he inevitably comes to it by his instinctive sense of form. Use is often made of the Golden Section to secure the right proportion between length and breadth in the rectangles made by windows and doors, by picture-frames and by the page of a book or a journal. It is said that every part of a well-made violin obeys the same law. The pyramids of Egypt have been explained by it, and the Gothic cathedral easily interpreted in its proportions: the relation of the length of transept to nave, of column to arch, of spire to tower, and so on. The proportion is also used very frequently in pictorial art: the relation of the space above the skyline to the space below, of foreground to background, and equally of various lateral divisions, follows the Golden Section. The paintings of Piero della Francesca are extreme examples of geometric organization (*see Figures 1 & 17*).

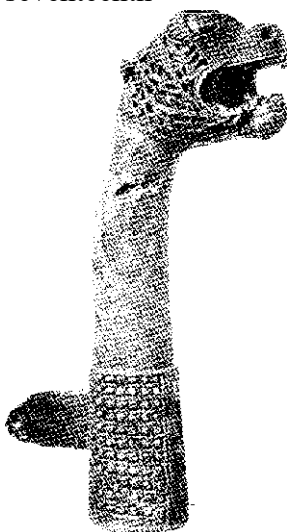
11. Not only the Golden Section, but other geometrical ratios, such as the square of the width of a rectangle within the rectangle are employed in almost endless combination to secure a perfect harmony. It is the relative endlessness of such combinations which precludes any mechanistic explanation of the total harmony of a work of art; for although the counters in the game are rigid, it requires instinct and sensibility to use them for a fine effect. I would also like to suggest an hypothesis based on the analogy of poetry. It is well known that a perfectly regular metre inverse is so monotonous as to become intolerable. Poets have therefore taken liberties with their measure; feet are reversed within the metre, and the whole rhythm may be counterpointed. The result is incomparably more beautiful. In the same way, in the plastic arts certain geometrical proportions, which are the proportions inherent in the structure of the world, may be the regular measure from which art departs in subtle degrees. The extent of that departure, like the poet's variation of his rhythm and metre, is determined not by laws, but by the instinct or sensibility of the artist. I feel that such an hypothesis is confirmed rather than contradicted by an analysis like that of the Greek vase undertaken by Mr. Jay Hambidge (*Dynamic Symmetry*, Oxford University Press, 1920), by far the most successful and exact geometrical analysis of an art that I know. Greek vases do conform to exact geometric laws, and that is why their perfection is so cold and lifeless. There is often more vitality and more joy in an unsophisticated peasant pot. The Japanese, indeed, often deliberately mar the perfect shape which evolves naturally on the potter's wheel, because they feel that true beauty is not so regular.

12. Distortion may mean a departure from regular geometrical harmony, or, more generally, it implies a disregard for the proportions given in the natural world.



6. Bronze vessel. Chinese (Chou dynasty); 12th-3rd century B.C. *Courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution and the Freer Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C.*

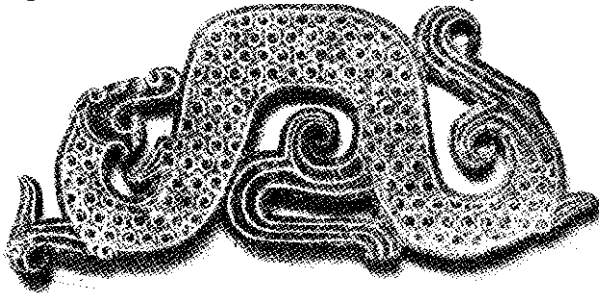
Distortion of some kind, we may therefore say, is present in a very general and perhaps paradoxical way in all art. Even classical Greek sculpture was distorted in the interests of the ideal. The line of brow and nose was never in reality so straight, the faces so oval, the breasts so round, as they are represented in, say, the Aphrodite of Melos. Indeed, it is difficult to find any work of art before the Italian Renaissance which does not depart in some way or other from actuality. In the sixteenth century, largely from a misunderstanding of the purpose of classical art, a representation of literalness did become common. But it did not last for long: the seventeenth



7. Carved wooden post from the Oseberg ship. Viking; about A.D. 800. *University Museum, Oslo.*

and eighteenth centuries for one reason or another forsook the Renaissance conception of art, and it was only in the nineteenth century, that age of sham revivals, that literal representation once more became normal.

There are, however, various degrees of distortion and no one, it will be said, objects to the idealization of reality. It is only when nature is outraged that the spectator must protest. The line of brow and nose can be made straight, but the leg must not be twisted into an impossible shape. It is a question of degree, but it is arguable that the degree makes all the difference. But where can we draw a line? If we leave Greek art and consider early Celtic or Chinese art, we shall find that the distortion has proceeded so far that the representational motive has been entirely lost, and we are left with noth-



8. Dragon of carved jade. Chinese (Chou dynasty); 12th to 3rd century B.C. Rutherston Collection.

ing but a geometrical pattern. In Byzantine art we find that the desire to give symbolic representation to an idea has deprived all human figures of their humanity. Christ on the Virgin's lap is not a child, but a miniature representation of the glory, majesty and dignity of Christ the man. In Gothic art everything is made to contribute to the cathedral's single effort to express the transcendent nature of religious feeling; the idealism of Greek art is blended with the symbolism of Byzantine art; the result is not representational. In Chinese art, in Persian art, in Oriental art generally, motives are used, not realistically, but sensuously—that is to say, they merely contribute to the general rhythm and vitality of the artist's pattern.

All these departures from exact imitation are purposive. They are dictated either by the artist's will to form, his desire for a balanced or unified pattern or mass; or they are dictated by his desire to make a symbol for his inner feelings. But not everything in a work of art must necessarily be attributed to the artist. Few works of art are so impressive as the Byzantine churches at Ravenna; but their appeal to us is partly the work of time. The impression we receive is partly historical, partly religious, partly environmental, and to that extent must not be credited to the power of the artist.

13. The spontaneous motives that lead an artist (and the artist in all of us) to express himself in formal patterns are obscure, though no doubt they can be explained physiologically. The instinct that leads us to put unnecessary buttons on our clothes, to match our socks and ties or hats and coats, that makes us put the clock in the middle of the mantelpiece and the parsley round the cold mutton, is the primitive and uneducated stirrings of the instinct that makes the artist arrange his motives in a pattern. The carver of the Chinese horse illustrated in *Figure 66* might without much trouble have made his horse more realistic; but he was not interested in the anatomy of the horse, for the horse had suggested to him a certain pattern of curved masses, and the twist of the neck, the curls of the mane, the curves of the haunches and legs

had to be distorted in the interests of this pattern. The result was not very much like a horse - in fact, this horse is often mistaken for a lion but it is a very impressive work of art.

The Chinese horse happens to belong to the greatest period of Chinese art; it must be all right, the sceptic is willing to admit. But when it comes to a modern work of art, to a painting like 'Le Repos du Modèle' by Henri Matisse (*Figure 58*), then for some reason a deep sense of hostility is aroused. The principle involved, however, is exactly the same. Matisse is not interested in the model as a living being; nor in the scene for the sake of its architectural properties; but these things have suggested a pattern, and the pattern achieved is not only a legitimate work of art, but also an intuitive apprehension of the subject far more vivid than any imitative representation could make it.

Pattern alone does not constitute a work of art. Provisionally we may say that although a work of art always involves a pattern of some kind, all patterns are not necessarily works of art. Such a statement needs some definition of its terms. A 'work of art' generally implies a certain degree of complexity; were we to use the term to describe a simple geometrical design of circles and triangles, and even to the intricate but accomplished design of a machine-made carpet, although such patterns may be well-balanced or symmetrical.

14. What we really expect in a work of art is a certain personal element - we expect the artist to have, if not a distinguished mind, at least a distinguished sensibility. We expect him to reveal something to us that is original - a unique and private vision of the world. It is this expectation which, blinding the plain man to all other considerations, leads to a confirmed misunderstanding of the nature of art. Such a man becomes so intent on



9. Carved ivory panel. Hispano-Moresque; late 10th century. Victoria and Albert Museum.

The meaning or message of a picture that he forgets that sensibility is a passive function of the human frame, and that the objects received in sensibility have their objective existence. The artist is mainly concerned with the affirmation of this objective existence. When he passes from

sensibility to moral indignation or extra sensuous states of any kind, then the work of art to that extent becomes impure. This means that a work of art is fairly adequately defined as pattern informed by sensibility

15. Perhaps the word 'pattern' ought to be defined a little more concisely. In its ordinary use—the pattern of a piece of cloth, for example—it implies the distribution of line and colour in certain definite repetitions. Pattern implies some degree of regularity within a limited frame of reference—in a picture, this is quite literally the picture frame. Beyond this simple conception of pattern we get increasing degrees of complexity, the first of which is symmetry; instead of repeating a design in parallel series, the design is reversed or counter-changed. The method was perhaps evolved from certain technical conveniences in the process of weaving. Instead of repetition, we find symmetrical balance, as in the motive of confronted animals so common in Oriental art. The next complexity was to abandon symmetrical balance in favour of distributed balance. The work of art has a *san* imaginary point of reference (analogous to a centre of gravity) and around this point the lines, surfaces and masses are distributed in such a way that they rest in imperfect equilibrium. The structural aim of all these modes is harmony, and harmony is the satisfaction of four senses of beauty.

16. Form will be defined later (see 26d), but there is really nothing mysterious in the term. The dictionary gives the meaning as 'shape, arrangement of parts, visible aspect', and the form of a work of art is nothing more than its shape, the arrangement of its parts, its *visible* aspect. There is form as soon as there is shape, as soon as there are two or more parts gathered together to make an arrangement. But of course it is implied, when we speak of the form of a work of art, that it is in some way *special* form, form that affects us in some way.

Form does not imply regularity, or symmetry, or any kind of fixed proportion. We speak of the form of an athlete and we mean very much the same when we speak of the form of a work of art. An athlete is in good form when he carries no superfluous flesh; when his muscles are strong, his carriage good, his movements economical. We might say exactly the same of a statue or a picture. Let us take a picture for an example, and see what happens when we look at it. We will assume that it is a good picture, and that it *moves us* when we contemplate it.

17. The example I will take is a colour print (*Figure 10*) by the great Japanese artist, Katsushika Hokusai (1760 to 1849). Besides assuming that the picture is a good one, we must assume that the person who is going to look at it is in a right state of mind. All that is necessary is that he should have a perfectly *open* mind. He must not be expecting to see a particular kind of picture, or even a picture as such. He just walks round a corner, thinking of nothing in particular, and comes to a standstill before this object. What happens outwardly is then very much a matter of nationality, and of sex. But we will take the problem in its most obscure manifestation, and suppose that our spectator is an average Englishman. A trained observer, carefully hidden behind a screen, might notice a dila-



tion in his eyes, even an intake of his breath, perhaps a grunt. He would be held there, perhaps thirty seconds, perhaps five minutes; then he would go on his way, and later would perhaps write a letter in which the shock of joy he had so passively received would be finally dissipated in a flow of extravagant superlatives.

18. Many theories have been invented to explain the workings of the mind in such a situation, but most of them err, in my opinion, by overlooking the instantaneity of the event. I do not believe that a person of real sensibility ever understands before a picture and, after a long process of analysis, pronounces himself pleased. We either like at first sight, or not at all. Naturally there are occasions when for some reason or another it is not possible to receive an instantaneous impression: the work of art cannot always be isolated. Many works of art—for example, the exterior of a Gothic cathedral—area complex structure of many separate works of art, and only rarely a unity in conception or execution. But that is the only qualification that need be made. We say that a work of art ‘moves’ us, and this expression is accurate. The process that takes place in the onlooker is emotional: it is accompanied by all the involuntary reflexes which a psychologist would

associate with an emotion. But as Spinoza was perhaps the first to point out (in the Fifth Part of his *Ethics, Proposition III*), an emotion ceases to be an emotion as soon as we form a clear and distinct idea of it. Of the theories that accept the instantaneous nature of aesthetic appreciation, the most successful is the theory of *Einfühlung*. The literature of this theory is immense, but it was given its classical expression by Theodor Lipps, one of the greatest of all writers on aesthetics. The word 'Einfühlung' has been translated as 'empathy', on the analogy of 'sympathy', and just as 'sympathy' means feeling with, so 'empathy' means feeling into. When we feel sympathy for the afflicted we enact in ourselves the feelings of others; when we contemplate a work of art, we project ourselves into the form of the work of art, and our feelings are determined by what we find there, by the dimensions we occupy. This experience is not necessarily confined to our observation of works of art; naturally we can 'feel ourselves into' any object we observe, but when generalized like this, there is little or no distinction between empathy and sympathy. If we look at this Japanese print, our attention might be taken by the men in the boats, and we should then feel sympathy for them in their danger; but contemplating the print as a work of art, our feelings are absorbed by the sweep of the enormous wave. We enter into its upwelling movement, we feel the tension between its heave and the force of gravity, and as the crest breaks into foam, we feel that we ourselves are stretching and gnawing against the alien objects beneath us.

19. The work of art is in some sense a liberation of the personality; normally your feelings are inhibited and repressed. We contemplate a work of art, and immediately there is a release; and not only a release—sympathy is a release of feelings—but also a heightening, a tautening, a sublimation. Here is the essential difference between art and sentimentality: sentimentality is a release, but also a loosening, a relaxing of the emotions; art is a release, but also a bracing. Art is the economy of feeling; it is emotion cultivating good form.

20. It is sometimes objected to the theory of *Einfühlung* that it applies only to formal art—that it does not cover our aesthetic reaction to colour, for example. We are moved by the blue of the Italian sky, or the glow of a sunset, but these objects have no form into which our feelings can enter. But can we call such objects works of art? Are they not merely



11. Stoneware jar. Chinese (Sung dynasty); 960-1279. *Victoria and Albert Museum.*

phenomena to which we react sensuously? Juxtapose two or more colours, and immediately a formal relationship is created. All art is the development of formal relations, and where there is form there can be empathy. But whether, when we look at a picture, we always 'empathize' - that is another question. I began with assuming that we look at the picture with a perfectly free mind, but that is a rare condition - as rare as that purity of heart which is the condition of seeing God.

21. So much for our individual reactions to the form of a work of art. But, of course, form is not necessarily all there is in a work of art, nor do we always react in this isolated personal way. A Gothic church was not built solely for the purpose of giving our sensibilities an uplift; it was many things besides - a hall for singing, an arena for ritual, a picture-house for illiterate people. It was all these things at one and the same time. And to go back to the Hokusai print: this can also be considered in the sympathetic sense I mentioned - as simply a picture of an immense wave overwhelming two boat loads of people. These aspects make up the *content* of the picture, and are best considered in an extreme development of the organic tradition. What we mean by 'content' may be best shown first by considering certain types of art that are quite devoid of it.

22. Pottery is at once the simplest and the most difficult of all arts. It is the simplest because it is the most elemental; it is the most difficult because it is the most abstract. Historically it is among the first of the arts. 'The earliest vessels were shaped by hand from crude clay dug out of the earth, and such vessels were dried in the sun and wind. Even at that stage, before man could write, before he had a literature or even a religion, he had this art, and the vessels then made can still move us by their expressive form. When fire was discovered, and man learned to make his pots hard and durable; and when the wheel was invented, and the potter could add rhythm and surprising movement to his concepts of form, then all the essentials of this most abstract art were present. The art evolved from its humble origins until, in the fifth century before Christ, it became the representative art of the most sensitive and intellectual race that the world has ever known. A Greek vase is the type of all classical harmony. Then eastward another great civilization made pottery its best loved and most typical art, and even carried the art to a refinement than the Greeks had attained. A Greek vase is static harmony, but the Chinese vase, when once it has freed itself from the imposed influences of other cultures and other techniques; achieves dynamic harmony; it is not only a relation of numbers, but also living movement. Not a crystal but a flower.

The perfect types of pottery, represented in the art of Greece and China, have their approximations in other lands: in Peru and Mexico, in mediaeval England and Spain, in Italy of the Renaissance, in eighteenth-century Germany - in fact, the art is so fundamental, so bound up with the elementary needs of civilization, that a national ethos must find its expression in this medium. Judge the heart of a country, judge the fineness of its sensibility, by its pottery; it is a sure touchstone. Pottery is pure art; it is art freed from any imitative intention. Sculpture, to which it is most nearly related, had from the first an imitative intention, and is perhaps to that extent less free for the expression of the will to form than pottery; pottery is plastic art in its most abstract essence.

23. We must not be afraid of this word 'abstract'. All art is primarily abstract. For what is aesthetic experience, deprived of its incidental trappings and associations, but a response of the body and mind of man to invented or isolated harmonies? Artisans escape from chaos. It

ismovementordainedbynumbers;itismassconfinedinmeasure;itistheindetermination of matter seeking the rhythm of life.

24. For a perfect contrast to such 'abstract' art, we might take a work of the most humanistic phase of European art, such as the marble relief portrait of a youth by an Italian sculptor of the early sixteenth century (Figure 12). Ruskin once claimed that 'the best picture that exists of the great schools are all portraits, or groups of portraits often of very simple and in nowise noble persons... Their real strength is tried to the utmost, and as far as I know, it is never elsewhere brought out so thoroughly as in painting on man or woman, and the soul that was in them... Whatever is truly great in either Greek or Christian art, is also restrictedly human...'. Historically, the portrait, as Ruskin realized, is characteristic of certain periods we call humanistic. In such periods man is the measure of all things, and all things are made to contribute to his awareness of his own vitality. Art is a tribute to man's own humanity. Such, no doubt, is the real basis of the popularity of portrait painting. This theory is not invalidated by the fact that painters often choose to paint their ugliest brethren; for to depart from the real to represent an ideal is to defeat the narcissistic impulse, which always exacts a faithful image.

The rise of the portrait corresponds fairly exactly with the rise of the novel. Portraits of Dante and others have been identified in the fresco ascribed to Giotto in the chapel of the Bargello, in Florence, which may be as late as 1337; Boccaccio wrote his first tale in 1339, and his Decameron nine years later. And just as at first the portrait in painting was a flat profile, so the character



12. Head of a youth. Marble relief. Italian; 16th century. *Victoria and Albert Museum.*



13. Portrait of a youth. By Vincent Van Gogh (1855-90) Wallraf-Richartz Museum, Cologne.

in the early Italian novel was somewhat restricted in depth. One must not work the comparison too far: the novel, indeed, did not attain the psychological subtlety and precision already evident in portrait painting by the end of the fifteenth century until much later—perhaps not until the seventeenth century. But the general interest in character, common to both painting and the novel, was a continuous and rapid development from the early Renaissance, and still persists. We might draw a close parallel between Frith's 'Derby Day' and a novel like *The Pickwick Papers*. There is the same absence of formal values, the same concentration on human characters, the same sentimental kind of interest.

A good portrait in the humanistic sense may therefore be defined as a faithful portrayal of the character of an individual. The interest is psychological—that is to say, we make no moral judgments about the character of the individual portrayed. We are satisfied if the artist has realized the personality of his subject in its uniqueness, and by his dexterity and skill represented his knowledge and understanding in his plastic medium. Now it ought to be obvious that the 'thrill' we get from such a performance is not necessarily aesthetic. We are not concerned with an abstract quality of beauty, but with the recognition of something which we might even call scientific truth. The artist in such a case is merely a psychologist using paints, and many great portrait painters are of this kind. Many portraits, however, are admittedly great works of art, so that we have to ask ourselves finally what is it that distinguishes a portrait which is a psychological document from a portrait which is a work of art? One might answer: simply the aesthetic values, meaning the formal relations of space and colour



14. Portrait from a Fayum mummy case. Egypto-Roman; 1st-3rd century A.D. *National Gallery, London.*

that constitute the structural organization of all works of art. In that sense a portrait might be accepted at its face value as a still-life, and we should be under no necessity to distinguish between the features of Hals's 'Laughing Cavalier' and the lovely laceruff that adorn him. But actually we do make such a distinction, and it is something quite apart from the psychological interest I have already mentioned. It might be called the philosophical interest. In the best portraits the painter or the sculptor passes beyond the individual character of his sitter to certain universal implications. I can best illustrate my meaning by another literary analogy. The characters of Shakespeare's great plays are not merely individual characters, for all their realism and fidelity to life, but also prototypes of the passions and aspirations of humanity in general. From the heroes of Shakespeare's plays we derive not merely the sensuous impression of vitality, but also a sense of sublimity, which is the imaginative reaction from the sensuous impression.

25. We may conclude, therefore, that besides purely formal values, such as we find in a pot, there may be psychological values - the values arising out of our common human sympathies and interests, and even those arising out of our subconscious life; and beyond these,

philosophical values which arise out of the range and depth of the artist's genius. These are perhaps rather vague words—at least, this word *genius*. But to put the statement in simpler words, we may say, that other things being equal—technical efficiency, economic opportunity, psychological insight—that artist will be the greatest whose intelligence is widest—a man who sees and feels, not only the object immediately before him, but sees this object in its universal implications sees the one in the many, the many in the one. But it cannot be too strongly emphasized that the plastic arts are visual arts, operating through the eyes, expressing and conveying a state of feeling. If we have *idee* to express, the proper medium is language. The artist is impervious to ideas at his peril, but his business is not with the presentation of such ideas, but with the communication of his emotional reaction to them.

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Paragraph Questions			
1.	Explain the key features of Expressionism.	K2	CO2	PO2
2.	Write a brief note on the symbolism in Kafka's work.	K3	CO3	PO3
3.	Describe the emotional intensity in Expressionist art.	K2	CO2	PO2
4.	Explain the use of color and distortion in <i>The Scream</i> .	K2	CO3	PO3
5.	Discuss the connection between art and inner experience.	K3	CO3	PO3

Sl. No.	Questions	LOCF Mapping		
		Level	CO	PO
	Essay Questions			
1.	Examine Munch's <i>The Scream</i> as an Expressionist masterpiece.	K4	CO4	PO4
2.	Evaluate Kafka's <i>Metamorphosis</i> as a representation of alienation.	K5	CO5	PO5

3.	Assess the portrayal of psychological conflict in Expressionism.	K5	CO5	PO5
4.	Evaluate the influence of Expressionism on modern art and literature.	K5	CO5	PO5
5.	Discuss the representation of anxiety and fear in Expressionist art.	K5	CO5	PO5