Contemporary
Literary Criticism

GLG 292

Contemporary Literary Criticism

Criticism of the Works of Today's Novelists, Poets, Playwrights, Short Story Writers, Scriptwriters, and Other Creative Writers





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Contemporary Literary Criticism

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Preface

amed "one of the twenty-five most distinguished reference titles published during the past twenty-five years" by Reference Quarterly, the Contemporary Literary Criticism (CLC) series provides readers with critical commentary and general information on more than 2,000 authors now living or who died after December 31, 1999. Volumes published from 1973 through 1999 include authors who died after December 31, 1959. Previous to the publication of the first volume of CLC in 1973, there was no ongoing digest monitoring scholarly and popular sources of critical opinion and explication of modern literature. CLC, therefore, has fulfilled an essential need, particularly since the complexity and variety of contemporary literature makes the function of criticism especially important to today's reader.

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- The Introduction contains background information that introduces the reader to the author, work, or topic that is the subject of the entry.
- The list of **Principal Works** is ordered chronologically by date of first publication and lists the most important works by the author. The genre and publication date of each work is given. In the case of foreign authors whose

works have been translated into English, the English-language version of the title follows in brackets. Unless otherwise indicated, dramas are dated by first performance, not first publication.

- Reprinted Criticism is arranged chronologically in each entry to provide a useful perspective on changes in critical evaluation over time. The critic's name and the date of composition or publication of the critical work are given at the beginning of each piece of criticism. Unsigned criticism is preceded by the title of the source in which it appeared. All titles by the author featured in the text are printed in boldface type. Footnotes are reprinted at the end of each essay or excerpt. In the case of excerpted criticism, only those footnotes that pertain to the excerpted texts are included.
- A complete **Bibliographical Citation** of the original essay or book precedes each piece of criticism. Source citations in the Literary Criticism Series follow University of Chicago Press style, as outlined in *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 15th ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2003).
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- Whenever possible, a recent Author Interview accompanies each entry.
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In response to numerous suggestions from librarians, Gale also produces an annual cumulative title index that alphabetically lists all titles reviewed in *CLC* and is available to all customers. Additional copies of this index are available upon request. Librarians and patrons will welcome this separate index; it saves shelf space, is easy to use, and is recyclable upon receipt of the next edition.

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Wesley, Marilyn C. "Anne Hèbert: The Tragic Melodramas." In *Canadian Women Writing Fiction*, edited by Mickey Pearlman, 41-52. Jackson: University Press of Mississippi, 1993. Reprinted in *Contemporary Literary Criticism*. Vol. 246, edited by Jeffrey W. Hunter, 276-82. Detroit: Gale, 2008.

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Pierre Bourdieu 1930-2002

(Full name Pierre Felix Bourdieu) French essayist and nonfiction writer.

The following entry presents criticism on Bourdieu's career through 2009. For further information on his life and works, see *CLC*, Volume 198.

INTRODUCTION

Bourdieu's work spanned several disciplines, including philosophy, anthropology, and sociology. He was considered a leading academic in France, placed by many on the same level as such intellectuals as Michel Foucault, Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida, and Jacques Lacan. He greatly influenced the development of practice theory, rooted in Marxism, and is responsible for introducing such terms as habitus, doxa, and cultural and social capital to theoretical scholarship. Bourdieu maintained a career-long interest in power structures, symbolic violence, academia, and class structure. He also garnered attention and controversy in France as a result of his political engagement and social activism.

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Bourdieu was born August 1, 1930, in the French village of Denguin, in the Pyrénees foothills, where his father was the village postmaster. He was a student at the lycée in Pau before moving to Paris to study at the École normale superiéure, where he was classmates with Foucault and Derrida. Influenced by phenomenological philosophers Maurice Merleau-Ponty, Edmund Husserl, and Martin Heidegger, Bourdieu earned his agrégé in philosophy in 1954 before teaching at a secondary school until 1956. Entering his mandatory two years of military service in 1956, Bourdieu served in Algeria. When his military obligation was fulfilled, he stayed in Algeria, accepting a lecturer position in the sociology department at the Faculte des Lettres in Algiers while he studied ethnic Kabyle Berber culture and the effects of colonization. He published his findings with Abdelmalek Sayad under the title Sociologie de l'Algerie (1958; The Algerians). At the behest of philosopher and sociologist Raymond Aron, Bourdieu returned to France in 1960, where he became Aron's

research assistant at the Sorbonne. Bourdieu taught at the University of Lille from 1962 to 1964, and then accepted a position as Director of Studies at L'École Pratique Des Hautes Études in Paris, where, in 1968, he founded the Center for European Sociology, which was funded by Aron through a grant from the Ford Foundation. Bourdieu maintained his position at the Center until his death. In 1975 Bourdieu founded the journal Actes de la Researche en Sciences Sociales, dedicated to sociological studies, which he edited with Luc Boltanski. In 1996 he established the publishing company Liber/Raisons d'agir. In 1981 he assumed the position of Chair of Sociology at Collège de France, a post formerly held by Aron. Bourdieu was married to Marie-Claire Brisard from 1962 to 1983. The marriage produced three sons, Jérôme, Emmanuel, and Laurent. Bourdieu died of cancer in a Paris hospital at the age of 71 on January 23, 2002.

MAJOR WORKS

Bourdieu produced hundreds of articles and essays and three dozen books, and his work has been translated into two dozen languages. While he was teaching sociology at the University of Algiers, he published his first major study, The Algerians. This early work introduced themes that concerned Bourdieu throughout his career, including the effects of cultural dominance as it relates to class distinctions (in this case, the effects of the imposition of French culture on Algeria's indigenous population), and the theme of what Bourdieu later coined habitus, a Latin word meaning deportment, which, for Bourdieu, refers to matters of taste and social behavior which are acquired rather than intrinsic. Esquisse d'une théorie de la pratique (1972; Outline of a Theory of Practice) marked a departure from philosophy for Bourdieu, and set him firmly in the fields of anthropology and sociology. The concept of habitus is solidified in the treatise, as Bourdieu explains that the ways in which one feels and thinks are inexorably linked to habits, mannerisms, and tendencies, all of which are codified through the context of the social systems in which one is raised. The book focuses on Algeria's Kabyle peasants, about whom Bourdieu gathered a wealth of empirical data for his study. In the book, he uses the example of the Kabyle to argue against presuppositions about society and culture put forward by a number of contemporary

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approaches, including phenomenology and what Bourdieu calls "theoretical knowledge," exemplified by Claude Lévi Strauss. To illuminate his points, Bourdieu uses examples from Kabyle society, including their concepts of capital and accumulation, power structures, honor, and justice, as well as social implications relating to the change of seasons and to giftgiving. Bourdieu is best known for La distinction: Critique sociale du jugement (1979; Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgment of Taste). Turning from Algeria to France, Bourdieu deals largely with class structure, aesthetics, and, as a corollary, the sociological implications and functions of art in French society. The book is the product of data gathered through surveys taken in the 1960s to determine how taste functioned within the French population. Included with the empirical data are theoretical sections outlining his conclusions, including the notion that tastes and preferences operate as class distinctions in opposition to other classes. Bourdieu argues that, contrary to contemporary post-industrialist society's commitment to equal opportunity and social mobility, higher classes maintain their positions of privilege and power through complex social systems and structures. Bourdieu again turned to anthropological data from the Kabyle society for La domination masculine (1998; Masculine Domination). In this book he argues that patriarchal society is an arbitrary, historically-based social construct, rather than a construct born of necessity. He believes that women are complicit in their submission, but for Bourdieu, this complicity is manifested at the most profound levels of consciousness and is socially trained and learned from generation to generation. He employs the psychoanalytical concept of gaze theory, suggesting that women occupy a position of "to-belooked-at-ness," subject to the power of the masculine gaze and kept at risk of social judgment. Bourdieu continued to publish toward the end of his life, writing and co-authoring articles focusing on the larger project of an international sociology, institutions, and anthropology.

CRITICAL RECEPTION

While widely unknown in the United States before the publication of *Distinction*, Bourdieu was highly regarded in France, garnering a degree of attention similar to that afforded Jean-Paul Sartre. *Distinction* is named as one of the twentieth century's ten most important works of sociology by the International Sociological Association. While his detractors acknowledge his contributions to various disciplines, Bourdieu has been criticized for being too rigid, sacrificing potential avenues of research in order to fit hypotheses. His critiques of power structures and

masculine domination have earned him both praise and criticism from feminist scholars, many of whom question the deterministic nature of habitus, suggesting that Bourdieu doesn't provide actionable conclusions to facilitate actual social change. According to Marie-Pierre Le Hir, "[T]he very sophistication that makes this analytical approach so well equipped to resist essentialism seems radically inimical to immediate, concrete feminist action." His later work was criticized for being skewed toward a political agenda. Many of his articles focused on the nature of class as well as other Marxist concerns, and he staged many political activities and protests against global capitalism. Bourdieu, however, resisted the Marxist label, noting that his concept of habitus was contrary to the philosophy.

PRINCIPAL WORKS

Sociologie d'Algérie [with Abdelmalek Sayad; The Algerians] (nonfiction) 1958

Travail et travailleurs en Algérie (nonfiction) 1963

Le déracinement [The Uprooting] (nonfiction) 1964

Les héritiers: Les étudiants et la culture [with Jean-Claude Passeron; The Inheritors: French Students and Their Relation to Culture] (nonfiction) 1964

Un art moyen: Essais sur les usages sociaux de la photographie [Photography: A Middle-Brow Art] (nonfiction) 1965

L'amour de l'art: Les musées d'art européens et leur public [with Alain Darbel and Dominique Schnapper; The Love of Art: European Art Museums and Their Public] (nonfiction) 1966

Rapport pédagogique et communication [editor and contributor, with Passeron and M. de Saint-Martin; Academic Discourse: Linguistic Misunderstanding and Professorial Power] (nonfiction) 1968

Le reproduction: Elements pour une theorie du systeme d'enseignement [with Passeron; Reproduction in Education, Society, and Culture] (nonfiction) 1970

Esquisse d'une théorie de la pratique: Précédé de trois études d'ethnologie Kabyle [Outline of a Theory of Practice] (nonfiction) 1972

Die politische ontologie Martin Heideggers [Political Ontology of Martin Heidegger] (nonfiction) 1976

La distinction: Critique sociale du jugement [Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgment of Taste] (nonfiction) 1979

Questions de sociologie [Sociology in Question] (nonfiction) 1980

Le sens pratique [The Logic of Practice] (nonfiction)

Ce que parler veut dire: L'économie des échanges linguistiques [Language and Symbolic Power] (nonfiction) 1982 Homo academicus (nonfiction) 1984

Choses dites [In Other Words: Essays Towards a Reflexive Sociology] (essays) 1987

La noblesse d'etat [The State Nobility: Elite Schools in the Field of Power] (nonfiction) 1989

An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology [with Loïc J. D. Wacquant] (nonfiction) 1992

Les règles de l'art: Genèse et structure du champ littéraire [The Rules of Art: Genesis and Structure of the Literary Field] (nonfiction) 1992

The Field of Cultural Production: Essays on Art and Literature (essays) 1993

La Misère du monde [The Weight of the World: Social Suffering in Contemporary Society] (nonfiction) 1993

Raisons pratiques: Sur la théorie de l'action [Practical Reason: On the Theory of Action] (nonfiction) 1994

Sur la télévision: Suivi de l'emprise du journalisme [On Television] (nonfiction) 1996

Méditations Pascaliennes [Pascalian Meditations] (nonfiction) 1997

Contre-feux: Propos pour servir à la résistance contre l'invasion néo-libérale [Acts of Resistance: Against the Tyranny of the Market] (nonfiction) 1998

La domination masculine [Masculine Domination] (nonfiction) 1998

Contre-feux 2: Pour un mouvement social européan [Firing Back: Against the Tyranny of the Market 2] (nonfiction) 2001

Science de la science et réflexivité: Cours du Collège de France, 2000-2001 [Science of Science and Reflexivity] (nonfiction) 2001

CRITICISM

Daniel Simeoni (essay date 2000)

SOURCE: Simeoni, Daniel. "Anglicizing Bourdieu." In *Pierre Bourdieu: Fieldwork in Culture*, edited by Nicholas Brown and Imre Szeman, pp. 65-86. Lanham, Md.: Rowman & Littlefield, 2000.

[In the following essay, Simeoni asserts that the dissemination of Bourdieu's ideas among speakers of English supports a broader theory of transcultural transfer.]

Landmarks

This chapter focuses on a particular case of cultural displacement, that is, the transpositioning of *styles of thinking* out of their home environments into foreign host settings. In the broadest sense, I will be addressing the difficulty of how to describe and how to identify what regulates such concepts, models, (poly-)

systems, structures, patterns, and other principles of explanation and action as flourish in the social sciences and cultural studies, beyond the national/state borders within which they were initially designed to make sense. Underlying this concern is a working hypothesis: The languages of knowledge were born into national/state communities; therefore the latter's differentiated histories can go a long way towards explaining the scholarly (and more generally, epistemic) dispositions of their native and affiliate members.

Against this background a number of interesting questions can be raised. How likely is it that the muchpraised principles of action and perception defining scientific activity in general, including the social and "human" sciences, will override the dispositions inscribed in every one of us, from our earliest youth, by means of the particular institutions within which we were brought up, trained, and educated? How truly universal is a practice of science derived from, and giving rise to, different styles of thinking? Is it true, for example, as intimated recently by E. Le Roy Ladurie, that when a French historian and a Japanese historian meet at a colloquium, they speak the same "language," that is, communication between them is unhampered and therefore they truly understand each other? In a sense, the interrogation overlaps with and expands on a query formulated a few years ago by Pierre Bourdieu regarding sociological practices: "Is it possible to circumvent the barrier of the nationalisms that hinder the free circulation of ideas and set back the unification of a sociological problematic, that is, the formation of a worldwide space of social-scientific discussion and critique?" (Wacquant 1991, 374).1 In other words: Can social scientists "who come from different countries and different intellectual traditions . . . s'entendre, as we say in French, that is, both hear one another and agree with each other, at least enough to enter into constructive dialogue?" (373). Asking such questions is another way of saying that a lot of work may be needed before such mutual understanding takes place and, indeed, the most that Bourdieu was willing to commit himself to then was "a working dissensus founded upon the critical acknowledgement of compatibilities and incompatibilities" (384).

The perspective adopted here has been designed to be tested on a multitude of objects. Its validation will depend on how successful it is in accounting for special cases of cultural transfer: authors, works, particular ideas dominant or in vogue at any point in time. I will just begin delineating the contours of one such case study: Bourdieu's own works across borders, that is, specifically, the circulation of his ideas in English-speaking environments.

Arguably, Bourdieu's theses on the distribution of cultural capital and the development of knowledge within the boundaries of state-regulated societies could help illuminate that kind of transcultural transfer, including that which bears on his own work. At the same time, because his model is also sociohistorically constructed, it cannot evade the transpositioning difficulty that plagues other explanatory or reading systems. The thesis I would like to defend here is that Bourdieu's approach retains an unresolved tension that is an integral part of the theory of knowledge that he proposes. This tension, understandable as a result of the particular history of the French state and the peculiar relation that Bourdieu entertains to it, points to a specific difficulty in the task of transpositioning it whole, out of its original frame or national/state sphere of influences, into other fields of forces. The same observation goes, of course, for all theories of social knowledge and understandings of practice, including the more objectivist. While this is not meant to suggest that conceptual transpositioning in the social sciences and the humanities is doomed to failure, it alerts us to the fact that the difficulties, due to the ways in which cultural transfer operates, are, each time, specific. Characteristically in Bourdieu's case, it is that primary tension—to be apprehended within the context of the theory—which ought to be kept in focus if we want to understand what really happens as the model migrates.

The research program just sketched out exceeds the scope of a single essay. To produce a thorough treatment of transcultural transfer applied to the works of social science, even limited to a single author, is a task of such magnitude that only a book-size development could begin to accomplish it. Even then, it is not quite certain that the result would be fully satisfying (see C. Charle's cautionary preface to that effect, 11-13). As it stands, this chapter complements and echoes Wacquant's original treatment of the same issue. Starting from Bourdieu's general claim that "the meaning of a work (artistic, literary, philosophical, etc.) changes automatically with each change in the field within which it is situated for the spectator or reader" (1983, 313), we might postulate a logic of "foreign trade" in the circulation of ideas based on "the necessary interferences and disjunctures between the objective position (and therefore meaning) of the imported work in its native intellectual space and the position (and correlative vision and interpretive strategies) of its consumers in the receiving academic space" (Wacquant 1993, 236). We may also accept the view that "the structures of national intellectual fields act as crucial mediations in the foreign trade of theories." For all those reasons, internal and external, it has been "difficult for Anglo-American scholars to get a full grasp of the overall structure and meaning of Bourdieu's sociology" (Wacquant 1993, 246).

On the other hand, Wacquant's claim that Anglo-American sociologists have "overlooked" Bourdieu's empirical research sounds strange. The argument may even be inconsistent with the idea that Bourdieu's work—like anybody else's—is perceived and assessed in its host settings through colored lenses manufactured locally. Indeed, if "the meaning and function of a foreign work is determined as much by the field of destination as by the field of origin" (Nice 1990 [1980], 1), that is, if "the receiving country acts in a manner of a prism that selects and refracts external stimuli according to its own configuration" (Wacquant 1993, 247), and finally, if that field of destination is also the home base of empiricism (and increasingly so, at this particular juncture when "a new hegemonic alliance is being struck between all manners of empiricist methodology"—see Wacquant 1991, 381), then one would expect that dimension of Bourdieu's research at least to have been recognized and duly assessed by peers. It is not difficult in fact to find references to Bourdieu's empirical work, most notably Distinction, in journals or Ph.D. theses. Further, even if such references were missing in evaluative articles, this would not necessarily be a sign of indifference. On the contrary, it might signal that that work is not controversial, or that it would require painstaking analyses to confirm or undo it, or more likely that protocols permitting comparative work across borders are not easily designed. An example is the deafening silence surrounding Homo Academicus, perhaps related to the particular structures of the education system in the United States: How do we go about collecting the basic information when "the policies of educational institutions themselves [allow them to] keep secret the kinds of date which would shed light on who gets admitted to them and who does not-and why," and we might add crucially, who runs them (Wolfe 1998)?

How do we evaluate the higher-order neo-Whorfian (or Humboldtian) claim, then, that "the schemata of academic perception and appreciation inculcated through graduate training and durable immersion in the specific universe . . . shape the assimilation of foreign intellectual products" (Wacquant 1993, 241), thereby frustrating communication and generating misunderstandings? Ideally, implementing such an evaluation would require a comparison of the work accomplished in, for example, *La distinction* with its homologues in other national/state settings.

Indeed, a number of attempts have been made in the last decade, starting with Gartman (1991) and Erickson (1991), to replicate in a more focused manner the

kind of study conducted in France based on data collected from 1963 to 1975. But replication for comparative purposes is a difficult exercise when it touches on cultural cognition. What criteria of differentiation regulate "similar" usual practices in different countries? It is far from clear, for example, what status "culture" has across societies. Is it justifiable to construct an image of the overall social space, based on the same universal opposition of cultural and economic capitals everywhere? Whether such a contrast can be made operational across borders, indeed whether French, German, North American, let alone "postcolonial" or multicultural societies can manage it in mutually intelligible ways, remains to be seen. There is no reason why comparative work should be ruled out (see, for example, Casanova 1997 for an extreme case of such extension), but prior reflection on how to work out the relevant homologies is a clear sine qua non.

Since no work commensurable with Distinction (1979), Homo Academicus (1984), or La noblesse d'État (1989) has yet seen the light of day outside France, I have opted for a purely language-based approach to transfer. For all its inherent limitations, the study of existing translations of canonical works in the social sciences and the humanities with a view to assessing their "translatability," that is, the degree of their effective transpositioning into new host environments, is an acceptable comparative method—perhaps the next best alternative to full-fledged empirical comparison of constructed data and their extension across cultural fields. To quote from Hinkle (89): "Translation from one language to another, and more specifically from one intellectual and linguistic context to another, entails not merely a substitution of words but a transformation of ideas, styles of thinking, modes of expression, indeed a whole context of mental imagery and assumptions many of which may be unnoticed by the writer, the translator, and the reader." Furthermore, nothing in language-based inquiry is antithetical to the sociologist's investigation of social facts: "In connection with the social world, words are the makers of things, for they produce the consensus on the existence and meaning of things" (Bourdieu 1994, 138; my emphasis). "Words" here does not refer to the formal structuring of language as studied by mainstream linguistics, but to the regulations of parole (speech, oral and written): "the power principle mobilized [in certain ways of using words] is to be looked for beyond the words themselves, within the mechanism that produces both the words and those who speak and hear them" (Bourdieu 1989, 63).

Empirical-hermeneutic research of the kind sketched out in this chapter can be viewed as a long-range mode of inquiry; an easily accessible, admittedly provisional, way of addressing issues of principle regarding the material conditions of possibility of a transfert des œuvres et des textes: what hard facts of language—lexical, stylistic, matricial, and argumentative—related to the habitus of those involved are induced by representations of social-science informational capital beyond the home base? What does the very act of translating imply for the integrity and consistency of the works, as well as for the overall rhetoric of scientificity attached to them (see also Venuti)?

In this perspective, any work produced in a specified environment at any point in time can be deemed representative, simply by virtue of its "being there," not an ad hoc construct but a social fact. The proven "shifts" or "non-obligatory deviations" (Toury, 50) brought about by translation may be taken as indices of the difficulty in the transfer of culture-bound forms—those very same forms Hinkle envisions in the above quotation as "whole context[s] of mental imagery and assumptions." It is important to keep in mind that no judgment of value can be attached to such shifts. A shiftless translation, if such a thing existed, would come down to transliteral, transideational replication. To translate is by definition to "transposition," that is, to transform the original. Neither can the sheer stigmatization of "loss" in translation be a sound approach, as noted by Cronin. Losses can just as well be viewed as gains from within the relevant framework—that of the receiving field and terms of destination.

BOURDIEU'S FIELD THEORY: TOOLS FOR A TRANSBORDER HERMENEUTICS?

Experientially, we have a pretty good idea of how things work in everyday practice. The informants interviewed by Bourdieu's team (1993) did not require a special metalanguage to actualize and objectify the relations that the sociologist otherwise must strive to bring to light with a heavy conceptual apparatus. There seems to be a hermeneutics of ordinary expert reading and understanding, running across and narrowing down the subject/object divide. The opening of Bettelheim's "Reflections," for example, illustrates this correspondence. Reader and writer, interpreter and informant, Bettelheim and Freud, share the same frame of reference: "As a child born into a middle-class, assimilated Jewish family in Vienna, I was raised and educated in an environment that was in many respects identical with the one that had formed Freud's background. The culture that was transmitted to me in my home, then in secondary school, and finally at the University of Vienna, had changed very little since Freud's student days, fifty years earlier. So it was natural that from the time I began to think on my own I read Freud. . . . Understanding Freud's writings was considerably facilitated . . . by my study of