

New Haven, Connecticut

July, 1963

16

theologically conventional Catholic priest, Father Paneloux, is alienated from the comforts of those conventions by the very fury of the plague. The time comes when Paneloux can no longer bring himself to preach. Then, exhausted by unremitting toil in the hospital wards, the priest himself is stricken and dies; but not unmistakably from the plague -- it could have been some other destroyer, perhaps even the failure of faith; so his is "a doubtful case."²⁴

But *what* should one hope for? The great sustaining hope must be for something simple and attainable, with luck, on earth; and that is human love.

So when the plague has claimed the last victim the city is opened to the world, and joy abounds among reunited lovers. Rieux ponders this resurrection:

as he listened to the cries of joy rising from the town, Rieux remembered that such joy is always imperiled. He knew what those jubilant crowds did not know but could have learned from books: that the plague bacillus never dies or disappears for good; that it can lie dormant for years and years in furniture and linen-chests; that it bides its time in bedrooms, cellars, trunks, and book-shelves; and that perhaps the day would come when, for the bane and the enlightening of men, it would rouse up its rats again and send them forth to die in a happy city.²⁵

The "teleology" of the plague may momentarily astonish us, the hint that the plague comes both "for the bane and the enlightening of men." Let it astonish but not arouse false hopes nor seduce understanding: it means that men can learn from even the most dreadful vicissitudes how precious a thing it is to be *human*. The man of this scientific age dreams fitfully of an age to come when the worst of suffering will have been eliminated, and to what is left it will be possible to turn a medically tranquilized countenance. *The Plague* is an unsparingly accurate shock administered to such dreams. By such modern heresies as Marxism and Scientism, eschatological man is led to forget that he is still plague-infested. He uses murder as an instrument of policy; he unleashes total war to "protect" national interests; he does not see that the instruments he has created have destroyed the end for which he created them and for which he himself was created; he has achieved a mechanical wonder of human organization now amply capable of destroying all semblance of essential humanity, the free man in a beloved community.

If we accept Camus' instruction, and Koestler's too, we shall have to conclude that the eschatological image has been hideously defaced by modern "heresies"; and health is ours by recovering the simple hope for simple human love.

This conclusion sprouts an inference: the traditional, indeed religious, eschatological images must have been long since erased by a dialectical decision of history from which there is no rational appeal. One remembers that we have entered the "post-Christian era," if some of our most highly esteemed savants and seers are right. If such is the real shape of our world we must

On the evening before Absalom is to be executed in Johannesburg, Stephen goes up into the mountain to keep the death vigil. There he says his prayers: of confession; and of thanksgiving; and of intercession for all he knows, naming them one by one; and -- after he had unwontedly dozed -- for his son about to die; and for

. . . all the people of Africa, the beloved country . . . God save

Africa. But he would not see that salvation. It lay afar off, because men were afraid of it.²⁶

When he awakes the next time, dawn is breaking; and even though his beloved Absalom may even now be dead, Stephen Kumalo hopes for another dawn, the coming of the glorious day of God's Kingdom.

But when that dawn will come, of our emancipation from the

fear of bondage and the bondage of fear, why, that is a secret.²⁷

Rubashov, in Koestler's *Darkness at Noon*, wonders wistfully and forlornly whether a new day will ever dawn and a human order appear in which the "I" and the "community" are both affirmed absolutely. He, certainly, has never seen that Promised Land from any peak; and he doubts at the last that such a splendid goal really exists. Thus he is the eschatological man canceled. Kumalo, on the other hand, enjoys a perfection of confidence in the coming of the true eschatological community: from his hilltop of suffering he thinks to see its far-off dawning. When it will really come is a secret of the divine counsel -- when, yes, not if. Thus Kumalo is the eschatological man certified and validated: he has a hope which no eventuality -- whether bane or blessing -- can unseat or disqualify or demean.

Paton's hero does indeed enjoy this perfection of hope. The same may make him, unwittingly no doubt, a master of the never-never game. A master of the game -- he can as easily be a child as a philosopher -- never loses: his hope is never that dismal thing, a longing overcome by the course of actual events.

A plea can be entered in Kumalo's -- and any good Christian's -- defense. The object of his hope, the Kingdom of God, puts him under heavy moral obligation in the present and to persons now living; and the God in whom he hopes is the giver and enforcer of these eschatologically oriented obligations. Hence even if the hope is not fulfilled historically in Kumalo's lifetime, it is fulfilled ethically so far as he can obey the command to love even his enemies. But even if he cannot obey and accepts his guilt for this failure, the hope is fulfilled ethically. Thus the dawn of the Great Day is a secret. What one must do in the meantime is not a secret but a duty as plain as it is uncomfortable.

VI

Such is the import of this deeply affecting novel, *Cry, the Beloved Country*. In its patient, charitable dismissal of the excuses masters give for unheeding enjoyment of privilege and reckless abuse of power, and slaves give for hatred of their masters and love of violence in defying them, it is more of a Christian homily than a novel. In its portrayal of the terrible power of fear to corrupt and destroy essential human community, and in its plea for the power of love eventually to recreate the beloved human community and for the present to endure all things for hope's sake, it is one of the most moving and eloquent tracts for the times.

Nevertheless even (especially?) the greatest sermons raise questions, and this one is no exception. Let me put the most obvious ones: What headway does such a hope make against both idealistic and Machiavellian incitement to violent revolution in the name of Justice? Has the hope for that Great Tomorrow of biblical disclosure -- the appearing in glory of the perfected community -- become too feeble, dim, and remote, to minister to the frenzy, terror, and "wisdom" of our age? Is the image of an old Zulu country parson keeping faith in lonely vigil with all men everywhere and always who hope for the coming of the Day too weak for us? Or too strong?

Such questions may express the conviction that the eschatological possibility is the element of Western tradition most decisively lost for the present age because it is the element most vehemently denied by what man has learned about himself and his prospects. The philosophical difficulties are not the only ones, however; and they may be the least decisive. The concrete difficulties are well known to us all: perhaps we have become afraid to hope for anything but the gift of a whole skin for the next twenty-four hours; or for a little happiness before the end. Too we remember having been tricked by false hopes. If a hope has been great its failure is correspondingly destructive -- or is this "law" itself beyond suspicion? To live today that something fairer might come to life tomorrow, is one of the noblest ingredients of the spirit of man. Splendid achievements and the fairest offerings of the world are prefigured somewhere and somehow in the present, whether we are joyous or distraught. Hope is among the most precious of such prefigurations. Thus man is (and pray God may remain) the eschatological creature. Whether the Day will come soon, no one knows, but one can hope; and in the meantime seek to do things which will stand the light of day.

VII

Well, what things *will* stand the light of day, whether they be done from anxiety or from simple-minded serene conviction that the mightiest power of the Universe swerves not nor changes in its moral governance?

William Faulkner answers a question something like this with the figure of Mink Snopes. Mink

makes a striking conjunction with the traditional image of the Heaven-guided wanderer. He undergoes a good bit of a character transformation through the trilogy which begins with *The Hamlet*, runs through *The Town*, and reaches home in *The Mansion*. At first encounter Mink deserves his name: silent, unprincipled, and deadly. For the Snopes part, one must have encountered the unforgettable breed already in Faulkner's world to know what an unlovely sound it is. Its head, Flem, is unrelentingly and cunningly committed to possessing the earth, and through *The Town* seems destined to do so. Therefore other Snopes must be eliminated to further his own designs; and this shows a fine instinct for impartiality in ruthlessness. Mink is one of the Snopes marked for removal. When Mink kills a man by shooting him in the back from ambush, Flem deliberately fails to use his vast influence to get Mink off. So Mink is sent to the state prison for a long stretch; and whenever the possibility of parole for his eminently good behavior in prison begins to develop, Flem engineers its ruin. Therefore, Mink becomes as much a man of purpose as Ulysses: he lives to return to Jefferson and requite justice upon the head of his perfidious cousin, who has come into monarchical power and wealth. After many years Mink wins release from prison and at once begins his odyssey. Faulkner displays his great powers as a storyteller in making Mink's journey at once sure of consummation and suspenseful in every important phase; for through every setback and temptation Mink perseveres. He knows that Old Moster (his name for Heaven's mysterious King) will neither release nor betray him until justice is done. How then could Mink fail to prevail over every mortal power with such great faith?

I don't need to worry. Old Moster jest punishes; He don't play jokes.²⁸

At the last, when Mink has finally reach Jefferson, now almost entirely unfamiliar to him, and tracked Flem into his magnificent and ill-gotten mansion, Old Moster threatens to let him down: Mink's \$7.50 pawnshop revolver misfires on the first shot and for a desperate moment Mink wonders whether he is a victim of the cruelest cosmic prank conceivable. But on the next pull of the trigger, the secondhand instrument of divine justice fires, and Flem dies with a look of final acceptance of his fate and its justice on his face. His earthly mission thus fulfilled, Mink scampers aimlessly away from the mansion, altogether free to lie down and die whenever he wants. The mother earth is ready to receive him and he is ready to give himself up to her who finally claims all her creatures for herself and sees to it -- O! beyond any doubt, dissent, or declination -- that they are

. . . all mixed and jumbled up comfortable and easy so wouldn't nobody even know or even care who was which any more, himself among them, equal to any, good as any, brave as any, being inextricable from, anonymous with all of them: the beautiful, the splendid, the proud and the brave, right on up to the top itself among the shining phantoms and dreams which are the milestones of the long human recording -- Helen and the bishops, the kings and the unhomed angels, the scornful and graceless seraphim.²⁹

Earth to earth? Indeed, yes; but more, too. Even the lowly Mink Snopes becomes an image of the human community, which is one human "substance" in guilt and in righteousness. To requite the evils done to man, so conceived, is a high destiny; and his accepting it transforms a "mink" into a human being in full standing, alongside of and equal to the beautiful, the splendid, etc.

So there is something to be done besides "all the unnecessary bother and trouble" of grubbing and scrounging for a living and worrying about how long the good luck will last and then about being able to stand bad luck; and worrying about going to Heaven and about there not being any Heaven to go to, only Hell instead. And there is something to be done besides wondering how long the sexual ecstasy will last and whether anything as good will take its place, such as writing novels or painting pictures or organizing Little League clubs or Junior League bazaars or chairing the Board of Vestrymen. And there is something to be done besides -- whether in addition to or apart from? -- hoping that everything works out for the good. Injustice must have a clear rebuke, action not just words. The sufferers need care, whoever they are and whatever they suffer from. The dying need comfort, whoever they are, and no matter that some of them deserve death, for who doesn't?

This is of course a random sample of things to be done (besides tending the shop and craving ecstasies and lighting candles and saying prayers). It is a strange and wonderful fact that there are things to be done which we can do -- whether we draw them at random or they descend randomly upon us -- in which the human community is augmented even if our puny budget of strength and time is diminished. With the lowly Mink Snopes we discover that no one *really* travels alone no matter how aimless, erratic, and dizzy the course adopted. Above us "Old Moster" rules undeviatingly. Beneath us the earth, an ample patient equalizing grave, waits to receive us. On all sides we are accompanied by the splendidly various traveler-pilgrim, Man. *He* is the proper subject of every novel. From every great novel we come away having learned to love this woeful wonderful creature a little more, a little better. This is one reason, and a good one too, for calling some novels great.

Notes:

1 A proper historical account of eschatological patterns would make much of the Iranian contribution to Christian apocalypticism. Iranian religion has proved to be a very hardy perennial, in fact. The persistently garish, and occasionally bizarre, qualities of latter-day "Christian" apocalypticism (e.g. Jehovah's Witnesses) are indications of this.

2 *In Dubious Battle* (New York, 1961), 6.

3 *Ibid.*, 22.

4 *Ibid.*, 184.

5 *Ibid.*, 198.

6 *Ibid.*, 199.

7 *Ibid.*, 227.

8 *Ibid.*, 250.

9 *Darkness at Noon*, trans. Daphne Hardy ("New American Library" [New York, 1956]), 36.

10 *Ibid.*, 46.

11 *Ibid.*, 115.

12 *Ibid.*, 181.

13 *Ibid.*, 185.

14 *Ibid.*, 188.

15 *The Plague*. trans. Stuart Gilbert (New York, 1957), 5.

16 *Ibid.*, 35.

17 *Ibid.*, 116.

18 *Ibid.*, 118.

19 *Ibid.*, 151.

20 *Ibid.*, 165.

21 *Ibid.*, 197.

22 *Ibid.*, 231.

23 *Ibid.*, 243.

24 *Ibid.*, 211.

25 *Ibid.*, 278.

26 *Cry, the Beloved Country* (New York, 1948), 271.

27 *Ibid.*, 273.

28 *The Mansion* (New York, 1959), 407.

29 *Ibid.*, 435-36.

0

The Lost Image of Man by Julian N. Hartt

Julian N. Hart taught philosophic theology at Yale Divinity School and is the author of Lost Image of Man. Copyright 1963 by Louisiana State University Press. This material was prepared for Religion Online by Ted & Winnie Brock.

Chapter 6: Death and Transfiguration

I

The fate of the traditional image of man is sufficient warrant for saying that symbols "participate mortality": they live for a season and then die. The season of their life may span generations, even centuries, through which their power over imagination is so great that eventually men believe that these symbols "participate eternity" and in their proper enjoyment they have a taste of the joy of heaven. Then the season of life mysteriously ends and even the most lordly symbols fade away.

This is the way an epoch ends. Its master images lose their power and the imagination seeks other lords. The end may not be dramatic -- some worlds die with a bang and others with a whimper -- but any way the end does come for every system and phase of culture. And whether or not the end is really dramatic some value inheres in the dramatic metaphor, "the death of the gods." "Gods" here signify the master images of culture. Omitting the theological reality of gods, as we do here, we have nonetheless to observe that the death of a god is a shocking event. It is a terrible disaster for the imagination and the heart, a crisis fraught with the most formidable consequences although it may not be reported as a crisis on the front pages of the newspapers. When the gods die the imagination in which they have ruled loses direction and content. The heart, whose health depends upon having an object to love above all others, must find another god or perish. So driven it may take false gods unto itself. Thereafter the human spirit trivializes itself, dissipating its precious energies upon random details of being and thin aspirations.

The aimlessness which ensues upon the death of the gods ought not to be confused with an interest in small affairs. The latter trivialize the spirit only when no principle is available to relate intelligibly small affairs to the great world beyond one's doorstep. The gods, the master images, have such a function. When they die life hitherto ordered by them begins to disintegrate.

The reduction of a master image to a stereotype is the way a god dies. The life of an image is its expressiveness, its efficacy as a conveyor of meaning or as an instance of meaning. The death of an image is the fading out of its meaning, leaving behind only a thin weak formality, a mere trace: a stereotype.

So the gods die. It is tempting to seal them in their tombs with the profound saying, "once dead always dead," were such wisdom itself separable from stereotype. And were it really wise, given that fate beyond death which may properly be called *transfiguration*. Transfiguration is the infusion of new meaning into a barely extant formality. What has been a largely lifeless convention is thus restored to life. The new life is more than the old one but it is also an inheritor of the old. The form is recognizable -- if it were not, an entirely new thing would have appeared -- but it has been revalued; and the new value has the vividness, definiteness, and efficacy to become a god. Thus transfigured images are the threads of continuity between epochs of a culture, and sometimes between different cultures. As such they are the essential medium in which a heritage is transmitted. Indeed transfigured images are part of a heritage rather than external agents imported for its transmission. They are "timebinders," unifiers of time and experience. They are lords and gods fully ordained for their tasks in the native realm of the imagination.

II

The heritage of Western culture is heavily Christian: many of its gods have a Christian history, they participate in the historical reality of Jesus Christ. Traditionally Jesus Christ is both normative humanity and God Himself come to earth to save mankind from its just deserts. The traditional representations of this being, Jesus Christ, include cross, chalice, dove, fish, lamb. These representations began as emblems in the primitive Christian church and eventually became fully developed symbols, each uniquely expressing the value of Jesus Christ. But their being Christian has not exempted these images from the laws of the imagination. As gods generally they have come and gone; and returned transfigured; and died again; as though they were bound to a great wheel of life-and-death or were subject to a mysterious rhythm of ebb and flow governing all creation. This rhythm is one of the fundamental laws of the imagination.

The master images of Christian stamp had hardly emerged in power and glory before their attenuation began. Thrown by their own evangelical zeal against philosophically sophisticated paganism, the Christian apologists translated the biblical message into the conceptual schemes of the Hellenistic world. The biblical images began to die in that very moment, that is, they began to lose their primitive biblical value.

This Hellenization of the Gospel has sometimes been interpreted as a disaster early and inexplicably descended upon that tender lovely *naïf*, the primitive Gospel. A double error is thereby committed: the historical error of supposing that the Gospel might have been preached intelligibly to the pagan without Hellenizing it; and the philosophical error of supposing that the

most primitive form of the Gospel is necessarily the moment of its greatest power of truth. We wish devoutly to avoid both elements of error and mean therefore by speaking of "Hellenization" merely to call attention to the rapidity with which the biblical images are transformed in the context of Hellenistic culture. The Cross, for example, represents the efficacious self-sacrifice of Jesus Christ for the deliverance of man from the thralldom of Sin and Death and the participation of the faithful in this offering; thus the Cross is the symbol of obedience in life and death to the will of God the Father Almighty. But the temporal immediacy of the Kingdom of Glory was diminished by the passage of time and the necessity of coming to terms with Rome, the ruler of the world here below. In the course of the conflict with Rome, the Cross became the symbol of martyrdom. When Rome fell before the barbarian, the burden of imperial civilization fell upon the Church, and the Cross became the emblem of a new empire at once spiritual and temporal. *In hoc signo* the other kingdoms of this world were threatened with destruction unless they came under the yoke of Christendom. The Cross of the "pale Galilean" had indeed overcome the world. The world had also overcome the cross of the New Testament.

According to their several necessities, the Christian generations since have religiously preserved the emblem of the cross and used it to express things not felt as real or important by the other generations. Perhaps the strangest of these transformations is the use of the cross to identify a person as: (1) a clergyman; or (2) a non-Jew. In either instance the emblem seems to have become something between an amulet and a fraternity pin.

The death of a biblical image is a way of talking about the conversion of its meaning from something vivid and compelling to something trite and weak. Its return to power and clarity, whether or not one takes it to be a miracle, is always more than the repristination of the (presumptively) original value.

Thus the persistence of a linguistic habit, or of a conceptual system, by no means guarantees a symbol-continuum uniting the present and the past. I do not discount the possibility of some real bond of unity by saying that the bond is not likely to be an identity of symbolic value. St. Paul, for example, lived in a world which long ago ceased to exist. Biblical images have died and have been transfigured many times since his world expired. If a law higher than the law of the imagination determines an identity of meaning linking his mind and ours, we shall not be able to find it by ransacking the imagination. The imagination considered by itself is a story of gods coming to be and passing out of being, of passage from richness to poverty.

III

The Fall is one of the lords in the imagination of Western man. The formality of the office extends over a rich diversity of actual office-holders. For some people (very few, I suspect) the Fall still conveys a sense, greatly dimmed relative to earlier epochs, of a fatal accident forever separating man from a condition of being in which human life was purely, spontaneously, and everlastingly good. For the rest the Fall has other meanings more or less detached from the

biblical origins though not necessarily by any conscious intent. But a common meaning seems to run through the gamut of symbol transformations: the Fall is an image in which the inexpugnable reality of history is expressed. Man's being is his career in time. His career is the woeful wonderful passage from Innocence through Damnation and out toward fulfillment.

We should expect to find great differences in the representation of the moment and the condition from which man falls -- that moment just before history begins. For instance, in Genesis it is a moment of paradisiacal simplicity and beauty; and yet was not the destroyer of Paradise, Pride, already insidiously working? St. Augustine's answer is clear enough.

The wicked deed, then, -- that is to say, the transgression of eating the forbidden fruit -- was committed by persons who were already wicked.¹

The great theologian has no real answer to the question how this inner fall came about, that is, why Adam turned away from a Good absolutely perfect. That is a mystery unrelievable by any human speculation. It is a particularly bothersome mystery for one who believes that man has a natural (created) propensity for the good, an orientation which derives directly from the perfect will of God Himself. Nevertheless St. Augustine is not deterred from believing that the moment before history begins is the moment in which love of self crowds out the love of God.

This interpretation of the biblical Fall has long been normative in Christian reflection, and in one feature or another it is still largely accepted by many theologians. I cite it here as a capital illustration of the death of an image and its transfiguration. Genesis itself has nothing of St. Augustine's profound inward-spiritual speculation. In Genesis Adam breaks the clearly stated and clearly heard Law of God; and by God's mercy as well as His wrath, Adam lives to suffer the consequences, as do we all. St. Augustine's Adam inwardly plots rebellion and is therefore bound to sin outwardly. In this he is all mankind, man as such prefigured. We learn nothing from Genesis about Adam's natural propensities and less than nothing about agitations among the angels which adumbrate Adam's fall. Perhaps St. Augustine's Adam was planted by St. Paul; but St. Paul's Adam is already a transformation of the Adam of Genesis; and St. Paul does not seem to know nearly as much about Adam's interiority as Augustine does.

In any case the Fall was launched long ago on what has turned out to be a remarkable career. In the modern world it becomes a defining characteristic of the novel. The hero falls from Innocence, represented commonly as virginity. He becomes a creature of guilt and is alienated from his native condition. In this process he learns what life is all about and what he is. In the end he is a man richer in wisdom for all his suffering. So he is carried toward reconciliation with reality even though his sins may not be entirely forgiven. His fall, then, can be seen as fortunate (*O felix culpa!*): his seduction (or rape) yields a greater good than he would otherwise have attained. I do not mean that the master novelists have taught us to expect a sure and happy release from Damnation. One thinks of Anna Karenina in Tolstoy's masterpiece and of Milly Theale in James's *Wings of the Dove*. If we have come to count on a sure and happy release, we

have surely come a long way down the slope from those heights bathed in such marvelous interplay of light and shadow. We have in fact been stuffed with popular literature in which reconciliation (returning home) is the comfortable assured outcome. The sinner (in all likelihood an unhappy adulterer) is reaccepted provided that he is unusually diligent in cultivating the fruits of repentance and is doggedly resolute in overcoming subsequent temptation. The sinner is not supposed to believe that he or anybody else has now a better grasp of good and evil, is in any way a better and richer human being. Actually he is less a person, he is forever stained. The faithful wife, on the other hand, is a better person for it all, because she is faithful, forgiving, and righteous altogether. Perhaps in her favor we ought to modify the generalization and say that she is really better off because of another's fall.

The Fall, in other words, threatens to collapse into inane stereotype. A god has become a tedious triviality, the image of the Fall has itself fallen! Even the Fallen Woman has become a cliché -- perhaps by sheer multiplication of the species -- if not a joke.

It is the more remarkable, therefore, that Camus adopted the Fall for the work we considered in chapter three. Again Innocence is destroyed. Again a soul becomes a guilt-haunted homeless wanderer, a weary wraith in a dreary land. But this fallen man is very different from the first Adam: Clamence fell from the sublimity of self-adoration, of nearly flawless egocentricity, into the absurdity of self-loathing and self-flight.

The Fall is not therefore an ironical inversion of Christian verities. Camus gives us a transfigured rather than an inverted or reversed symbol; and it therefore goes beyond the ironical intention even though ironical elements are in it. The kind of luminosity and vividness Camus imparts to the Fall evokes a new world in which man is irremediably guilty *but guilty in, for, and by himself alone*. He is no longer judged and condemned by heaven's God or by a conscience in touch with an ideal order. He is self-judged and self-condemned. The Fall has become the passage from the bliss of self-ignorance to the ultimate damnation of self-knowledge -- to know oneself truly is the ultimate curse.

That new world is not yet entirely visible. Even in prospect, though, it contains Damnation beyond the dream of even Camus' wretched Jean-Baptiste Clamence. It is a world in which the Fall becomes the descent into inauthenticity, that daytime nightmare of Martin Heidegger's evocation: the mode of being in which "They" become the norm and "I" abdicates sovereignty, surrenders its freedom for the specious comforts of life in the all-determining human social mass.

This version of the Fall is rather more intelligible to us in the present world than the fall of Adam traditionally represented. Heideggerian self has no divine prehistory, no Almighty Father. He is exposed altogether to powers and nullities which threaten in every moment to obliterate him, and finally do so. We can understand when this self is so badly frightened by the world that he surrenders his essential freedom and all grasp of truth for the precarious enjoyment of

illusory comforts. For freedom is a dreadful burden, if it means that a man is absolutely responsible for himself and can really and finally be only what he is prepared to resolve to become. To fall backwards away from so vertiginous a prospect, to faint into the safety of the socio-biological matrix of human life, is a choice any sensitive soul can understand and be tempted to duplicate.

There are other presentments of a new world for which the Fall remains an important symbol. In instance William Golding's novel, *Free Fall*, as a different presentment.

Samuel Mountjoy, the central character and first-person narrator of this novel, has but one all-commanding question: "How did I lose my freedom?"² He knows that

Somewhere, sometime, I made a choice in freedom and lost my freedom.³

So he seeks to recover that moment, to come back again upon that corner which, once turned, somehow determined everything. But why does he want to recover that moment in which he fell, So that he may at last understand what happened and claim it for his own -- claim it, actually, as himself. From such penetration of the reality of the past, forgiveness does not necessarily come. It is possible to know oneself as being unforgiveable.

Nothing can be repaired or changed. The innocent cannot forgive.⁴

The innocent one is Beatrice, his onetime mistress. He had loved her but not in freedom. Therefore his love for her was her destruction, and for this he endures unassuageable guilt. He has not been immobilized by this terrible burden. He has become a very successful painter, and he has other grounds as well for being happy. Nevertheless he must claim his own being. He must not only acknowledge that he chose necessity rather than freedom, but he must also recover the moment in which he did so.

I want to understand. The gray faces peer over my shoulder. Nothing can expunge or exorcise them.⁵

Once again the Fall takes on meaning which is a continuant of the heritage only in superficial respects. The re-charged image is an embodiment of a new world. It is a world in which forgiveness is inefficacious even when people trouble to ask for it. It is a world in which people are driven to bizarre extremes to find viable substitutes for forgiveness: anaesthesia, addiction, obsession, violence against self or others -- these are some of the substitutes. Each is a refuge and a fate of the damned, the *unforgiveables*.

IV

Damnation is the fate of the fallen man. Damnation is another image which dies and comes to life in striking variety.

The word itself is an echo of a past world in which it expressed a dreadful reprisal at life's and the world's end for every sin against Divine Majesty. Now the echo is very faint. Where Damnation lives at all brightly, it signifies internal states of the person rather than relationship to objective realities such as the divine righteousness. To be damned is to be inwardly stricken ("agenbite of inwit"), such as feeling life to be a hopeless burden, or having the sense of being alone in a dark silent universe. And this is to say that Damnation has traveled a long, torturous road from the biblical world, where it carries the sense of exile, that is of being cast out from the essential community of life. There it has also the sense of richly merited punishment from which there is no appeal and no time off for good behavior.

But in the Bible itself striking changes begin to occur. In the New Testament, Damnation here and there gives off the lurid glow of an apocalyptized Hell. The geography of the spiritual life begins to intrude, and one can see how it might well become all-conquering, as it does in the Middle Ages. Then Hell becomes the bottom level of a three-storied cosmos; it has its own landscape, government, stratified citizenry, and time. The Kingdom of the Damned -- frightful demons and all their prey -- is as real for the people of the Middle Ages as the life on earth and heaven above. Life in the dark kingdom is beyond all possibility of relief or redemption. Light has lost all its generative power.

Men who really believe that such a hideous realm yawns greedily for victims at their very feet may well think twice before doing the things for which God will commit them to that horrid pit, and they may well sleep badly after doing them.

Devout Hell-fearers are still among us, I have no doubt. They are several worlds behind. They have not yet caught up with one of the most interesting worlds, demonically speaking, to arise since the Middle Ages, namely romanticism. In this intriguing world the damned are very important citizens. No longer denizens of a geographical Hell fixed there in torment forever for sins against God, they are people condemned to endless misery in this world for the unspeakable crimes which held inexhaustible fascination for romantic spirits. *La belle dame sans merci* is such a haunting presence, a damned soul but also a woman of infinitely seductive allure. If she is an object of holy pity and aversion, these high virtues of the beholder are flawed by his powerful craving to enjoy her even if it costs him his everlasting bliss. And then there is the Byronic hero who is determined to taste all of earth's good and evil even at the risk of damnation. If this unslakeable cosmic appetite draws Damnation down upon the hero he will embrace it with integrity, that is with bravado.

Today this hero of Damnation would be unbelievable as a contemporary. Such behavior would strike us as being adolescent, affected, tinny, and compulsive. As for *la belle dame sans merci*, she has degenerated into that indispensable stock character of contemporary fiction, the sick

nymphomaniac. O how the mighty are fallen!

Judgment nearly as harsh falls upon much more recent recruits to the Legion of the Damned, the Lost Generation of the First World War, such as Lady Brett Ashley of Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises* (1926).

Brett Ashley is surely one of the damned. She knows it, her pals know it, we all know it. She is not star-crossed or heaven-curst but is simply at hopeless odds with her self and her world. She is sexually promiscuous, but hardly for fun. Homeless by virtue of a talent for infidelity, she seeks she knows not what. In her own way she is principled: some things she will not do because, as she says, one cannot be a bitch all of the time. The satisfaction she derives from such rare episodes of self-denial may be all that restrains her from total self-destruction.

The Lost Generation did not all go on the bum in Europe after the Great War. Some of them managed the "return to normalcy." They came home to conventional marriages, and had children, and worked at jobs, politics, and occasionally, at religion. But in their own way they fared badly too: theirs was a quiet nonhistrionic, non-Bohemian damnation. (They throught the stories of F. Scott Fitzgerald and of John O'Hara.) The burdens of "normal life" are of course too much and too small for them, and so they seek anaesthesia in alcohol, sex, etc. But as the damned go they are rather ordinary people; medieval demonizing and Byronic posturing are gone altogether, leaving not a trace either of brimstone or opium in the air. The stale musk of pointless adulteries mingles with ginny belches to create an atmosphere in which *la belle* wouldn't have a fighting chance on her best night.

The ancient damned are much more interesting people, all told, than the Lost Generation. They did not fumble the world away or try to sleep through it. They sinned boldly enough, in all conscience, and not that grace should the more abound. Fortunately for our self-esteem as moderns, Damnation has not yet run its course. Eugene O'Neill, Franz Kafka, and Thomas Mann have brought forward new recruits.

Under O'Neill's treatment the company of the damned swells to appalling inclusiveness. Lost! all lost! On O'Neill's representation man is floundering in the bottomless sea of self-deceit, self-pity, and self-hatred; and there is no blessed shore anywhere in sight. Man is a pilgrim but he is neither outward bound on a mission as ennobling as perilous, nor homeward bound full of honor won in great conflicts. So this is a damnable world, but who will give the damn? Who cares that much except as a gesture of disgust or frustration? To be born in such a world is to learn early to weep for oneself and to desist therefrom only when exhausted. Not even a vagrant wisp of hope blows across such a world -- only fools waste breath on hope. Perhaps the least tolerable folly, in such a world, is to love wisdom.

Kafka created a fearsomely luminous image of the modern (or is it simply the human?) world; and this image is *The Trial* (English translation, 1937). His hero is so preternaturally universal

that he has an initial rather than a name: K. K is more nearly a relationship than a subject in himself; that relationship is guilt. His guilt is unnamable, not because he has committed a crime too outrageous even to be whispered, but because no being appears to divulge K's real situation before the law. Therefore he is free to become his guilt simply -- and what a devastating fate thus overcomes freedom! This he does. Metaphysically and otherwise he pours his substance into the hopeless task of establishing his innocence. He necessarily loses in this undertaking, and therefore he dies "like a dog." When heaven is empty and humanity is indifferent, death is a brute episode signifying nothing.

Doctor Faustus (1947), Thomas Mann's *summa theologica*, appears to return to the medieval vision of Damnation. A *summa* must of course include the demonic, and Mann's device for its inclusion is the Faustus image; but Mann has significant modifications of the tradition to propose. The traditional Faust contracted with Satan for an empire for himself: illimitable power, endless plunder for sensual and intellectual enjoyment; and all at the price of being pelf of Satan in the life to come. Adrian Leverkühn, Mann's Faust, does not strike a bargain with Satan for a sensualist's paradise or for power to know all mysteries. He would scale the heights of creativity as a composer. He craves a god-like power and is willing to sell his soul to have it. So when he achieves this power he knows that he is damned. Then he learns to his horror that the Devil does indeed drive a hard bargain: he takes the life of Leverkühn's darling Nepo, the beautiful boy, whose terminal suffering is so frightful that Leverkühn nearly loses his mind. Then is this not ancient Faust still? Do we not sense in every Faust a cosmic conflict between ultimate evil and divine righteousness? Does not Faust always traffic with the demonic powers and thus incur the wrath of God?

To the extent that thaumaturgy figures significantly in Mann's *Faustus*, there is reason for giving affirmative answers to such questions. But we must note that Mann represents his hero's thaumaturgy as an obsessive dabbling in ancient superstitions unlikely to stir the sleeping dogs of Hell. Good gray Serenus Zeitblom, Ph.D., the narrator, may believe that there are demonic powers outside the Id, but does Mann really encourage *us* so to believe? I think not. Given the religious orientation of Adrian Leverkühn, creativity of the highest order is *hybris* and is certain to bring damnation as its consequence. But this offense also brings forth beauty so splendid, so exquisite, that the human spirit can scarcely endure it. Must we not say therefore that Leverkühn dares the harshest fate, Damnation, for the enrichment of man? Or did he really aspire for a kind of absolute mastery, after all, and thus lunge beyond the set boundaries of finitude? If he did the latter, he did indeed traffic with Satan, and superstition be damned; and his art is the most beautiful flower on a vine that also produced that abomination of desolation, the Nazi wickedness. Mann more than hints such a connection.

So Damnation's life has been composed of many deaths and many transfigurations. Many in our time will wonder whether that life has not finally dried up, whether, particularly, Mann's *Doctor Faustus* is not a heroic failure to make an image live for a world in which existence itself is more persistently threatened with pointlessness than with anything diabolical. The

commonplace character of such damnation not only robs the image of its indispensable vividness, but also threatens it with such universal application as to make it, itself, pointless as a representation of the human condition. Can we be sobered by threat of damnation if we are all gripped by it already? If nothing can be done about a predicament so inclusive, determinative, and final, where is the merit for fixing attention on it? Truth for truth's sake" is a sound principle, as well as a glittering slogan, only if error is avoidable or the mind caught in it is reformable. By the same token, "we are all damned" is intelligible only if acknowledgment of its truth modifies the absoluteness of the truth it proclaims -- as though "all men are damned" is true only if "some men are more damned than others" is also and more true.

Damnation has very seldom been represented as the ultimate and absolutely inclusive fate, but not simply for the reason just cited. There is also the fact that the heritage includes the image of Expiation. This image is an historically potent expression of a world whose moral governance metes punishment for crime but also includes expiation through suffering.

V

The line between Retribution and Expiation is as difficult to draw as it is important to observe. The satisfaction demanded by the moral universe may not be at all reformatory; it may be ordered and exacted simply to balance the books. On the other hand the ultimate powers may have a reformatory interest; they may want the harmony of the world restored, or perhaps even enhanced; and so they may authorize suffering to bear this value. The suffering so authorized may be that of the innocent rather than of the transgressor alone.

Expiatory suffering may be so harsh that the divine powers appear to be driving for retribution only -- an eye for an eye, a life for a life. Such seems to be the situation of Orestes in the tragedies of Aeschylus. First he is made to serve as the instrument of divine vengeance against the adulteress and murderess who happens to be his mother. But thereby he becomes the object of a divine vengeance by the foul Furies, who hound him savagely over the world lusting for his blood. Finally the horrid avenging spirits are placated by Pallas Athene, who assures them that Orestes did only what the gods constrained him to do; and she promises them that if they relent they shall be installed as the incorruptible guardians of the righteousness of the city. Thus the case laid against the house of Agamemnon is lifted. The ancient quarrel of outraged blood is ended. Full satisfaction has been made.

The Eumenides is a remarkably clear instance of the transfiguration of an image, here the image of divine retribution, the Furies. In the beginning of the drama they are described as "foul," "lewd," "loathed alike by men and the heavenly gods." They represent the primitive right of blood vengeance: when blood is spilt, especially the mother's, they are unappeasable by anything but the blood of the transgressor. Under Athene's persuasive civilizing power they become the guardians of the city's peace. The conversion is beautifully illustrated in one of their closing speeches.

This is my prayer: Civil War
fattening on men's ruin shall
not thunder in our city, Let
not the dry dust that drinks
the black blood of citizens
through passion for revenge
and bloodshed for bloodshed
be given our state to prey upon.
Let them render grace for grace.
Let love be their common will;
let them hate with single heart.
Much wrong in the world thereby is healed.⁶

Judas Iscariot pays for his unspeakable sin by taking his own life. His transgression is so foul, and his self-punishment so terrible and prompt, that the relationship linking the one to the other seems purely retributive. Yet his suicide is a selfpunishment which, given the biblical world, cannot possibly absolve his guilt. In fact it adds crime to crime to reach a horrid sum, and Judas becomes a prime figure in the Legion of the Damned.

But of course Judas is a figure in the encompassing story of Jesus Christ. Jesus Christ is everything that Judas is not. True, Judas goes beyond that story to become the image of the archtraitor, while Christ becomes the supreme image of Expiation for the sins of others. And of course the supreme symbol of Expiation is Crucifixion. Here the one perfectly righteous man suffers ultimate outrage, and his suffering is ordained to be the divine instrument of human salvation.

Christ's expiatory death includes a factor of retribution, as theologians interpret it. The righteousness of God demands satisfaction for the sins of mankind; this is offered up by Jesus Christ, the man without sin. From this transaction of sacrifice divine power is released for the reconstitution of human reality if not of the cosmos. So in the end, if not absolutely, God's interest in suffering is reformatory: the will of God is reconciliation to his righteousness rather than final damnation.

The life of the Cross has been subject to the mysterious ebb and flow which we have called the fundamental law of the imagination. In our time it has not fallen away altogether into cliché and thereafter into desuetude. In fact one of the most distinguished of our contemporaries, William Faulkner, was unable to relinquish the crucifixion image of expiation. Joe Christmas, for instance, of *Light in August*, dies in expiation for the dual crimes of being (presumably) a Negro and a murderer. As every good Christian lyncher knows the law can take care of crime number two but never of crime number one. His death becomes part of the ineradicable memory of the community, but it has no reformatory power. And of the death of Thomas Sutpen we have to

say that in it he reaps the consequences of his own folly. These two, therefore, will not qualify as representation of Expiation after the Christ model. Ike McCaslin is somewhat nearer, since his renunciation of his patrimony in the land is a gesture toward the ultimate righteousness whose justice has been outraged by human rapacity and folly.

Thereafter Faulkner made two attempts to give a closer reading of the Christ model of Expiation: Temple Drake in *Requiem For A Nun* and the Corporal in *A Fable*.

If Temple Drake is unconvincing in her turn toward the expiatory life, it may be because we learned too much about her in her earlier appearance, *Sanctuary*. On the other hand we may be hard put to it to believe in a character who is so profoundly impressed and persuaded by the moralistic preachments of lawyer Stevens. What is not unbelievable is that a Temple Drake should try to rectify her moral accounts and become a better person. She may not make it all the way to Jesus but she will try.

The Corporal of *A Fable* (1950) is patterned after Jesus with excruciating attention to details: a dozen disciples, a demonic Tempter, a Judas, and an execution including the modern equivalent of a crown of thorns -- an informal circlet of barbed wire. The Corporal's death is briefly efficacious: it is related to that mutual and spontaneous cessation of fire which is part of the legend of the First World War. But not as the cause thereof, rather as the effect, since the High Command must find a scapegoat and must thereafter get the war started up again. So the expiatory death does not alter the course of history by reforming the human constitution. Its efficacy is the light it throws on the eternal, time-binding conflict of good and evil. The deathless avatars, Christ and Caesar, contend with each other throughout time. But no matter how fierce the holocaust, the human spirit will prevail.

A Fable is a profoundly disappointing novel. The refurbished image of the expiatory Christ fails to take hold. Part of the reason for this may well lie in Faulkner's endowing mankind with an invincible will to prevail: such a creature does not need and can hardly benefit from the sacrifice of Jesus Christ, Son of Man and Son of God. But there is another difficulty: the original Christ is part of the total divine operation by which human life is sanctified, that is, by which unity and holiness are conferred upon it. One suspects that holiness is supernaturally difficult to make intelligible and real to the contemporary world, which has enough trouble with unity. Perhaps this is why the failure to impart luminosity to the Christ image is a pervasive one rather than Faulkner's alone. For that matter his Christ is far more plausible than the Christ of such religious tableaux as Lloyd Douglas' *The Robe*.

VI

Of all human prepossessions the dream of Sanctification is surely one of the strangest, since it suggests a primordial divinehuman community in which man was altogether righteous, his every appetite being infallibly oriented upon the good.

Unkind as history has been to this dream, its imagery persists. Even when the "memory" of an antecedent condition of perfection has atrophied, images of Sanctification live on in the imagination. I propose several illustrations of this phenomenon, of which the first is Sophocles' *Oedipus*.

Oedipus is transformed from being a curse into a sanctifying presence. In *Oedipus Rex* he makes the great gesture of Expiation for his crimes against the gods: he puts out his own eyes and exiles himself forever from the city of his kingship, Thebes. Perhaps the gods will be satisfied by this dreadful suffering and restore health to the afflicted city. Sophocles does not say so but the hope is not unreasonable. In any case the ultimate justice of the cosmos seems to have been vindicated.

In the beginning of *Oedipus at Colonnus*, we learn that since his self-banishment from Thebes Oedipus has wandered on the earth as a blind beggar whose very name is abhorrent to all decent god-fearing people. He has not been given sanctuary by any city or person: because he is an offense to the gods he ought to be loathed and scorned by mankind. But now this attitude is rebuked. Oedipus proclaims his innocence in the dreadful crimes of parricide and incest. He admits that he killed his father but he says that he did so in self-defense and in ignorance of his father's identity. In ignorance as profound he had married his own mother, Jocasta. His terrible suffering must therefore have a providential salvific value. Accordingly he is given sanctuary at Athens. The future greatness of that city is thereby assured by the gods who have administered Oedipus' case. From his example the generations to come will learn how rectitude is esteemed by the highest gods; and Oedipus stands forth, even as he disappears in a terrifying event, as a sanctifying presence.

Sanctification in the New Testament is a condition of spirit made possible by perfect obedience to Jesus Christ. The sanctified man has achieved that perfection of mastery over flesh and ego which renders him a pure channel of divine love. Thanks to the power of God the Spirit, this condition is attainable by living persons in the conditions of this life. Eventually the church moved all its saints to heaven; but even then the saint is hailed as a saint because in heaven as on earth he is a rich blessing to a mankind forever beleaguered by Satan, stupidity, and death. So here and/or hereafter the saint is a person who has achieved *purity* as a channel of divine love. This might be instructive to an age which will not forswear the everlasting reliving of the loss of innocence.

The traditional saint of New Testament inspiration remains a figure in the spiritual landscape, but -- apart from traditional piety -- he has receded into the dim background as other forms of Sanctification have come to the fore. Indeed contemporary saints make strange bedfellows -- if the metaphor is not too offensive -- with all the saints of Christian elevation. For our age has a great fondness for the unconventional saint.

Some of the traditional saints had to overcome, in the grace of God, unsavory -- as they felt -- beginnings: from their own imbibing they knew how poisonously sweet were the sins of the flesh. But of course they gave up all that when the Holy Spirit claimed them for the service of God. The saint of the unconventional life, to the contrary, affirms rather than renounces the natural goodness of life in and after the flesh. His sanctifying presence is directly related to his power of affirmation of the natural life. He castigates the austerities of the spiritual life, especially as these are enjoined by men who plan to get it all back in heaven. The life of rigorous self-denial, inhibition, etc., is diseased. Therefore this modern saint does not dream of redeeming society, his quarrel with it is not a lover's quarrel. Since he aspires to destroy whatever falsifies, cheapens, and degrades the natural potentialities of the concrete individual, he attacks the precious conventions through which society as such exists. His presence therefore is hardly sanctifying to the inauthentic souls cowering behind these conventions hoping that Providence will crown conventional virtue with real gold.

In our time the unconventional saint forswears the life of the political revolutionist. The revolutionist is a slave to a scheme of human perfection achieved by political manipulation; and for this he may become a veritable hero of self-denial; but he may also become a veritable monster of tyranny over the lives of others, not hesitating to use every trick of deceit and instrument of violence -- in the cause of human perfection!

The artist appears to have the highest degree of plausibility as the unconventional saint, if we conceive the artist to be the truly creative and the really free spirit. The saint in any case cannot be a mere sensualist or "materialist" -- anybody can manage to espouse and practice those creeds. So the artist as saint does not live to eat, drink, copulate, or make money. When he does any of these things, he does them freely; and when he refrains from doing them, he refrains freely; and in both cases he is free from the bondage to conventionality. He attacks the "normal" validities and velleities of perception and response, but not as an adolescent hell-raiser. He will not allow the threat of Hell to obstruct or distort the free expression of individuality.

But where is this saint to be found in contemporary literature? Camus lauds him in *The Rebel*; but the artist in *The Plague*, Grand, is a pathetic joke. He is not to be found in Hemingway, or in Faulkner. And in real life, as we like to think of it, the artist is sometimes a triumph of ego-assertion, a man who creates a private world by using a private language so that his grand critique of the conventional life in an illusory world fizzles out into self-reflective crochets, and freedom descends into irresponsibility.

Moreover the sociological pessimists may have persuaded us to believe that Organization Man is beyond Sanctification. This creature has heroes, no doubt -- Cary Grant, or Stan Musial, say -- but his heroes lend only an illusion of vicarious glamour to a dull and pointless existence.

The sociological jeremiads underline the extent to which *community* has been absorbed into a massive all-devouring *society*. Such a monster is unsanctifiable and unsanctifying. Having

destroyed essential human community, it throws up pseudo gods to be loved and obeyed -- Success, Security, Popularity, Sexual License, etc. Although the divinity of such gods is pure illusion, the desire and hope invested in them, and the frustration and despair reaped from them, are real enough. Thanks to the limitless technical power of our world frustration and despair can be tranquilized, and the craving for freedom can be explained away. So again Sanctification is threatened with the final death, and precisely at the central point: *the power to love in and for the essential human community*. And so far a case can be made against the likelihood of a return to power of any image of Sanctification. For the sanctifying power in human life is love. Love inverted is truly demonic, whatever one makes of traditional imps of Hell. It follows that if love cannot be sanctified, all is lost. The contemporary scene offers formidable impediments to the representation of love either as sanctified or sanctifying.

Love represented as a power driving upwards from the dark underground roots of the psyche is one such impediment -- a view of things roughly Freudian. But a spirituality which has been alienated from the depths of the psyche quickly becomes an expendable sentimentalism. Thus the saint represented as a triumph of spirit over flesh and as a paragon of selfless concern for the well-being of others falls into the pit of irrelevancy. Christ himself becomes a symbol of the unreal and exorbitant demands of the spirit against the flesh and the world and moves into the thin dim life of sentimentality.

D. H. Lawrence saw this and responded with characteristic passion. He offered an antidote in *The Man Who Died* (1928). He pictures Jesus as assailed by that inveterate enemy, dread of the flesh. Even after the first Resurrection Jesus is really alive because he is still victimized by that ancient enemy -- he is still a virgin. An abundantly sexual woman, a pagan priestess, delivers him from the death-grip of that enemy.

He crouched to her, and he felt the blaze of his manhood and his power rise up in his loins, magnificent.
"I am risen!"⁷

In this way Jesus is sanctified. Does he then become a channel of sanctifying power, does he indeed become the Savior? He begets a child with the priestess who has been the instrument of his true resurrection. But who are his spiritual progeny? The Laurentian free soul? We have already seen how severely history since Lawrence has dealt with this spiritual child; more harshly, really, than the outraged piety of Lawrence's critics could have expected, but not altogether to their comfort. Nevertheless his struggle was not absolutely futile. For our own age he is a warning against fresh incursions of the black gnostic shadow against the natural goodness of the body. The saint, who crucifies the flesh because he is afraid of it and in his fear endows it with demonic potentialities, is a victim of that invasion and ought to be so identified. He at least has not overcome the alienation of human life from itself, of which the conflict of spirit and flesh is one cardinal expression; and he cannot therefore be an authentic image of Sanctification. Sanctification is a demand that human life be unitary, that is, that it be made one

by the power of love which reconciles all differences.

Using such a notion of Sanctification, we can form an estimate of several late contenders for sainthood in the ranks of traditional piety.

Graham Greene created a remarkable figure, the whisky priest of *The Power and the Glory* (1940), as a representation of the hunger for sanctification. He scampers gracelessly from the pursuing zeal of the Mexican lieutenant charged with rounding up and executing recalcitrant priests. He longs for that supernatural state of grace in which love of God, love of others, and love of self are miraculously united -- the true sanctification; but he stumbles drunkenly into the situation in which martyrdom is thrust upon him rather than embraced with courage, dignity, and hope. He is a confirmed alcoholic; he has fornicated and has a child to prove it; he is a craven coward who does not hesitate to lie to save his skin -- altogether he is an unlikely postulant for traditional sanctification. But with God all things are possible. In spite of himself and contrary to his own view of himself, he may yet be a blessing to many. He did not die very bravely; but Greene shows how the saint-making distortions of history are already occurring almost before his body has cooled off.

The whisky priest is an ambiguous figure. He neither renounces the flesh nor affirms its natural goodness. Nothing redemptive or sanctifying is manifested in his wretchedness of guilt for his sins. Clearly, he needs the unifying love of a "beloved community." If he is the channel of such love, if he exercises its authority, Providence is indeed mysterious.

Sarah, the heroine of *The End of the Affair* (1951) is not a much clearer case. Again, she is a party to that most irresistibly symbolical sin, adultery. Dull as this affair seems to me it obviously means a great deal to her. Otherwise her grand renunciatory gesture is without meaning. This gesture is a covenant between God and herself: she will give herself to Christ if God will restore life to her lover, dazed, as it turns out, rather than mortally wounded by a German buzz-bomb. Her lover quickly recovers, Sarah keeps her part of the bargain, and she is on the road to sanctification, old-style, more or less. Unlike the whisky priest she becomes a vehicle of divine healing power, now to a stricken child, and eventually (who will doubt it?) to the soul of her erstwhile lover, who learns that he cannot compete successfully with Christ for the love of his erstwhile mistress.

I doubt that Greene intends his story to be a morality simply, a warning against the joylessness of sin, although it does seem to me that his sinners rarely have a very good time of it. He says, I take it, that the fundamental conditions of this world are (in actual sum if not coherently) a disfigurement of life; wherefore the world is a natural and implacable foe of joy whether it be sought in licit or illicit loves. But it would follow from this that the real saint, as distinguished from avatars of sanctification left over from some long-gone world, must give off light, lucidity, and joy engendered in the union of love for this world and his vision of a world-to-be to which the present world is drawn. The real saint must not be a prodigy of renunciation, because he

who renounces the world must see more evil than good in it and feel himself to be unequal to its massive power and cherish something of himself as too precious to be lost in the world's manure and rubble. The saint must affirm rather than renounce the world; and to affirm it is to rejoice in its simply being there, rather than to praise it as a step to something higher and holier. Greene's people are constitutionally unable to do this; and not even grace empowers them to do it.

Two of T. S. Eliot's people enter the lists for sanctification. One of these is Harry Monchensey of *Family Reunion*. Harry is summoned to a quest for the light whose author is surely God. He has lived a joyless, guilt-haunted life among illusions. Indeed when he first appears in the play his mind is guiltclouded on a fairly important matter: had he pushed (and not merely wished) his wife over the ship's rail to her death? His guilt is so severe and ambiguous that he is pursued by those foul avengers from the ancient world, the Furies. As he moves from these terrible shadows toward the springing light of truth and self-acknowledgment, the Furies are transformed into ministring angels. He is not yet sanctified when the play ends, but he is on the way. And the same divine power of love will set to rights everything else that is dark and crooked in the Monchensey family. Thus the "reunion" is a transforming return to the life of grace.

Celia Coplestone in *The Cocktail Party* is a much more fully realized saint. She comes into this high estate through the ministry of a psychiatrist of nearly divine powers, Sir Henry Harcourt-Reilly. Celia is a virginal soul who comes to see that the well-tempered life of English upper-class Christian gentility is not for her. This is not because one cannot really be a Christian in that way. God demands one thing of this person and another one of that person, and he has something special in mind for Celia. She gives up resisting her vocation and goes out to Africa to preach Christ. There she meets a terrible, blessed death as a martyr and becomes a sanctifying presence: although in heaven now abiding she will ever be a verdant blessing here below.

Celia is a poignant gesture toward a lost world. She is an evocation of love spiritualized to the highest degree, but she is also an exercise in nostalgia. Unfortunately for some of our contemporaries Sanctification is not brought into solidier relation with reality by making her a whore rather than a virgin, the whore with the heart of gold who exorcises the evil spirits by taking the victims into her generous omniscient bed and who supports every liberal cause from the largesse proffered by her cash customers. No, neither the virgin nor the greathearted whore will do. Neither exemplifies that love which makes body and soul, self and other-self, God and man, real and creative unities. Perhaps Celia fails for other reasons, too, but these may cast a sorrier light upon the world than upon her. A world able to see only footless idealism wedded to mental illness in the ultimate of self-sacrifice somehow seems not worth the blood of martyred saints. Perhaps they, who seem unalterably intent upon leading lives relatively decent, largely dull, rarely lucid, and habitually joyless except for "kicks" artificially induced, deserve such a world. The trouble is, when the saint fades out, the sinner loses intelligibility and shortly becomes a stale cliché; and the world is left to those who lack the courage to be a saint and the vividness of appetite to be a sinner.

VII

Sanctification is an image intimately related to the renewal and purification of the essential life of a community. In every disaster, whether of privation or prosperity, which befalls the community, and beyond death itself, the life in it looks to Resurrection and thereafter to Sanctification. *Resurrection is the miraculous renewal of the community. Sanctification is the reunification and purification of the powers of life thus restored.* So understood Sanctification unites (reconciles) life and death: life is habituated to the contingency of death; death is habituated to the necessity of life. Sanctification is therefore an ultimate image in which man's finiteness is expressed and celebrated. But it is also an image of the divine community in which life and death are reconciled.

VIII

Death is one of the reigning powers in the imagination. Its demands upon the spirit are nearly as great as those levied by life itself; and its assaults upon faith, hope, love, and courage, are too well known to need review here. Therefore hardly any task could be more forbidding than to bring Death within the form of Sanctification. Yet the task is unavoidable. If it is burked or bungled, existence falls into the most radical alienation from the world.

Efforts to encompass Death in Sanctification fall into three options, the first of which is the *denial of death.*

On the face of it no project imaginable could have a worse prospect for success than the denial of death. Since everybody dies no one can expect to profit from the denial of so universal a fate. But the profit in view is not a successful outcome of a quarrel with a biological fatality; it is a condition of the spirit men call peace. Peace is the end in view of the traditional doctrines of immortality, and these are so many denials of death. They agree on several major points: (a) the soul has a much higher value than the body; (b) a higher value cannot be destroyed by a lower one; (c) were the soul to die the rationality of the cosmos would be impugned, which *ex hypothesi* is impossible. These convictions taken together constitute a projection of the blessed and foreordained unity of the human spirit with ultimate reality. In fact they make the human spirit one of the ultimate reality.

This view of human life has often been supported by metaphysical arguments against the reality of the physical world. It is a view which may express an exalted ego-evaluation impervious to any qualifying shock administered by the world. I am not concerned here with attacking the projection either on metaphysical or psychological grounds. Rather I want to ask whether Sanctification so represented does what it is supposed to, that is, unifies the diverse and contentious components of human existence. Explaining away the reality of death is a project which threatens the goodness of existence just as existence is given, and I contend that the unity

of existence must not be purchased at the cost of that goodness. The peace projected cannot be so good that the more primitive goodness should be jettisoned for it. In fact peace so envisaged, loved, and craved, is responsible for much that is specious in the present world. I confess that nothing seems more specious than the image of man, the pure soul imprisoned in a body disposed to sin.

Love of death is a second option for encompassing death in the form of Sanctification. Aspects of Freudian theory, rather than metaphysical exercises, are commonly summoned to support this option. The ghastly experiences of population-murder in this century of course converge upon psychological dogma to make the option persuasive.

This fatal love was explored in depth by Dostoevsky. In *The Possessed* he charges nihilism with being an irreformable love of death. On his representation this terrible love is compromised by the utopian dream of human perfectability -- a Sanctification to be achieved by scientific reason. Even there a love of death is at work; and there as elsewhere it is a love which springs from the will of the self to be God, to be, which is to say, the absolute arbiter of life and death; so Kirillov kills himself to prove that he has this god-like power.

The Freudian aspect has, I think, largely supplanted the imagery, if not the views, of Dostoevsky, at least in the quasiliterate mind of the age. In the Freudian account the craving for death is a project for peace: it is the peace of the womb-life rather than the peace of absolute nullity. In the womb the Ego has not yet emerged -- to say nothing of the Super-Ego. Biologically the self has achieved differentiation from the mother, but this has not produced conflict of wills. So the mother womb is the perfect circumambient environment. Life is reduced to the encompassing and perfectly adequate nourishing Mother and the unbrookably demanding Self.

In stupefied incredulity we ask why such a condition of being should be given such bizarre idealization -- a condition in which the self is barely more than an alimentary canal uncomplicated by self-awareness. The answer is clear and commanding: because postuterine life denies peace in any other deeply satisfying and enduring mode. Harshly abused by the world into which we are ushered by the unforgivable trauma of birth, we carry with us the inextirpable memory of that blessed peace; and often symbolically seek it, waking and dreaming; and perhaps on the grimmest of all possible days put hand to lethal implement to win it again and forever.

So imaged, love of death is obviously a project for unity. The unity projected diminishes self-differentiation to zero in favor of a seamless continuum of gratification. It also annihilates creativity. The creative thrust carries the self toward suffering, not away from it; and this because it calls for the highest refinements of the powers of awareness and for the highest achievement of freedom. Thus creativity is the most potent challenge to the love of death: it disrupts the unity and peace projected by that love.

In its own way the love of death quarrels as bitterly and ruinously with the primitive goodness of existence as the denial of death. It is a quarrel with life itself, perhaps even with the mysterious source of all being, not the womb but God. The love of death is a projected flight from life and a denial of the goodness of existence and a fatal distrust of the world, near and far, because it contains hurtful things.

Affirmation is the third option relative to death. Death affirmed is death incorporated in its own meaning in a form of Sanctification. This means that man has access to full human existence only through death. His most notable achievements are possible because of his mortality, not in spite of it. The human past is the achievement of persons who died and whose death is not a merely adventitious item in the flux of time: how they died and for what are part of the significant past, they have a reason, a place in a providential scheme. And so also for future time: the future is significant now so far as one is able to project things which will stand the test of death, that is, not whether they will endure forever but whether we can love them with joy though they and we sometime perish from the earth.

The affirmation of death is also the affirmation of the human community, the unity of self with other selves, as providentially ordered to human fulfillment. Such a unity is apprehended and expressed only in the images of hope. Under the conditions of existence in the world this unity is always threatened by conflicts controlled only by *ad hoc* decisions or by exhaustion or outright destruction of the warring factions. Even when peace prevails in the great public world, as among nations, the self is torn between the fear of being subsumed by some other self and the desire itself to be lord over others. Real unity is impossible either in the peace of serfdom or in the peace of lordship. In both conditions death is exalted far above its proper degree: to a slave death is overweeningly tempting as blissful release, or as an instrument of revolution; to a lord death is overweeningly tempting as the supreme instrument for enhancing and preserving power. So real peace is butchered and lunatic imposters reign. But not forever. That is hope. It is great hope only when the great peace is envisaged with love, and the great peace is this: when men no longer have good reason to hate one another as reciprocating causes of human impoverishment, for that by which one is diminished, serves to diminish all.

Such are the way of Providence. (The very word is a curse to those who must live on scraps and refuse and hear the happy few confuse Providence with the luck of the draw.) Human community is indissoluble. It is one in the enjoyment of the primitive goodness of existence, and in guilt and hatred, and in the hope for Sanctification beyond which no relapse into destructive conflict is conceivable.

Providence is inseparable from the idea and the image of election. Increasingly, I think, we must apprehend election to mean the *personal* obligation to realize the human possibility, which is to participate in the humanization of the protohuman creature each man is in the beginning. To be human is to apprehend a good which suffering and death help to define. But they do not help

automatically or instinctively. One must resolve to make something of their brute factuality, for they will not make themselves to be anything but just brute factuality. The powers of imagination; and the powers of love; and the powers of endurance -- forbearance, patience, and hope; all are called for, all can enter the lists to create a human good which is not spoiled or effaced by suffering and death. Indeed such inclusive and maximal effort must be made if human existence is ever to be more than sound and fury with rare intermissions of lucidity, peace, and joy.

Sanctification stands forth, then, as the hope for the full humanization of the human creature. That does not seem too much to hope for. But man is a singular creature. He can be undone by the misfiring of his own purposes. His purposes can misfire because he wrongly envisages the good. He can wrongly envisage the good because he can tell persuasive lies to himself and live with and love even the most violently distorted images of himself as if they were perfect expression of truth. Other creatures have perished because Nature played cruel pranks with climate, food, predators, etc. Man alone has been endowed with the ambiguously valued talent for tricking and lying himself into oblivion.

IX

Why then should we wonder at the preoccupation of the present age with the Image of Man? The stress of crisis, public and private, is much too great and complex to write off this obsession as narcissism. Moreover, the preoccupation with the human image does not seem to be part of a sweeping humanistic revolt, such as the Sophist movement in Hellenic culture in the Fifth Century B.C., or the Renaissance. At the moment we should have the greatest difficulty making out any comparably concerted or lucid attack upon dehumanizing forces in our culture. There are these forces; and they do come under attack; but the attack splutters fitfully and generally lacks unity, depth, and direction.

So the preoccupation with the Image of Man has more wistfulness than fury; as though we could only await passively the next outrage against the human community and hope somehow to survive it.

The wistfulness is produced by the degradation of once normative dogmas and images. Bereft of these one is obliged to choose something from somewhere. In this "freedom" people seem to turn more frequently and more longingly to the arts than to science, religion, or philosophy, hoping there to find the image which they can embrace without nausea.

Shall the blind lead the blind? Has God appointed the artist *per se* to be prophet, priest, judge? Artists search as avidly as any for the really normative images, except where they are content to fall back, nostalgically, upon the finality of the heritage and thereby bend Time into a magic wheel. As we know, the novelist particularly is an interpreter of the human condition. To execute this purpose he needs both a "point of view" -- an angle of vision -- and definitive

images. On the whole he seems to be in the common trouble at this point. Is the present age such poor material as all that? Or is creative imagination under eclipse?

There are many people who write well: they can plot scenes, and manage dialogue, and project character -- especially downward into the Freudian jungle. But they seem not to know what to make of the world; and so the worlds they conjure are meretricious, they fail of humanization. What will eventually appear in this situation to give center for a reorganization of the imagination, and thereafter of the will, I cannot even guess. I am sure that something will: unless we have lost the human possibility forever, there will be a rebirth of images.

Notes:

1 Marcus Dods (trans.), St. Augustine's *The City of God*, xiv. 13 (Modern Library Edition; New York, 1950), 460.

2 *Free Fall* (New York, 1959), 6.

3 *Ibid.*, 192.

4 *Ibid.*, 248.

5 *Ibid.*, 7.

6 Translated by Richard Lattimore, in Lattimore and David Grene (eds.), *The Complete Greek Tragedies* (4 vols.; Chicago, 1959), I, 169.

7 *The Man Who Died* (New York, 1959), 207.