Study Of Arthurian Romances: With Emphasis To Thomas Malory

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ABSTRACT
The expedition on Malory’s Morte d’Arthur emphasis on the masculine activity of chivalry—fighting, questing, ruling—while parallely reflects the chivalric enterprise as impossible in absence of the feminine in a subjugated position. The medieval romance text of Malory differs from other Arthurian romance literature in the explicit legislation (as opposed to implicit coding) of chivalric values, most notably in the swearing of the Pentecostal Oath, an event unique to Malory’s text. This paper emphasis on the way the institution of the Oath defines and sharpens specific ideals of masculine and feminine gender identities in the Arthurian community, arguing that a compulsion to fulfill these ideals drives the narrative of the Morte d’ Arthur forward to its inevitable ending. Thus, the function of gender in the Morte d’Arthur can only be adequately explored in a book that traces in depth the development of gender constraints from the beginning of the “Tale of King Arthur” to the “Day of Destiny” and its aftermath. One reason the Morte d’Arthur merits a sustained study in terms of gender is due to its status as the most comprehensive and sustained medieval treatment of the Arthurian legend by a single author. This text is about the famous fiction stories about legendary King Arthur, his life and death predominantly compose the spine of Malory’s tale. There are, as well, other passages and tales, in which Arthur is not in the centre of the plot. Stories were translated by Malory from French models, reflects the major branch of author’s all sources. most famous fiction stories about legendary King Arthur, whose life and death predominantly compose the spine of Malory’s tale. There are, as well, other passages and tales, in which Arthur is not in the centre of the plot.

KEYWORDS: Thomas Malory, Feminine, Medieval, Men, Women
I INTRODUCTION

In medieval romance women is shown as the symbol of sex more prone to such emotional outbursts than men, men also express powerful emotions—grief, sadness, melancholy, anger, despair, patience, and joy—in early modern poetry, prose, and plays. The influence of the cultural shift in the English aristocracy on the emotional registers of all types of men in early modern literature. Although a number of literary critics rightly note that women are often imagined as anxiety-producing, contaminating, or debilitating for men during this period, I demonstrate that those men who ally themselves with women by adopting conventionally feminine forms of expression such as weeping and wailing are often strengthened rather than weakened as a result. Gender tends to shape and limit the ways in which both sexes display a variety of emotions in early modern texts representative of different literary genres. Men sometimes express emotions moderately by the violent action. Women frequently grieve by weeping and wailing and traditionally perform the cultural work of mourning. Nevertheless, early modern writers also feature those who redefine customary rhetoric about how men and women tend to display a range of emotions. As we might expect, these writers do not necessarily depict men as the more rational and less emotional sex. A number of the male figures I discuss in this study are prone to excessive demonstrations of emotion and even hysteria. A number of literary critics, historians, and early modern writers discuss how class, ethnic background, and age shape literary and cultural expectations for the emotional expressiveness of men and women. Nevertheless, early modern men and women in a variety of literary genres often counter or transgress all kinds of limitations placed on how others expect them to express emotion. Paradoxically, focusing on the subject of masculinity and emotion is a feminist project. Like women’s studies, men’s studies as a complementary field of inquiry often exhibits feminist goals and aims by resisting the oppression that results from what Clare A. Lees describes as rigid “classifications of male and female.” A number of literary figures central in my study actively court gender confusion or are noticeably androgynous. Although recent theories of gender have focused on both men and women, they tend to underemphasize issues of history and agency. By reducing historical reality to language, and agency to discourse, they overlook cultural material issues of class, physiology, and anatomy that influence the gendering of the emotions and the body, which is matter not reducible to words. The pronounced cultural shift in the English aristocracy from a class of
violent warriors to more civilized courtiers or gentlemen with comparatively little military experience gradually transformed literary standards of manhood in the Renaissance. A bloody or scarred body was no longer the predominant sign of a man in a variety of genres. Although we customarily imagine medieval and Renaissance men in heroic, militaristic terms, I focus on the fictive lives of emotionally expressive figures who occupy private, interior settings as well as the battlefield.

In the Middle Ages, Arthur and his knights were thought to be part of history. Chronicles such as Y Gododdin (7th century), Annales Cambriae (970), Life of St. Cadoc (c 1130), Black Book of Carmarthen (c 1250), The Book of Taliesin (14th century) which includes “The Spoils of Annwn”, a version of the Grail quest, and “Red Book of Hergest” (14th century) were believed to support the historicity of this legendary community. However, with the romance tradition, King Arthur and his knights lost their status as historical figures and became literary and legendary ones.

In the 12th century, Chretien de Troyes composed the earliest surviving Arthurian romances and this romance tradition was vastly different from the chronicle tradition of the earlier times. In the chronicle tradition Arthur is the central hero, a warlike leader whereas in the romance tradition he becomes a marginal figurehead, who is only an observer for the adventures of his knights whose adventures in love and chivalry is in the foreground (Putter and Archibald 4-5). Soon the legend of Arthur was one of the most important themes in literature during the late Middle Ages, along with the Trojan material and Charlemagne’s deeds. The reason why the Arthurian legend was more popular than the other major narratives can be attributed to “the extraordinary flexibility and infinite expandability of the story” as the other narratives are more restricted in their subject matters, either focusing on a single hero, like Alexander, or on a short span of a hero’s life, like Robin Hood, or on an established collection of locations and characters, like the Trojan story, or on historical context, like Charlemagne. But this was not the case with the Arthurian story. As the legend developed and the romance tradition replaced the chronicle tradition, the focus of the story shifted from the king to his knights and that provided diversity within the legend. Another factor which helped the legend to maintain its popularity is its intertextuality. Nearly all Arthurian writers draw on earlier sources, making some changes in their sources and sometimes introducing major developments like Lancelot’s love for Guinevere or the Grail quest. This was what Malory did in his own version of the legend. He used many
sources from different time periods and languages like the Post-Vulgate Suite du Merlin, the
Alliterative Morte Arthure, the Prose Lancelot, the French Vulgate and the Prose Tristan, the
Vulgate La Queste del Saint Graal, 13th century Vulgate Mort Artu, and the Stanzaic Morte
Arthur. Malory uses and transform these sources to suit his needs. “Working from his French
sources, Malory extracted from the interlaced stories a single, or occasionally a double, narrative
thread and recounted it apart from others”

Malory’s Le Morte Darthur is the only medieval work attempting to tell the whole Arthurian
story. Before Malory, no other writer tried to put the exceptionally diverse material in order.
Works written on the Arthurian legend, mainly dealt with only a part of the material whereas
Malory tried to create harmony out of what appeared to be chaos. He is generally acclaimed for
having brought clarity and coherence to an extended sum of material which was borrowed from
the French and it is commonly accepted that his work, Le Morte Darthur, as Windeatt puts it, is
“the dominating achievement of the fifteenth-century English Arthurian literature” . This work
can be regarded as the result of Malory’s perception that there might be a unity that made sense
of Arthur and the world of the Round Table as a whole and the outcome of this belief is an
‘Arthuriad’ in English, which covers all of the significant aspects of King Arthur’s life and reign
and the history of the Round Table fellowship .

Mathews laid arguments considering, apart from the one of the author’s age, mainly the question
of Malory’s access to French sources of the Morte D’Arthur. In his book The Ill-Framed Knight,
Matthews gives proof of Thomas Malory of Hutton being a prisoner in France after he had been
captured near Bordeaux. There he is thought to elaborate the masterpiece of English Medieval
literature. Considering, however, that there was only a little chance for any English library to
have all the French romances that Malory used, McCarthy argues that the probability of any
Continental library having a single romance in English, especially any of Welsh poems, is even
lower.

II THE AUTHENTICITY OF ARTHURIAN ROMANCES:

Although the Arthurian romances is being read from ages and its popularity is really yet the
identity is still not sanguine . Subject to many researches elaborated mainly in the nineteenth and
the twentieth century, “Thomas Malory” was discovered to be a name used by several men who
were alive in 1469/1470, the time of elaboration of the Morte D’Arthur. However, none of these men can be rightly ascribed the authorship of the book, since there is no reliable evidence available that can give a clear proof that any of the “candidates” may have been the right one. This bold proposal builds on evidence provided in a trusted historical document such as Dugdale’s was universally & warmly accepted in the scientific circles and thus made the only correct one. Thomas Malory of Maelor is an exceptionally tenacious ghost created by John Bale” and unexpected invention of him had been grounded on a fallacious conclusion that the name Malory was derived from the place-name Maelor and that Malory therefore came from that place”, may for the above stated reason be excluded. The third person considered, Thomas Malory of Papworth St Agnes, however, cannot be completely excluded, as his consideration ensues from the same examinations on the basis of which the acceptance of the Newbold Revel candidate does. The reasons for omitting him lay in his failure to ever be imprisoned and his rank of esquire, which does not agree with author’s mentioning of his social status in the Morte D’Arthur, as he there calls himself the “knight prisoner” several times.

Considering all the allegations against Thomas Malory of Newbold Revel, few may be seen as such manoeuvring. The attempted assassination of Humphrey Stafford, the Duke of Buckingham, of which Malory was accused by him, a good way to get quit of Stafford’s local and parliamentary political opponent’s partisan. As Lander says, the Duke of Buckingham, the lord of Staffordshire, was interested to gain influence and increase power in the neighbouring shire governed by his fierce rival Richard Neville, who had just inherited Warwickshire after Henry Bauchamp’s death via marriage with his sister. Argument over the dominancy in the county and the political situation in late 1440s may have served well for creation of fertile soil for such a kind of “unfair game” among the two magnates and all other members of the local gentry, which was included by Malory. Nevertheless, according to Field, this assumption is highly inconsistent with the fact that the Duke of Buckingham was Malory’s patron by that time and it was him chiefly who had assisted Malory in becoming a member of the parliament just a few months before the said ambush. Thus, lacking any proof or even any sense of logic, the theory that Buckingham blame Malory unjustly from whatever political reason is entirely forceless. There are others, as DiPasquale says, who do not deny Malory’s commitment of the said crimes, for much was written on the account of Sir Thomas Malory’s criminal activity to be
it possible for his case not to be at least partly true. However, as DiPasquale continues, they claim that his actions were not wicked necessarily, as the conditions at the time asked for acting in such a manner. It is apparent from the documentation published by Field that the neighbour who indicted Thomas Malory had a long lasting quarrel over property and local domination and had stolen much from the Malory family during previous decades. Knowing this fact, it is now easier to understand Malory’s incentives for doing of what he was condemned and, to certain extent, it partly purifies him of the villainous label, he was assigned by Matthews. Another objection raised by Matthews is also connected to the politics, for it concerns Newbold Revel Malory’s political allegiance with the house of York.

According to Matthews, Thomas Malory of Newbold Revel was in close association with Yorkists but the author of Morte D’Arthur in his book, appears to favour Lancastrians. Considering Professor Matthews’ statement, Field elucidates in his book that the Newbold Revel Malory was rather than in affinity of York in close relation with Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, who was still Yorkist in the beginning of the decade of 1460s but later became supporter of Lancastrians which may be and most likely is the reason for Matthews’ conclusion. The third and most serious finding of Matthews’s investigation is Malory’s age. Only after a thorough scrutiny of contemporary state records, it was found out that Dugdale described completely a different Thomas Malory, not the one of Newbold Revel.

Field supports this allegation with his findings, as a result of which he claims that Dugdale overlooked several important facts while compiling his work including his own confusion of the name Thomas Malory at two places in his book, which Field proves by giving substantial evidence in a form of a voluminous list of ancestors of both, Thomas Malory of Newbold Revel and his “opponent,” to cast clearance into this case. Nevertheless, not having been acknowledged of Dugdale’s identification being troubled with concerns described, Matthews arrived with entirely a revolutionary idea for the then scholarly world.

III CONCLUSION
The literary texts from the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries were created during a time of heightened emphasis on the role of the emotions in shaping selves and communities. In the years after the Black Death, England witnessed significant demographic shifts and economic volatility that resulted in dramatic transformations in the nation’s social landscape. Peasant rebellion, labor shortages, migrant clergy, and an influx of foreign merchants radically altered the structure of English society during these years. As a result, the institutions and ideologies that defined English masculine identity began changing in ways not seen before. Poets not surprisingly turned to the lexicon of emotion to negotiate these disruptions; in so doing, they offered English men new ways of understanding themselves in the face of rapid cultural change. This paper examine a range of Middle English poems—the Alliterative Morte Arthure, St. Erkenwald, Chaucer’s Reeve’s Tale, and Lydgate’s Bycorne and Chychevache—that illuminate particular emotions (anger, compassion, grief, and sorrow) and their significance to codes of masculinity. Middle English poets recognized the transformative potential inherent in the lexicon of emotion and used it to reshape their audiences’ understanding of critical cultural problems. The years from the 1350s to the 1450s were important not only in the emerging tradition of poetry in English, but also for the development of the language and psychology of emotion. As poets tried to come to terms with great social changes, they molded and manipulated the discourse of emotion to interrogate what it meant to be a man in late medieval England. Affective Communities reveals the importance of emotions as markers of gender and community and shows literature’s role in responding to and imagining social change. This paper also showed and thus I have concluded that some of the experiences of the author include the ideas he had collected from his encounter with real life events laid into Morte D’Arthur. So the ideas of masculinity and its reflection in Morte D’Arthur lay a sort of gender issues relevant in Morte D’Arthur. The reflection of the physical and spiritual integrity is of crucial significance in maximizing masculinity it also marked “fleshy lusts”. Although, it is expected to be the reflection of the then society and culture in Malory’s Morte D’Arthur. Moreover, this contribution asks whether gender identity should not be seen as a potentially unstable, contradictory, and evolving cultural product akin to literature, whose medium, language, and chief “mode of operation”, that is, narration, it shares. The article also contends that in literary texts, we find both, self- as well as externally-determined or enforced configurations of masculinity as well as the very mechanisms of their production or enforcement.
REFERENCES:


2. Mary Hamel, ed., *Morte Arthure: A Critical Edition* (New York: Garland, 1984), 256. Hamel describes the senator’s message as “carefully legalistic” and that it has the flavor of an official summons to the “rebellious vassal to appear in his overlord’s court to answer for his offenses against the feudal contract entered into by his father”


4. Lees, “Introduction in Medieval Masculinities”, xv-xxv, xv-xvi


