Realism, once intended as an antidote to the drama that preceded it, was itself challenged by subsequent theater artists. Even as Ibsen was writing his realistic social dramas, Expressionism was being cultivated in Sweden and Germany. It paved the way for Brecht's epic theater, and soon other "Isms"—Surrealism, Formalism, Futurism—would usurp realism's hold on the modern theater. Of these antirealist movement, Expressionism and the epic theater have enjoyed the greatest longevity and subsequent influence.

Expressionism

As effective as he was in his naturalistic works, Strindberg's greatest achievements can be found in his experimental works, notably a series of Expressionist dramas such as A Dream Play (1903) and The Ghost (or Spook) Sonata (1907). The titles of these works suggest an unreal, dreamlike, or, more accurately, nightmarish depiction of human existence. Strindberg and the subsequent Expressionists sought to portray subjective states of the human mind realistically. This is, of course, a contradiction in terms (have you ever tried to explain a dream to someone?). Nonetheless, the Expressionists attempted to construct authentic dream worlds onstage through the use of distorted scenic pictures, bizarre lighting effects, dialogue that defined logic, and nonrealistic acting. Strindberg defines some of the characteristics of Expressionistic drama in notes accompanying A Dream Play, which he wrote to

imitate the incoherent but ostensibly logical form of our dreams. Anything can happen; everything is possible and probable. Time and space do not exist. Working with some insignificant real events as a background, the imagination spins out its threads of thoughts and weaves them into new patterns—a mixture of memories, experiences, spontaneous ideas, impossibilities and improbabilities. The characters split, double, multiply, dissolve, condense, float apart, coalesce. But one mind stands over and above them all, the mind of the dreamer.

Expressionism thrived in Germany during the early years of the twentieth century (1910–1924), partly as a means by which young writers, disillusioned by World War I, could attack the old order. Unlike Strindberg, who sought to project "dream states" onstage, the German Expressionists resorted to an intense subjectivism—that is, externalization of their most private inner feelings—to illustrate their outrage at a society that had betrayed them. German Expressionism used characters to symbolize abstractions of social vices rather than psychological realities, lyrical dialogue that superseded the logic of plot, and scenery that reflected purely subjective realities in concrete terms. Writers such as Frank Wedekind, Georg Kaiser, Paul Kornfeld, and Karl Sternheim represent the best of German Expressionism. Bertolt Brecht inherited their tradition when he entered the theater in the 1920s.

Expressionism had an impact on early cinema, such as the great German films *The Cabinet of Doctor Caligari* and *Metropolis*. The tricks of the moviemaker—crosscuts, dissolves, superimpositions, and bizarre camera angles—lent themselves to Expressionistic storytelling. Some of the most admired American playwrights, including O'Neill, Tennessee Williams, and Arthur Miller, freely used Expressionist elements in their dramas. Expressionism also did much to restore theatricality and poetry to drama that was becoming increasingly obsessed with putting real life onstage.

The Epic Theater

The creativity of the early German Expressionists notwithstanding, it was Bertolt Brecht (1898–1956) who most transformed the German and consequently Western theater. It can be argued that Brecht is the most influential artist in the modern theater. He radically altered the means by which artists use the theater as a political instrument. Today we frequently employ the term "Brechtian" to denote a particular style that can be found in both Western (e.g., Angels in America) and non-Western (e.g., Woza Albert!) dramas, musical theater (e.g., Cabaret),

and even opera (e.g., Nixon in China). Even classical plays have been presented in a Brechtian style (e.g., the Royal Shakespeare Company's acclaimed 1963 production of the Henry VI cycle). Although it might be argued with good reason that Brecht initiated "postmodern" theater (see Chapter 6), he was, like Ibsen and Shaw, committed to transforming society through didactic theater, and he is discussed within the context of modern drama.

Brecht began writing for the theater at the height of the German Expressionist movement in 1922. He was not so much an antirealist as he was against any form of drama that sought to engage an audience's emotions. For Brecht, this traditional approach—which he called the Aristotelian or dramatic theater—erred on two counts:

- An audience aroused to an emotional state might not make rational decisions that could amend the problem presented in the play;
- By solving the problem onstage, the audience might not feel compelled to attack the problem in the streets.

Brecht's solution was an "epic theater," which would

not only release the feelings, insights, and impulses possible within the particular historical field of human relations in which the action takes place, but [employ] and [encourage] those thoughts and feelings which help transform the field itself.

The epic theater rejected the Aristotelian catharsis, which implied a release of emotions. Instead, he sought to use the stage to provoke audiences into action. Specifically, the theater must "criticize constructively from a social point of view." Brecht constructed the following comparison between his epic theater and the dramatic theater:

Dramatic Theater

implicates spectator in stage situation wears down his capacity for action provides him with sensations experience spectator is involved in something instinctive feelings are preserved spectator is in the thick of it, shares the experience human being is taken for granted eves on the finish one scene makes another growth linear development evolutionary determinism man as a fixed point thought determines being

Epic Theater

narrative turns spectator into an observer arouses his capacity for action forces him to make decisions picture of the world spectator is made to face something argument brought to point of recognition spectator stands outside, studies the experience human being is the subject of inquiry eyes on the course each scene for itself montage in curves (ups/down) jumps man as a process social being determines thought reason*

To discourage the audience's emotional involvement with the characters, Brecht developed the *Verfremdungseffekt* ("alienation effect"), which is derived from the German verb *verfremden* ("to make strange"). In Brechtian terms, the "A-effect" (as it is now called) challenges audi-

^{*}From "The Modern Theatre Is the Epic" by Bertolt Brecht, from Brecht on Theatre, edited and translated by John Willet, © 1964. Reprinted by permission of Methuen Publishing, Ltd.

ences to see a social problem as if for the first time, evaluate the issues, and devise solutions to correct it. Hence, the epic theater is didactic because it educates and arouses an audience to action, however entertaining its means.

To achieve the A-effect, Brecht resorted to a purposeful theatricality that reminds audiences that they are only watching a play, not real life. He admits the influence of such diverse and nonrealistic entertainments as folk plays, medieval dramas, cabaret and vaudeville, the films of Charlie Chaplin, Elizabethan stagecraft, court trials, and even boxing matches. Brecht returned the theater to the art of storytelling, frequently using narrators or singers to tell episodic tales. Between episodes, Brecht inserted speeches, songs, and visual devices such as signboards to instruct audiences about the play's intent. He rejected romantic lighting in favor of harsh, white lighting (inspired by the boxing arena) to "illuminate" the action; he rejected pretty scenery in favor of curtains that merely suggested locale and ambience; and he rejected beautiful costumes in favor of worn, used clothing made by the proletariat. Ironically, his costumes were quite often realistic.

Primarily, Brecht used historification to show how time and people can change societies and institutions. He set his plays in remote times and places. In *The Good Woman of Setzuan*, Brecht places his exposé of modern capitalism in provincial China. In every case he asks his audiences to judge the "pastness" of an action that clearly parallels a modern situation. Brecht was, of course, borrowing from earlier theater traditions, most notably the medieval and Elizabethan theaters, which also used history as a parallel for contemporary social problems.

Not only did Brecht—and those whom he inspired—revolutionize playwriting, he offered an alternative to realistic acting. Whereas Stanislavskian actors sought to identify with their characters through introspection and psychological motivation, Brechtian actors were taught to "quote" their characters' social essence (a boss, a worker, the oppressed, a soldier, etc.). If the Stanislavskian actor used a superobjective to get at a character's soul, the Brechtian actor defined character in terms of its <code>gestus</code> (i.e., social function). Brecht was influenced by Chinese actors he saw in Moscow in 1935, especially the great Mei Lan-fang, a man whose specialty was female roles. Brecht noted that Chinese actors sought not to become their characters, but rather to manifest the social essence of their characters.

Brecht has often been accused or being antiemotional, yet a look at his plays (especially Mother Courage, in which a mother loses three children to the war) suggests that he could summon up an audience's emotions as well as any "dramatic" playwright. Brecht frequently employs traditional devices, particularly those of the melodrama, to arouse emotions in his audience. However, he "short-circuits" the emotional response to keep audiences from achieving the catharsis of the Aristotelian theater (which Brecht called "barbaric" because it allowed the slaughter of noble beings like Oedipus). At an emotional crest, Brecht inserted one of his A-effects—a speech, joke, or signboard—to challenge audiences to evaluate why they felt so strongly about the issues. He asked them to consider alternatives to the social problems that created the dilemma. As you read The Good Woman of Setzuan, No saca nada de la escuela, Top Girls, and Ti-Jean and His Brothers you will observe these theories in practice.