A COMPANION TO

CHAUCER

EDITED BY PETER BROWN

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A Companion to Chaucer

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Canterbury January 2000

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Abbreviations of Chaucer's Works

Anel Anelida and Arcite

Astr A Treatise on the Astrolabe

BD Book of the Duchess

Bo Boece

CkP Cook's Prologue
CkT Cook's Tale
ClP Clerk's Prologue
ClT Clerk's Tale

CYP Canon's Yeoman's Prologue CYT Canon's Yeoman's Tale

For Fortune

FranT Franklin's Tale
FrP Friar's Prologue
FrT Friar's Tale
GP General Prologue
HF House of Fame
KnT Knight's Tale

LGW Legend of Good Women

LGWP Prologue to the Legend of Good Women

ManP Manciple's Prologue
ManT Manciple's Tale
MerT Merchant's Tale
MilP Miller's Prologue
MilT Miller's Tale
MkP Monk's Prologue
MkT Monk's Tale

MLE Epilogue to the Man of Law's Tale
MLI Introduction to the Man of Law's Tale

Abbreviations xvii

MLT	Man of Law's Tale
NPP	Nun's Priest's Prologue
NPT	Nun's Priest's Tale

PardI Introduction to the Pardoner's Tale

PardP Pardoner's Prologue
PardT Pardoner's Tale
ParsP Parson's Prologue
ParsT Parson's Tale
PF Parliament of Fowls

Purse Complaint of Chaucer to His Purse

Ret Chaucer's Retraction

Rom Romaunt of the Rose

RvP Reeve's Prologue

RvT Reeve's Tale

ShT Shipman's Tale

SNP Second Nun's Prologue SNT Second Nun's Tale

SqT Squire's Tale

SumP Summoner's Prologue
SumT Summoner's Tale
TC Troilus and Criseyde
Th Tale of Sir Thopas

ThP Prologue to the Tale of Sir Thopas

Ven Complaint of Venus WBP Wife of Bath's Prologue WBT Wife of Bath's Tale

The Idea of a Chaucer Companion

Peter Brown

From his own reading, Chaucer was familiar with the notion of an authoritative companion providing direction to an individual otherwise lost and uncomprehending. In the *Somnium Scipionis*, which was, together with its commentary by Macrobius, a model for the *House of Fame*, Scipio's grandfather, Africanus, assumes the role of interlocutor. He appears within a dream to explain, from the vantage-point of the starry heavens, the political future of Carthage, Scipio's destiny as its conqueror and the insignificance of human ambition. The *Divine Comedy*, which influenced Chaucer throughout his writing career, shows how Virgil leads Dante through hell and purgatory, explaining the twists and turns of divine justice, keeping Dante to the path and gradually effecting his enlightenment. Appearing in a work Chaucer translated, the *Consolation of Philosophy*, Lady Philosophy uses scholastic discourse and force of logic to reason Boethius out of an abject acceptance of his state of imprisonment, and into a frame of mind in which an existential freedom becomes possible.

All three companions are the best imaginable, and yet they have considerable disadvantages and limitations. None is real, but instead a figment of a dream vision or an other-worldly experience. All of them emerge uninvited and unannounced (however welcome their arrival) to intrude on the narrator's consciousness and cause considerable mental and emotional disturbance. Even their beneficial effects can be felt for only so long: Africanus disappears with Scipio's dream; Virgil cannot enter paradise and must cede his place to Beatrice, leaving Dante momentarily bereft; and Philosophy can help Boethius only in so far as he is prepared to accept the harsh truth of her arguments. The point in each case is that the subject who benefits from a learned and didactic companion must at some point achieve an independence and intellectual growth that render the continued services of the companion otiose. The companion is not a substitute for personal knowledge, but a means whereby it is accessed, communicated, absorbed, internalized, applied.

In his own writing, Chaucer explored the limitations of companions yet further, expressing deep scepticism and ambivalence about their usefulness – a reflection of

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his complex negotiations with authority more generally, in both its written and social forms. Thus the Book of the Duchess, his first major work, omits a conventional companion or guide altogether, to focus instead on three figures (the dreamer, Alcyone, the man in black) tormented by mental states for which there is no obvious or immediate relief. Here, the work of companionable guide or therapist is displaced, by way of a distinctly unauthoritative narrator, to the reader, who must perforce make connections between the three figures according to the clues that Chaucer has left, and thereby devise knowledgeable explanations of the predicaments that face them. When Chaucer does introduce a more traditional companion into another of his dream visions, the House of Fame, it is not as a person but as an eagle. Although effective in securing the rescue of a lost and disoriented narrator, this companion is garrulous, exults in knowledge for its own sake, and is over-helpful on matters which, though they might be of great academic interest, are not of immediate concern to 'Geffrey' as he dangles, terrified, in the bird's claws. In other genres, too, companions are revealed as ridiculous, ineffectual, or both. The authority of Harry Bailly, selfappointed major-domo of the Canterbury pilgrims, is undermined on numerous occasions, notably by the Miller and Pardoner. The loquacious Pandarus, companion to Troilus, is silenced once the shallowness of his advice is exposed.¹

It is to be hoped that the present book avoids some of the worst shortcomings of Chaucer's fictive companions. Nevertheless, it acknowledges the force of his misgivings about them. It does not seek to intrude as a declamatory 'last word' on any of the topics it covers, but rather to provide stimulating advice and guidance; to identify the terms of current debates, exploring their ramifications and applications; to demonstrate how, in practice, particular ideas and theories affect the interpretation of Chaucer's texts; and to suggest further routes of enquiry. In the manner both of the literary companions Chaucer read about and of the ones he created, it insists on strenuous engagement with the writings and ideas it discusses, offering its users models of approach and encouraging them to achieve independence of thought as rapidly as possible.

Students All

For all their best attempts to open up and make available the cultural contexts of medieval literature, books such as this can seem to intimidate by the very wealth of expertise on display. But it is as well to bear in mind that, whether the user be a professional academic steeped in specialist lore, a teacher in a college or school, a graduate researching a thesis, or an undergraduate or sixth-former working on an essay, we are all students and, the further advanced, the more aware of what we do not know. The present volume has been compiled with all such students of Chaucer in mind. It contains enough original research and new syntheses to interest long-established scholars. At the same time it provides accessible coverage of key contexts for those less well acquainted with Chaucer studies.

What can such students of Chaucer expect the Companion to provide? It is predicated on the reasonable assumption that the experience of reading Chaucer's works prompts numerous questions about the circumstances in which he lived and worked, and about the effects of those circumstances on what he wrote and how we now understand it. So each chapter strikes a balance between textual analysis and cultural context; but the kind of context varies. Some chapters stay within a literary frame of reference, exploring the genres or modes (such as comedy) available to Chaucer, or placing him in relation to other authors writing at the time, or discussing the production and circulation of texts in a manuscript culture, or emphasizing the importance of translation, or narrative, within late medieval literary practice, or looking at his linguistic or stylistic situation. Another, related, group of chapters covers broader cultural topics in order to account for some of the factors that sustained and conditioned him as a writer, such as structures of literary authority; kinds of social organization and their ethical principles, including those of chivalry; the range of audiences for which Chaucer wrote; and the political nature of London and the court, considered as literary milieux.

The largest group of chapters takes as its general area of interest the recovery of those medieval structures of thought, feeling and imagination, now lost or half-buried, that are subtly and sometimes radically different from our own, and that formed Chaucer's operating assumptions. Religious ideology in all its manifestations – including pilgrimage and Lollardy – is important here. But there are other explanatory systems, with which Christianity had an uneasy relationship, on which Chaucer draws extensively: those of faery, for example, or of the pagan world, or of astrology – the last of these underpinning accounts of the human body and of scientific procedures. One of the notable features of all of these systems is that they crossed cultural boundaries: they were not the quaint beliefs of a small society, but the general inheritance of the Latin West. Quite how wide Chaucer's cultural perspectives were is clear from underlying concepts of geography and travel, and from his own life history, especially his extensive first-hand experience of France and Italy.

Of course, narrative poetry — what Chaucer mainly wrote — is not cultural history but a multi-faceted account of individuals living within particular (if imagined) times and places. Thus it is that a further group of chapters draws attention to other expressions of social practice, including games, love, visualizing, concepts of personal identity and, in relation to these, the different aptitudes and sensibilities of men and women. Whether the student's curiosity focuses on language, Christianity, eroticism, astrology, concepts of the self, pilgrimage, violence, heresy, London, Europe or any of a host of other topics, this book will provide food for thought, and extend horizons.

Designs on Chaucer

Determining the structure of the *Companion*, and of the individual chapters, was no easy matter. Initially, my thoughts were much helped by existing guides and

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companions to Chaucer's works, and it seemed sensible to organize the book according to Chaucer's individual compositions, partitioning the whole according to the customary tripartite schema: *Canterbury Tales*; *Troilus and Criseyde*; dream visions and minor poems.² To do so would have ensured a broad coverage of Chaucer's works, but it risked alienating users with an over-familiar approach, and it would have entailed ungainly repetition of key topics. 'Love', for example, or 'chivalry' might legitimately have been discussed in relation to a number of different Chaucerian texts. On reflection it seemed better, more exciting, to foreground issues and themes rather than named texts. The result is a novel and intriguing division of content that allows for and encourages movement across different compositions, and beyond literary frames of reference. To avoid the problem of repetition in the discussion of texts, contributors were asked to nominate, from the entire range of Chaucer's works, three passages which they would be prepared to discuss in detail in relation to the chapter title. Clashing choices were thereby identified early and renegotiated, ensuring a properly varied coverage.

Arriving at a satisfactory list of chapter titles caused more headaches. The first step was to draft a comprehensive list of all those topics on which a reader of Chaucer might require discussion. Adding items to the list became a kind of parlour game played with colleagues, students and, on one occasion, a casual acquaintance on a railway journey from London to Canterbury. The opening gambit was: 'If you were reading this or that work by Chaucer, what would you need to know more about in order to make better sense of what he wrote?' The outcome was a list of well over one hundred items. Some had natural affinities with others; some were more difficult to group. Eventually, through a process of trial, error and re-sorting, the categories emerged that now form the chapter titles. Thus 'community, church, estates, fellowship' were subsumed by the chapter on 'Social Structures', while 'faery, dreams, folklore' appear under 'Other Thought-worlds'. However, the titles are not mere flags of convenience; on the contrary, they are viable terms of analysis, rooted in current discussions about the nature and meaning of Chaucer's literary output. As authors have developed their arguments, certain topics have been stressed at the expense of others, but it has seemed more important to promote vigorous argument rather than to attempt an unattainable ideal of complete coverage.

Armed with my highly condensed prospectus, I began to think of how best to engage appropriate contributors – ones who would respond in authoritative but flexible and sympathetic ways to the aims of the volume. In this I was much helped by well-placed colleagues in England and the United States, who put forward recommendations that otherwise, through my own ignorance, would not have arisen. By this means the book has acquired a very strong field of essayists from Europe and North America. Since many of the topics offered to them have been a little out of the ordinary, either in content or scope, there is little in the *Companion to Chaucer* that can be read as a routine treatment of a standard subject. There is much here that is fresh and invigorating, and that makes new and significant contributions to matters of concern among students of Chaucer.

Each contributor has produced an original essay that conforms to certain criteria designed to both ground and challenge the reader of Chaucer: an account of existing scholarship in a given area; a discussion of the key issues; an application of those issues to specific passages from Chaucer's works; and an annotated bibliography of some twenty items for reference and further reading. Every chapter subdivides into a number of distinct sections, and each section is signposted (as in this introduction) so that a user is directed quickly to the pages that are most relevant to a particular area of interest. Where the material covered by one contributor relates to that covered by another, cross-references are given at the end of the chapter. As such features indicate, the Companion repays browsing. And, just as it does not privilege one kind of user over another, so it attempts to secure a broad equality of treatment for the different chapter topics by placing them within that most levelling of classifications, the alphabet. Alternatively, a student focused on a particular topic, or a specific composition by Chaucer, can turn to the index to discover where to find useful discussions. All line references are to the Riverside Chaucer, cited in the Acknowledgements above (p. xv).

'I make for myself a picture of great detail'

The analogy urged earlier between Chaucer's fictive companions and this volume cannot be pressed too far. Chaucer and his works have themselves become the terrain – difficult and delightful in turn – in need of a mentored map. Nor, in this *Companion* at least, does any one contributor attempt to provide an *ex cathedra* reading of all the contours and features that constitute 'Chaucer' in the manner of an Africanus, a Virgil or a Lady Philosophy. Instead, various individuals, 'ful nine and twenty in a compaignye', offer their considered opinions. As in the case of Chaucer's Canterbury pilgrims, there are competing points of view, potential clashes of temperament and ideological differences – all of which increase the need and opportunity for informed and lively debate.

If there is a concept, lying deeper than the idea of a companion, that articulates the kind of essay found in this book, as well as the experience of compiling it, then it might be caught in the words of the subheading above, used by Milman Parry to describe the process of trying to understand Homeric poetry in its historical context.³ At first glance the statement seems to reflect a straightforward concept of the literary historian as archaeologist, perhaps as restorer of a shattered mural, deferential to the inheritance of the past, dedicated to the accumulation of more and more fragments of evidence, and working with the aim of producing an intricate, objective account of a remote society and the place within it of a literary artefact.

But implicit in Parry's words are ideas that suggest a more complex model of enquiry. In the first place, the undertaking is highly reflexive, with a strong personal dimension. The relationship between past and present is effected by means of a subjective agent, 'I... myself', who contributes an individuated slant to the evaluation

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of empirical data. Then again, the enquirer's characteristic activity is fabrication, an act of making, an essentially artificial reinvention of the past from the available information. Finally, that reconstruction is itself a representation, a 'picture' betraying the hand of its maker, but also incorporating selection, foregrounding, emphasis and all the other artistic techniques that contribute to a convincing and effective portrayal.

Once made, the picture becomes the focus of the literary historian's interest, replacing the original object of enquiry, while at the same time providing an analytical frame in which to examine further configurations of text and context. Nor is the scrutiny only in one direction. The relationship between past and present is that of a dialogue whereby the modern enquirer asks questions of and through a carefully made picture only to find – disconcertingly – that the picture itself interrogates the very basis of her or his own presumptions. In the case of Chaucer, the exploration of half-forgotten belief systems, and the realization that they were valid working premises in a poetry that had wide appeal, alerts us to the relativity of our own assumptions and credos. As the next chapter shows, his reputation has changed its nature quite drastically as successive generations of readers have discovered in his writings features that have responded to their own cultural preoccupations.

Chaucer Stellified

This Companion is nothing if not an historical exercise, and an attentive user should take away an enlarged sense of the circumstances in which Chaucer wrote, of the literary possibilities open to him, of the extent to which he was actively engaged with many of the political and religious issues that beset his society. But as well as making Chaucer the occasion for cultural explorations of the past, it also highlights the extent to which what Chaucer wrote is itself a precious record of the thoughts and feelings that constituted human experience as he knew it. That record deserves our continuing respect, intellectual interest and enthusiasm because it is exceptionally rich, complex and innovative. Capable of sparking flashes of sympathy and recognition across six centuries, of being remarkably present to our reading consciousness, it is nevertheless the record of a culture only half familiar. The other half is alien, a foreign country, and all the more intriguing for that. This book will act as a Baedeker to its deeper exploration, and perhaps enable some to become explorers in their own right.

We should not imagine that relationship in linear terms, with Chaucer's works receding further and further into the past. On the contrary, thanks to the endeavours of all kinds of students, our familiarity with and understanding of what Chaucer wrote makes him seem closer than ever. As it happens, the year 2000 encourages us to celebrate Chaucer as a star in the literary firmament, and he would have enjoyed the compliment. Aware of the possibilities, as well as the pitfalls, of enduring literary fame, he imagined somewhat apprehensively (as that same companionable eagle bore 'Geffrey' aloft) what it might be like to be 'stellified' among the gods (*HF* 584–93).

Taking a cue from this conceit, the trajectory of our relationship with Chaucer might be that of an elliptical orbit, its shape governed by the alternating gravity and levity of his writings. As we move first towards him, then further away, now closer, now more distant, we glimpse features of his writings from new and often startling angles. The coincidence of the millennial year with the 600th anniversary of Chaucer's death prompts the hope that this exhilarating parallax will continue to provoke surprise, delight, and curiosity both in medieval Chaucer and in our postmodern selves. This book is intended to aid and sustain that process.

Notes

- Cf. Peter Brown, Chaucer at Work: The Making of the Canterbury Tales (London and New York: Longman, 1994), 6–8.
- 2 As in the three Oxford Guides to Chaucer (Oxford: Clarendon), written by Helen Cooper (The Canterbury Tales, 1989), Barry Windeatt (Troilus and Criseyde, 1992) and Alastair Minnis (The Shorter Poems, 1995). As examples of earlier guide-companions, see The Cambridge Chaucer Companion, ed. Piero Boitani and Jill Mann (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986) and Beryl Rowland, ed., Compan-
- ion to Chaucer Studies, rev. edn (New York: Oxford University Press, 1978).
- Milman Parry, "The historical method in literary criticism", Harvard Alumni Bulletin 38 (1936), 778–82 (p. 780), repr. in The Making of Homeric Verse: The Collected Papers of Milman Parry, ed. Adam Parry (Oxford: Clarendon, 1971), 408–13 (p. 411).
- 4 See the introduction to *Chaucer: The* Canterbury Tales, ed. Steve Ellis, Longman Critical Readers (London and New York: Longman, 1998), 1–22.

1 **Afterlife**Carolyn Collette

Chaucer's afterlife constitutes a reputation virtually unique in the history of English literature. More than any other English writer, Chaucer has been constructed and deconstructed by successive generations of his readers. Beginning in the fifteenth century with a group of writers who felt themselves either directly connected to him through acquaintance, as did Thomas Hoccleve, or spiritually connected to him through admiration and literary aspiration, as did John Lydgate and the Scottish Chaucerians, Chaucer's reputation as an author has been founded in, but also quite separated from, his work. In reading the multiple volumes of allusions to Chaucer in the six hundred years since his death, one sees his reputation flourish and diminish. Within this pattern of change one fixed point stands out: Chaucer the man – his learning, temperament, disposition – is as much a centre of allusion and critical discussion as his works. Michel Foucault notwithstanding, the record shows that Chaucer the man has been central to the idea of Chaucer the author.

Thanks in large measure to the work of Martin Crow and Claire Olson in editing the *Chaucer Life-records* (1966), the outlines of Chaucer's life are now apparently clear: we know somewhat of where he travelled and when, what offices he held, whom he served; yet until very recently these facts, as well as the real substance of his life – his passions, hopes and fears – were unknown. As a result, over the centuries he has served as a useful cipher on to whom critics and editors could project their own ideas of what he must have thought, felt and been like, depending on the cultural circumstances in which they wrote. All this has made for a rather lively afterlife for this fourteenth-century writer of whose inner life we know for certain very little beyond the fact that it created a literary genius of the highest order .

Caroline Spurgeon's Five Hundred Years of Chaucer Criticism and Allusion, 1357–1900 and Derek Brewer's later work, Chaucer: The Critical Heritage, both contain an extensive range of allusion, citation and reference, drawn largely from the comments

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Figure 1.1 The 'Hoccleve Portrait' of Chaucer. From the *Regement of Princes* by Thomas Hoccleve. London, British Library, MS Harley 4866, fo. 88 (1411–12). [By permission of the British Library.]

of writers and essayists. In addition, both scholars have contributed important summaries of the ebb and flow of Chaucer's reputation, Spurgeon in the extensive analytical introduction in the first volume of her three-volume work, and Brewer most notably in 'Images of Chaucer, 1386-1900'. Their research demonstrates that, for most of the time between the fifteenth century and the twentieth, Chaucer's literary reputation, the sense of what kind of a writer he was, sprang from a sense of who he was as a person - how he thought, what he knew, what he believed, how he was shaped by the age in which he lived. The fifteenth, sixteenth and nineteenth centuries are particularly rich periods for considering the phenomenon of high interest in Chaucer the man. Although each period produced a criticism distinctly related to its own peculiar historical circumstances, all three periods constructed Chaucer similarly as a figure of unusual intellectual virtu; in all three periods the record of allusions shows he appeared as a benign yet essentially distant figure of power and learning who showed a way to a better England. In many respects the early fifteenth-century Hoccleve portrait (figure 1.1) represents the continuity at the centre of the idea of Chaucer over time: a seemingly gentle and wise man, adorned with symbols of his craft and art, points towards something invisible to us, but visible to him as he focuses his eyes on the lower middle distance, on a plane we cannot access.

The Fifteenth-century Chaucer

The fifteenth-century Chaucer, as Seth Lerer and A. C. Spearing have argued, is a father figure to writers who see in him both the patriarch of their craft and, as Spearing argues, the source of their anxiety: 'The son wishes to inherit the authority of a father who has denied that any such inheritance is possible and has in any case ended his own fatherhood . . . As father, he made possible their very existence as English poets, yet, as his successors, they inevitably came too late' (Pinti 1998: 160). Lerer goes even further, asserting that Chaucer's fatherhood renders readers as well as writers childlike; he discusses 'the ways in which Chaucer's authority subjects his readers, subjugating them into childhood or incompetence' (Lerer 1993: 5).

But the records Spurgeon and Brewer have amassed reveal an even more complicated dimension to the fifteenth-century idea of Chaucer. At the same time that he is termed 'father' to the writers who followed him, he is also constructed as a benefactor to a larger posterity: all those who speak the English language. He is pictured as simultaneously writing within and standing outside of the language he used. In an image that several Renaissance critics later recall, John Lydgate in his Fall of Princes terms Chaucer the lodestar of English: 'Whom al this land sholde off right preferre, / Sithe off our language he was the lodesterre' (Brewer 1978: i, 52). Chaucer serves as a guide, a fixed point by which to navigate the possibilities of expression, a figure both dominating and yet external to the world of fifteenth-century poetry. From that vantage point he is able to exert his beneficent influence over the common tongue. The anonymous author of a Book of Curtesye, c. 1477, suggests the same distant quality through a rich agricultural metaphor. He terms Chaucer and John Gower 'faders auncyente' who 'Repen the feldes fresshe of fulsomnes / The flours fresh they gadred vp & hente / Of siluer langage / the grete riches'. The metaphor of reaping a harvest implies the plenty of Chaucer's verbal imagination: he is the farmer who sows language and reaps a harvest of rhetoric. In contrast, the current generation of writers, coming after, must 'begge' the 'grete riches' of 'siluer langage' from them. But, at the same time that the writer acknowledges that Chaucer and Gower have dominated literary language, he also implies an important gift inherent in that dominance when he says, 'For of our tunge they were both lok & kaye.' This statement of despair about the father figure who pre-empts the opportunities of his literary heirs, barring their way to independence and innovation by the lock of his prevenient genius, also asserts Chaucer's gift to the speakers of 'oure tunge', for whom he provides the key of expression (Brewer 1978: i, 73).

In this period Chaucer is repeatedly figured as the poet of new beginnings, of potency and life. In *The Life of Our Lady*, Lydgate describes Chaucer as the one who first made 'to distille and rayne / The golde dewe dropes of speche and eloquence / Into our tunge, thurgh his excellence / And fonde the floures, firste of Retoryke, / Our Rude speche, only to enluymyne' (Brewer 1978: i, 46). For Lydgate, Chaucer is the

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father who has generated a new spring of linguistic possibility. William Caxton repeats this theme of potency and fertility in his epilogue to Chaucer's translation of Boethius, where he implies that Chaucer's fatherhood is realized by his relationship to the 'moder tonge': 'Therfore the worshipful fader & first foundeur & enbelissher of ornate eloquence in our englissh. I mene / Maister Geffrey Chaucer hath translated this sayd werke oute of latyn in to oure vsual and moder tonge' (Brewer 1978: i, 75). The result of this translation is aureate diction and 'ornate wrytyng' (76) located in the substance and power of his pithy style: 'For he wrytteth no voyde wordes / but alle hys mater is ful of hye and quycke sentence' (75).

The opinion that Chaucer's genius was realized in his ability to transform English appears frequently, as in this translated couplet from his fifteenth-century epitaph: 'By the verses [that he composed] in his [British] mother tongue he made it [as] illustrious as, alas, it had once been uncouth' (Brewer 1978: i, 79), as well as in John Shirley's 'Prologue to the Knight's Tale', c.1456: 'be laureal and moste famous poete bat euer was to-fore him as in bemvellishing of oure rude moders englisshe tonge, clepid Chaucyer' (Spurgeon 1925: i, 54). Praise of Chaucer the author is thus praise of the man who was able to generate a literary language out of a previously unauthorized mother tongue. In this light the language of fifteenth-century allusions to Chaucer as a poet of the 'fresshe' and 'newe' is a language of fertility and generation, of the 'floure of Retoryke', generated by a father who may indeed have left his literary heirs crippled, but whose genius at the same time empowered all his other heirs, by showing them how to unlock the riches of their common tongue.

The Renaissance Chaucer

In the sixteenth century Chaucer's reputation as a master of literary expression slipped out of focus; as his language began to seem more and more distant, his achievement dimmed. Sir Philip Sidney seems to sum up the tenor of this vein of criticism when he praises the Troilus, but concludes, 'Yet had he great wants, fitte to be forgiuen, in so reuerent antiquity' (Spurgeon 1925: i, 122). At the same time that praise for Chaucer as a father of English poetic expression waned, another idea of Chaucer came forward: the Chaucer who is a man of learning, philosophy and occult science. The tradition that Chaucer was unusually learned and wise appears as early as Hoccleve's reference to Chaucer as a highly educated poet, 'vniuersal fadir in science', 'hier in philosophie / To Aristotle / in our tonge' (Brewer 1978: i, 63). A persistent but unfounded tradition that Chaucer attended university appears to have been widely accepted by sixteenth-century scholars. John Leland's biography of Chaucer (c.1540-5), which circulated widely in manuscript, reinforced this sense of him as highly learned, exerting a powerful and long-lived control over the shape of Chaucer's reputation. Leland built on the tradition of the wise Chaucer, constructing him as a universal scholar and an auto-didact in a description which other writers borrowed and helped disseminate:

He left the university an acute logician, a delightful orator, an elegant poet, a profound philosopher, and an able mathematician . . . Moreover, he left the university a devout theologian . . . while he so applied himself at Oxford, he also pursued his studies elsewhere, and by long devotion to learning added many things to the knowledge he had there accumulated. (Brewer 1978: i, 91)

Chaucer's reputation for learning made him an attractive figure to Reformation propagandists. For Protestants, Chaucer's reputation for wisdom indicated that he could see beyond the prejudices of his own age to anticipate a time when England would be free of the excesses of Romish superstition. John Foxe, anxious to appropriate Chaucer's reputation for wisdom to his own purposes, praised him in his 1570 Ecclesiasticall history contayning the Actes and Monumentes of thinges passed in euery Kynges tyme in this Realme as author of the Jack Upland (a Lollard attack on corrupt friars), and therefore a proto-Protestant sympathizer. Foxe melded Chaucer's learning with his supposed Protestant leanings, appropriating England's greatest poet to his cause as a faithful witness in the time of Wyclif (Brewer 1978: i, 107). Chaucer, like Gower, was 'notably learned, as the barbarous rudenes of that tyme did geue . . . so endeuoryng themselues, and employing their tyme, that they excelling many other in study and exercise of good letters, did passe forth their lyues here right worshipfully and godly, to the worthye fame and commendation of their name' (Spurgeon 1925: i, 105). Chaucer, says Foxe, 'saw in Religion as much almost, as euen we do now, and vttereth in hys works no lesse, and semeth to bee a right Wicleuian, or els was neuer any, and that all his workes almost, if they be throughly aduised, will testifie (albeit it bee done in myrth, and couertly)'. Chaucer was able 'vnder shadowes couertly, as vnder a visoure' to convey truth 'and yet not be espyed of the craftye aduersarie' (Spurgeon 1925: i, 106).

The idea of Chaucer's learning in this period seems at odds with the prevailing sense of his language as rough and rude. This dichotomy demonstrates the bifocal nature of his reputation: his poetry might be difficult to appreciate, but he had gained status as a venerable figure separate from his works. As Foxe noted, his works and Gower's were exempted from censorship in Henry VIII's Acte for thaduauncement of true Religion and for thabolisshment of the contrarie of 1542-3. (In this period Chaucer is paired with Gower in many allusions, suggesting that the sixteenth century thought of him as part of a literary tradition, not necessarily as the singular genius he seemed a hundred years earlier.) Richard Puttenham refers to him in The Arte of English Poesie (1589) as the most renowned of the early English poets, 'for the much learning appeareth to be in him aboue any of the rest' (Brewer 1978: i, 126). Gabriel Harvey's Marginalia emphasizes Chaucer's scientific learning: 'Notable Astronomical descriptions in Chawcer, & Lidgate; fine artists in manie kinds & much better learned then owre moderne poets. Chauwcers conclusions of the Astrolablie, still excellent, vnempeachable . . . A worthie man, that initiated his little sonne Lewis with such cunning & subtill conclusions, as sensibly, & plainly expressed, as he cowld deuise.' in a muchquoted continuation of the same passage, Harvey went on to assert the Renaissance principle that great poetry springs from great learning:

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Other [sic] commend Chawcer, & Lidgate for their witt, pleasant veine, varietie of poetical discourse, & all humanitie: I specially note their Astronomie, philosophie, & other parts of profound or cunning art. Wherein few of their time were more exactly learned. It is not sufficient for poets, to be superficial humanists: but they must be exquisite artists & curious vniuersal schollers. (160–1)

By the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries Chaucer's reputation for general wisdom accorded him the status of master of occult sciences. In his extensive response to Thomas Speght's 1598 edition of Chaucer, Francis Thynne corrected Speght's error in spelling the term resalgor, an alchemical term which Speght rendered resagor. Thynne objected to Speght's mistake first because of the error itself, and second because Speght had not properly or fully understood that Chaucer was a man of extensive learning: 'This worde sholde rather be "resalgar": wherefore I will shew you what Resalgar ys in that abstruce scyence which Chawcer knewe full well, althoughe he enveye against the sophisticall abuse thereof in the chanons yeomans tale.'2 Elias Ashmole's 1652 encyclopedia of alchemy, Theatrum Chemicum Britannicum, describes Chaucer, author of the Canon's Yeoman's Tale, as 'ranked amongst the Hermetick Philosophers' with Gower, his master; those who read the latter part of the tale, Ashmole asserts, 'wil easly perceive him to be a *Iudicious Philosopher*, and one that fully knew the Mistery' (Spurgeon 1925: i, 227). Robert Schuler has documented the extensive, if apocryphal, body of prophetical and alchemical works attributed to Chaucer, concluding that Chaucer was revered as magus as much as poet: 'if the Renaissance Chaucer was the "English Homer", he was being treated just as Homer had been by scholars and teachers in the fifth and sixth centuries B.C.: not primarily as a great poet, but as an encyclopedia of military strategy, history, geography, economy, and eloquence' (Schuler 1984: 316-17).

The Nineteenth-century Chaucer

After a period of comparative neglect in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, Chaucer's reputation flowered once more in the nineteenth century. Like the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the nineteenth century was comparatively uninterested in discussing the intricacies of Chaucer's texts, more concerned with Chaucer the man and the time in which he lived. Matthew Arnold's 1880 criticism of Chaucer shows this bias quite clearly as it side-steps consideration of the dynamics of the text in favour of inferences about the mind that created it: 'If we ask ourselves wherein consists the immense superiority of Chaucer's poetry . . . we shall find that his superiority is both in the substance of his poetry and in the style of his poetry. His superiority in substance is given by his large, free, simple, clear yet kindly view of human life' (Brewer 1978: ii, 216–17).

The production of multiple popular editions of Chaucer's works, designed for the expanding and increasingly educated reading public, made Chaucer's name a familiar one among the educated classes in the nineteenth century. Chaucer became the father of English literature, the poet of the fresh green youth of England's greatness, and the poet of a time whose values and whose spirit held wisdom the modern world needed. Paradoxically, this sense of his ancient knowledge was bolstered by an awareness of Chaucer's freshness and rawness, his humour and coarseness, all traits deemed characteristic of the age in which he lived. He became thus a dual figure: a wise father leading the way in language and art, as well as a figure of English energy and power.

Brewer and Spurgeon's nineteenth-century allusions to Chaucer focus on his reception by major writers of the period and key figures of what would become the tradition of Chaucer criticism. Their work shows the Chaucer familiar to all of us – the somewhat coarse humorist (Brewer 1978: ii, 72, 125, 223, 280), the childlike, gay poet writing at the dawn of English literature (226) – as well as Chaucer the prototype of the nineteenth-century gentleman (88–9, 108). But the nineteenth century also produced an extensive range of parallel Chaucer criticism in the magazines and monthly periodicals that flourished from 1830 to 1880. In the pages of these journals we see shaped and reflected a popular conception of Chaucer that complements the more familiar one of the kindly poet of what Arnold called 'joy and strength'. This Chaucer, a wise poet, came from a culture that understood how to integrate art and science, poetry and life. Studying him might show the way to creating a modern equivalent of his achievement.

Many of these articles on the subject of Chaucer are reviews of recent editions, but virtually every one begins with Chaucer the man, moves on to consider the culture of his time, and eventually draws some contrast between his age and the Victorian age. For example, the Edinburgh North British Review for February 1849 begins its account of several editions by evoking both Chaucer's distance from and his relevance to contemporary issues: 'The name of Geoffrey or Geffray Chaucer, has a grateful sound to English ears, and the image which it conjures up, purified by time from every taint of ignoble association, looms large to us through the mists of the five centuries which intervene' (293). According to this reviewer, Chaucer felt none of the Angst typical of the poet in the nineteenth century: 'He was the "clear and conscious" man of his time. In his opinions there was nothing which others did not feel, but what they felt unconsciously he thought and expressed . . . There was no antagonism between him and his age' (314-15). A London Review article of 1859 assures us that Chaucer was 'well versed in philosophy and divinity and the scholastic learning, and displays an intimate acquaintance with most of the sciences, as then cultivated, especially astronomy' (285). More important, he was the poet of an age that revered and read poetry (292), an age very different from the writer's own:

our forefathers, with a tythe of our knowledge and experience, effected in art what lies beyond our power. The preceding observations will have thrown some light upon what the age of Chaucer possessed which we have lost, viz., a common poetical atmosphere, a common love of poetry, and desire to be instructed in a true way, that is, to be told Afterlife 15

of things by poets, and a common consent in the sort of thing that was to be looked for at their hands. (295)

Moreover, the author says, Chaucer's age was superior in the very area of logic and reason on which the nineteenth century prided itself (296). The article concludes with a sense of Chaucer's surpassing greatness and essential distance:

Here we leave Chaucer. We have seen his majestic countenance, full of brooding light; his long life and ceaseless energy. His influence for centuries was unbounded, and probably wider than even that of Shakespeare. He created a language and a method of versification, which was followed by the poets both of England and Scotland. We have seen how exhaustless was his genius; how just his love and fixed his faith in human nature; how firm and true, and fearless his dealing with all things. We have seen how much of this was owing to the age which nurtured and understood the poet. Also, we have not failed to see how different, strangely different, the condition of poetry in an essentially scientific age has become. (303)

In yet another example of Chaucer criticism sprung from Victorian anxiety, the London *National Review* published in June 1862 ascribes Chaucer's genius to his ability to combine the imaginary and the real:

The prominent qualities which modern critics have ascribed to Chaucer are, fancy, imagination, grace, delicacy, tenderness; and undoubtedly he possessed these and other cognate qualities in a great degree. But the essential characteristic of his genius seems to us to be a strong sense of the real. In the highest flights of his genius the actual is ever present to him, as if the *purely* imaginative was something alien to his nature. (12)

Not long after this was written, F. J. Furnivall founded the Early English Text Society (1864) and the Chaucer Society (1868), and attention shifted from Chaucer's character and age to Chaucer's actual works. But even Furnivall, romantic, inveterate and energetic editor that he was, located the centre of Chaucer's meaning in Chaucer the man. In a typically wide-ranging article for the London *Macmillans Magazine* (volume 27, 1872–3), Furnivall railed at the fact that only sixty men out of the millions of inhabitants of Great Britain were willing to support the Society with donations, and that the average person would say of Chaucer's works, 'How can one find time to read a man who makes "poore" two syllables? Life is not long enough for that' (383). Even as he discusses editions, manuscripts and the importance of chronology in understanding Chaucer, Furnivall asserts that the reader who wishes to understand Chaucer's poetry must know the man, 'must start with him in his sorrow, walk with him through it into the fresh sunshine of his later life, and then down to the chill and poverty of his old age' (388).

Ironically, Furnivall's efforts and energy helped move Chaucer for ever out of the realm of such romantic interpretation, as well as out of the realm of the average reader.

At the end of the nineteenth century the familiar features of Chaucer the man began to fade, just as the familiar father of fifteenth-century English had faded in the sixteenth. In the earlier instance he remained a respected figure associated with learning and philosophy. In the latter he disappeared into the academy to become the subject of professional study. What now dominated was an academic interest in studying Chaucer's works and texts systematically and according to fixed principles, an interest manifest in increasing pressure to publish a definitive edition of his works which, based on the best manuscripts available and the best modern principles of editorial decision, would prove worthy of the father of English poetry. W. W. Skeat's six-volume (ultimately seven-volume) edition of 1894–7 provided such a text. Heir to nineteenthcentury popular interest in Chaucer (it was also available in a 'student's edition' presumably designed for the average educated reader), it proved to be a text for scholars, not for the educated public. The publication of Skeat's edition, coupled with the founding of the Chaucer Society to edit and propagate his works, had an unintended consequence: increasingly Chaucer and his writing became the province of scholars whose interest lay with text and manuscript.

Chaucer's Modern Reputation

The twentieth century produced an extensive scholarship of Chaucer's work, and a comparatively diminished interest in Chaucer the man. More than any other period after the fifteenth century, the twentieth century saw Chaucer's reputation tied to the critical assessment of his art. A series of editors has shaped the text of Chaucer's work to make it available to thousands of students who have in turn analysed, interpreted, constructed and deconstructed his meanings. Beginning with G. L. Kittredge and his assertion of the dramatic principle at the heart of the tales, twentieth-century Chaucer criticism was dominated by the Canterbury Tales and by successive fashions in twentieth-century academic literary criticism. A trend, first identifiable in the eighteenth century, towards reading Chaucer's works in light of the genre of the novel flowered in the middle third of the century, reaching its apogee in criticism of *Troilus* and Criseyde, often termed the first novel in English. The development and popularization of theories of human psychology in the twentieth century also focused critical attention on the characters of Chaucer's work, on the pilgrims and particularly on Criseyde, as Alice Kaminsky (1980) has shown. New criticism, with its emphasis on the text and its propensity to see irony lurking under every couplet, contributed to a sense that it is hopeless to try to know the man Chaucer, that his surrogate the pilgrim-narrator is all we can know, and that the latter is enigmatic and elvish, as E. Talbot Donaldson argued so persuasively in 1954.

In the most radical critical departure of the century, A Preface to Chaucer (1962), D. W. Robertson Jr attempted to redirect the focus of criticism from the dynamics of the text towards historicizing the text, albeit in one narrow channel. Ultimately, this served to diminish the idea of Chaucer the author; for his work, it could now be

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shown, was less a matter of unique inspiration and genius than a site in which cultural conventions and traditions were played out. Indeed, the criticism of the last thirty years of the twentieth century strove to defeat the idea of Chaucer as a unique individual and instead reinvented him as a conduit of the social *Angst* of his world, a writer bound by the misogyny of his period and mediated through his scribes. By the end of the twentieth century he no longer seemed to possess secret knowledge, or to show the way to a deeper understanding of what English is capable of. Rather, he seemed all too caught up in the pettinesses and intrigues of a dangerous, unstable court, itself a part of a destabilizing world founded on and yet anxious about the codes of chivalry, love and duty it expressed in its literature.

Chaucer's Retraction (ParsT 1081-92)

In his own work Chaucer seems to have demonstrated a remarkable prescience about many of the issues that would arise in response to his writing. In the Retraction at the end of the *Canterbury Tales*, in the *House of Fame* and in the lyric addressed to Adam Scriveyn, he identifies three topics that seem to cause him anxiety: concern with the tone and subject of his work, concern for the mutability of fame and the status of the great author, and concern about the faithful transmission of his text. In each instance, the history of Chaucer criticism has proven him right in his concern.

In the Retraction that follows the Parson's Tale Chaucer expresses anxiety about the reception of his work and apologizes for and 'withdraws' the great bulk of his literary production, terming it 'worldly vanitees'. Over the centuries Chaucer's earthy humour and 'broad' speaking have indeed occasioned frequent criticism. We see hints of this in the Renaissance comments on the rudeness and antique flavour of Chaucer's language: Beaumont addresses 'the inciuilitie *Chaucer* is charged withall' by responding, 'What Romane Poet hath lesse offended this way then hee?' (Brewer 1978: i, 137). Such criticism flowers in the early nineteenth century in statements like this one by Byron: 'Chaucer, notwithstanding the praises bestowed on him, I think obscene and contemptible' (Brewer 1978: i, 249). Leigh Hunt blames a change of manners for what might once have pleased the court and *gentils* but was, in the mid-nineteenth century, 'sometimes not only indecorous but revolting' (Brewer 1978: ii, 71). Matthew Arnold's charge that Chaucer lacked 'high seriousness' seems an uncanny echo, after nearly five hundred years, of Chaucer's own fears.

Imagining Fame (HF 1356–1519)

Chaucer represents the capricious nature of reputation and of fame throughout the *House of Fame*, focusing on literary reputation in lines 1356–1519. He images the 'godesse' Fame as a creature of multiple ears and tongues, swelling and shrinking. Her throne room is lined with 'many a peler' on which stand figures of such great

writers as Josephus, Statius, Homer, Geoffrey of Monmouth, Virgil and Ovid, whose own fame was so great that it altered the size of the hall which 'Was woxen on highte, length, and brede, / Wel more be a thousand del / Than hyt was erst' (1494–6). In these lines, Chaucer imagines fame as the property of the author as individual, rather than an attribute of his work. We know that he desired such fame from the end of *Troilus*, where he presents his book to the tradition of such great writers, claiming the story of Troy as part of England's literary heritage, and positioning himself as a novice reverently following in the steps of the great writers of antiquity.

Chaucer did attain the kind of lasting fame he attributes to these great writers. From one generation to the next Chaucer has been likened to the predecessors he so clearly admired. As early as Hoccleve's praises, Chaucer was being constructed as an English equivalent of the great auctores: 'for vnto Tullius / Was neuer man so lyk amonges vs / Also who was hier in philosophie / To Aristotle / in our tonge but thow / The steppes of virgile in poesie / Thow filwedist' (Brewer 1978: i, 63). In the sixteenth century, Roger Ascham terms him the 'Englishe Homer', and Francis Beaumont asserts that Chaucer is a philosophical writer of the highest order, as Troilus shows, imitating Virgil and Homer in the 'pith and sinewes of eloquence' (Brewer 1978: i, 100, 138). Dryden compares Chaucer to Ovid, one the last poet of the 'Golden Age of the Roman Tongue', the other the beginner of English poetry. Perhaps the highest praise of Chaucer is that offered by William Godwin in his 1803 biography, that Chaucer was the father of 'our language', the man who restored English to the Muses: 'No one man in the history of human intellect ever did more, than was effected by the single mind of Chaucer' (Brewer 1978: i, 238). Thus, although his reputation, like the form of the goddess of Fame, has grown and shrunk, Chaucer has laid claim to be one of the 'folk of digne reverence' in the House of Fame.

'Chaucer's wordes unto Adam, his owne scriveyn'

Perhaps the most intriguing instance of apparent Chaucerian prescience comes in the little lyric in which he excoriates his scribe Adam for mistakes arising from haste and inattention, charging him:

... after my makyng thow wryte more trewe; So ofte adaye I mot thy werk renewe, It to correcte and eke to rubbe and scrape, And al is thorugh thy negligence and rape.

Given the history of Chaucer editions recounted by Ruggiers (1984), and more recently by Dane (1998), he was right to be concerned. The lyric to Adam (which itself is now accepted into the Chaucer canon, but on slender manuscript evidence) shows that Chaucer realized how difficult it was for an author to retain control of texts

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once they left the author's possession. Windeatt (1979) shows how generally an author's material was emended or altered in a culture in which reading a text commonly involved some sort of appropriation, often manifested as alteration. As early as Caxton's first printed edition of the Tales in 1478 the mouvance of Chaucer's text bedevilled his editor. Caxton struggled to produce an accurate text: in the Proheme, he tells of deferring to a gentleman who brought him a 'better' text, one closer to Chaucer's original. Caxton says, 'I fynde many of the sayd bookes / whyche wryters haue abrydgyd it and many thynges left out / And in somme place haue sette certayn versys / that he neuer made ne sette in hys booke' (Brewer 1978: i, 76). Walter Stevens, a sixteenth-century editor of a manuscript of Chaucer's Treatise on the Astrolabe, 'fownde the same corrupte and false in so many and sondrie places, that I dowbtede whether the rudenes of the worke weare not a gretter sclaunder to the authour, than trowble and offence to the readers' (Brewer 1978: i, 105). Speght writes that he undertook his edition at the request of gentlemen who wished to do 'some reparations on his [Chaucer's] works, which they judged to be much decaied by injurie of time, ignorance of writers, and negligence of Printers' (Brewer 1978: i, 141).

The history of modern Chaucer editions also suggests he was correct to worry, for here too the idea of the 'best text' has been central but elusive. A good deal of work in the past hundred years has been devoted to establishing the canon of Chaucer's work, and to establishing a central manuscript, the Ellesmere Manuscript, as an authoritative text. Thomas Tyrwhitt (1775) was the first editor really to look at Chaucer as an author whose work might have characteristic traits; he determined that a canon might therefore be determined on that basis, rather than historical tradition, and excised a lot of apocryphal material. Skeat continued the winnowing process Tyrwhitt began; as Edwards says, 'Skeat's final enduring achievement is a negative one. It consists in what he did *not* include in the Clarendon Chaucer. With Skeat's edition we approach very close to the final stabilization of the Chaucer canon, to the achievement of a complete works purged of the accretions of insubstantial attributions of earlier editors' (Ruggiers 1984: 188).

But the problem of establishing Chaucer's text continued throughout the twentieth century. The text produced by J. M. Manly and Margaret Rickert, which sought to provide definitive readings based on objective principles of manuscript collation and analysis, proved to be, in the words of George Kane, 'the product of an immensely complex system of contingent hypotheses which seldom account for all the data and are sustainable only by the constant exercise of that editorial judgment which the editors set out to exclude' (Ruggiers 1984: 210). Even the Robinson edition, arguably the most influential Chaucer edition ever printed, because of its wide dissemination and popularity, was, according to Reinecke, a monument to Ellesmere and to Robinson's desire to print a 'regularly scanned, craftsmanlike, artistically significant . . . [text] conforming to his already determined opinions about Chaucer's grammar and meter' (Ruggiers 1984: 250). Most recently, the Variorum Chaucer project has preferred the Hengwrt manuscript over the 'highly edited' Ellesmere because of its early date (1400–10), its unedited state and its similarity to the Manly–Rickert

reconstruction. In his preface to the variorum edition of Hengwrt, Donald C. Baker describes the editors' intent to publish a text 'which is as near as it is possible to get to what Chaucer must have written' and concludes that for 'most of the Canterbury Tales' that text is the Hengwrt manuscript.³ While there is no doubt that certain manuscripts, Ellesmere and Hengwrt most famously, are thought to be more reliable than others, the fact remains that we do not have any holograph texts of Chaucer's poetry. One could make the case that the state of Chaucer's texts is analogous to the state of his reputation: both have been highly subject to interpretation. In the case of the texts, we have a series of manuscripts, each of which acts like a unique set of binoculars, adjusted to somebody else's eyesight.

Each set is focused differently in the fine detail of its account of the text. For the editor the medieval poem is accordingly something of an aspiration, a hardest idea, somewhere between, behind, or above the network of available scribal variations in any given line. Chaucer's poems survive for each line somewhere mid-way in a band of possible scribal variation on either side. (Windeatt 1979: 139)

See also Authority; Crisis and Dissent; Geography and Travel; Language; Life Histories; London; Narratives; Science; Texts.

Notes

- Gabriel Harvey's Marginalia [c.1600], ed. G. C. Moore Smith (Stratford-upon-Avon: Shakespeare Head Press, 1913), 159.
- 2 Chaucer: Animaduersions . . . 1598 sett downe by Francis Thynne, ed. G. H. Kingsley, Early English Text Society, original series 9 (1865), 36.
- The Canterbury Tales: A Facsimile and Transcription of the Hengwrt Manuscript with Variants from the Ellesmere Manuscript, ed. Paul G. Ruggiers (Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1979), pp. xvii—xviii.

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