Contemporary
Literary Criticism

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Contemporary Literary Criticism

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





Contemporary Literary Criticism, Vol. 283

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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.

Scope of the Series

CLC provides significant passages from published criticism of works by creative writers. Since many of the authors covered in CLC inspire continual critical commentary, writers are often represented in more than one volume. There is, of course, no duplication of reprinted criticism.

Authors are selected for inclusion for a variety of reasons, among them the publication or dramatic production of a critically acclaimed new work, the reception of a major literary award, revival of interest in past writings, or the adaptation of a literary work to film or television.

Attention is also given to several other groups of writers—authors of considerable public interest—about whose work criticism is often difficult to locate. These include mystery and science fiction writers, literary and social critics, foreign authors, and authors who represent particular ethnic groups.

Each *CLC* volume contains individual essays and reviews taken from hundreds of book review periodicals, general magazines, scholarly journals, monographs, and books. Entries include critical evaluations spanning from the beginning of an author's career to the most current commentary. Interviews, feature articles, and other published writings that offer insight into the author's works are also presented. Students, teachers, librarians, and researchers will find that the general critical and biographical material in *CLC* provides them with vital information required to write a term paper, analyze a poem, or lead a book discussion group. In addition, complete bibliographical citations note the original source and all of the information necessary for a term paper footnote or bibliography.

Organization of the Book

A CLC entry consists of the following elements:

- The Author Heading cites the name under which the author most commonly wrote, followed by birth and death dates. Also located here are any name variations under which an author wrote, including transliterated forms for authors whose native languages use nonroman alphabets. If the author wrote consistently under a pseudonym, the pseudonym will be listed in the author heading and the author's actual name given in parenthesis on the first line of the biographical and critical information. Uncertain birth or death dates are indicated by question marks. Singlework entries are preceded by a heading that consists of the most common form of the title in English translation (if applicable) and the original date of composition.
- 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

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- 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).
- Critical essays are prefaced by brief Annotations explicating each piece.
- Whenever possible, a recent Author Interview accompanies each entry.
- An annotated bibliography of Further Reading appears at the end of each entry and suggests resources for additional study. In some cases, significant essays for which the editors could not obtain reprint rights are included here. Boxed material following the further reading list provides references to other biographical and critical sources on the author in series published by Gale.

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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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Lucille Clifton 1936-

(Born Thelma Lucille Sayles; full name Thelma Lucille Clifton) American poet, memoirist, and author of children's books.

The following entry presents an overview of Clifton's career through 2008. For further information on her life and works, see *CLC*, Volumes 19, 66, and 162.

INTRODUCTION

Clifton is a highly respected African American poet and children's author. Her unadorned, graceful, and incisive verse is presented in straightforward language and symbolism, which contributes to the accessibility and open-endedness of her ideas. Marked by an understated yet insistent—and occasionally wryly humorous—sensibility, Clifton's poems invoke the idioms of black America to communicate the hardships and inner strength that characterize the cultural experience of both women and African Americans. Although her early work grew out of the Black Arts Movement of the 1960s, her poetry and prose transcend racial limitations, giving life and voice to the allencompassing human need for pride, hope, strength, and love.

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Clifton was born in Depew, New York, to Samuel Louis Sayles Sr., a steel mill worker, and Thelma Moore Sayles, a laundry employee. Neither parent completed a formal education; however, Clifton's mother wrote poems, which she read to her four children, and her father often told stories about his ancestors, particularly his great-grandmother Caroline, who was abducted from her home in the Dahomey Republic of West Africa and brought to New Orleans, Louisiana, as a slave. Clifton incorporated the image of this great-grandmother into a number of poems and detailed her story in the memoir Generations (1976). In 1953 Clifton attended Howard University in Washington, D.C., where she met such writers as LeRoi Jones (Amiri Baraka), A. B. Spellman, Owen Dodson, and Sterling Brown, some of

whom, like Clifton, became associated with the Black Arts Movement of the 1960s and 1970s. A drama major, she acted in the first performance of James Baldwin's The Amen Corner. Clifton left Howard after two years and attended Fredonia State Teachers College, where she often read and performed plays with a small group of black intellectuals while simultaneously developing her craft as a writer. In 1958 she married educator and artist Fred James Clifton, with whom she had six children before his death in 1984. Her submission of poems to noted African American poet Robert Hayden resulted in her receipt of the YW-YMHA Poetry Center Discovery Award in 1969—an accolade that prompted the publication of her first collection, Good Times (1969), which was cited by the New York Times as one of the best books of the year. She served as the poet laureate of the State of Maryland from 1979 to 1985. Clifton's children's book Everett Anderson's Goodbye (1983) received the Coretta Scott King Award in 1984, and her 1987 book of verse Good Woman was a finalist for the Pulitzer Prize for Poetry. In 1991 Clifton became Distinguished Professor of Humanities at St. Mary's College of Maryland. She garnered the Shelley Memorial Award from the Poetry Society of America that same year. Additionally, she received the Lannan Literary Award for Poetry in 1996, the National Book Award for Poetry in 2000, and the Ruth Lilly Poetry Prize in 2007.

MAJOR WORKS

Clifton's poetry presents a world in which the extraordinary is revealed through the ordinary. The optimistic tone of survival that permeates her work, the religious undercurrent in her verse, and the dignified self-pride that characterizes her voice are all rooted firmly in her ethnic heritage. The poems in Good Times and Good News about the Earth (1972) showcase Clifton's unique blend of irony and earnestness. Reflecting the widespread social unrest of the civil rights era, these collections recount the travails of black family life and racial injustice. Although not as optimistic as their titles indicate, they are far from cynical. In both volumes, as in all her work, hope and defiance coexist as a single beacon of strength. The brief, powerful, and simply expressed poems in Good

News about the Earth place biblical stories in a contemporary African American context. The religious overtones in this volume reflect Clifton's personal views of social mores and individual morality while supporting the recurring themes of love and optimism amid desperation.

Her next two volumes, An Ordinary Woman (1974) and Two-Headed Woman (1980), are distinguished by their distinctively feminine point of view. The poems in An Ordinary Woman celebrate everyday things and highlight the interpersonal bonds found in marriage, motherhood, sisterhood, and shared cultural experience. The predominant images in the poems are bones-representing strength and connection among generations—and light, which symbolizes knowledge, existence, and life. Characterized by dramatic tension and original groupings of words, the poems in Two-Headed Woman are tributes to blackness, celebrations of women, and testimonies to familial love. Good Woman is comprised of Clifton's first four collections and her autobiographical prose work Generations. Indebted to Walt Whitman's "Song of Myself" for its inscriptions and structure, Generations is an ode to the survival of the African American family, chronicling Clifton's genealogical history through five generations while also recording her personal journey of selfdiscovery. Fusing the intimate with the universal, Next (1987) addresses themes of maternal strength and sisterhood, war's cruelties, the deleterious effects of racism, and death. In Quilting (1991), the title's unifying conceit symbolizes the importance of female friendships and communal action. The section titles come from traditional quilting designs, such as catalpa flower and eight-pointed star, and suggest that artistic patterns evolve organically from human experience and observation. Biblical themes recur in The Book of Light (1993), which features poems that deftly link the name "Lucille" with "light" and "Lucifer," all three of which share the same Latin root. Throughout the volume, light signifies creativity, spirituality, and love, and accentuates the affirmation of African American womanhood in poems such as "Daughters" and "Won't You Celebrate with Me." The Book of Light also pays tribute to dearly departed family members, particularly Clifton's mother. Inspired by the author's battle with breast cancer, The Terrible Stories (1996) deals with the horror and nearness of mortality. At the same time, the collection tackles the difficult aspects of American history, such as the shame of slavery and its dire aftermath. Voices (2008) utilizes humor and the imagined perspectives of such commercialized African American cultural icons as Aunt Jemima and Uncle Ben to probe issues of memory and physical decline.

Clifton is also a prolific author of children's books. These titles emphasize self-love and self-acceptance in a world in which both joy and pain are present. Infused with Christian values and racial pride, Clifton's bestknown children's picture books are those that focus on Everett Anderson, a young African American boy. The first book in this series, Some of the Days of Everett Anderson (1970), was chosen as one of School Library Journal's Best Books of 1970. The Everett Anderson series documents everyday moments and difficult transitions in the title character's childhood-including the death of his father—utilizing simple verse, African American vernacular, and psychological insight to lend authenticity and immediacy to the subject matter. Clifton's other works for children include The Black BC's (1970), which teaches the alphabet and American history from an Afrocentric perspective. Similar to The Black BC's are works such as All Us Come Cross the Water (1973), The Times They Used to Be (1974), and Amifika (1977)-books that celebrate the African American experience, proclaim the beauty of blackness, and insist that poverty need not mean a lack of love, warmth, or dignity.

CRITICAL RECEPTION

Reviewers have consistently praised Clifton's writing throughout her career. Specifically, they have emphasized her ability to craft accessible verse that limns problems of racial and gender inequality while retaining a dynamic affirmation of African American and feminine pride. They have also responded favorably to her inclusive, humanistic tone. While exploring thematic aspects of her work, critics have noted the importance of names in her slavery-related poems of the American South and have analyzed the biblical allusions in her poetry as a modern-day reflection of African American tradition. As commentator Jeannine Thyreen-Mizingou maintained, "[Clifton] often articulates grace within a specifically African/African American culture, using the black vernacular. Her patterns or techniques reflect African American spirituals, such as repetition, refrain, call and response, characteristic adornment and dramatizing, suggestions of dancing and communal life, and various forms of traditional negro expression, such as verbal nouns, asymmetry, and nouns used as verbs." Furthermore, scholars have examined Clifton's evocation of myth and magic, particularly with regard to her presentation of black women as figures of both empowerment and oppression. They have also highlighted the transformative quality of such motifs as divine prediction and incanta-

tion in Clifton's poems. According to critic Tiffany Eberle Kriner, "Clifton uses prophecy and conjure to diagnose and to resist problems in the present, to anticipate the future, and to set in motion the transformation from present injustice to future possibility." Moreover, reviewers have treated two common elements in her poetry and children's books that speak to her strengths as an artist—the simple presentation of complex ideas, and the refusal to talk down to the reader. Such qualities bolster Clifton's reputation as an author of eminent grace and talent and complement the following assertion by scholar Hilary Holladay: "To read one of Lucille Clifton's poems is to experience an epiphany, a swift flowering of personal observation into social insight. To read all of them is to apprehend a far-reaching, essentially hopeful vision of humanity."

PRINCIPAL WORKS

Good Times: Poems (poetry) 1969 The Black BC's (juvenilia) 1970

Some of the Days of Everett Anderson (juvenilia) 1970

Good News about the Earth: New Poems (poetry) 1972

All Us Come Cross the Water (juvenilia) 1973

Everett Anderson's Year (juvenilia) 1974

An Ordinary Woman (poetry) 1974

The Times They Used to Be (juvenilia) 1974

Generations: A Memoir (memoir) 1976

Amifika (juvenilia) 1977

Everett Anderson's 1 2 3 (juvenilia) 1977

Everett Anderson's Nine Month Long (juvenilia) 1978

Two-Headed Woman (poetry) 1980

Everett Anderson's Goodbye (juvenilia) 1983

*Good Woman: Poems and a Memoir, 1969-1980 (poetry and memoir) 1987

Next: New Poems (poetry) 1987

Quilting: Poems, 1987-1990 (poetry) 1991

The Book of Light (poetry) 1993

The Terrible Stories: Poems (poetry) 1996

Blessing the Boats: New and Selected Poems, 1988-

2000 (poetry) 2000

One of the Problems of Everett Anderson (juvenilia)

2001

Mercy: Poems (poetry) 2004 Voices: Poems (poetry) 2008

*Good Woman: Poems and a Memoir, 1969-1980 (1987) contains Good Times (1969); Good News about the Earth (1972); An Ordinary Woman (1974); Two-Headed Woman (1980); and Generations: A Memoir (1976).

CRITICISM

Akasha Gloria Hull (essay date 1997)

SOURCE: Hull, Akasha Gloria. "In Her Own Images: Lucille Clifton and the Bible." In *Dwelling in Possibility: Women Poets and Critics on Poetry*, edited by Yopie Prins and Maeera Shreiber, pp. 273-95. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1997.

[In the following essay, Hull traces the interweaving of traditional and idiosyncratic elements of spiritualism in Clifton's poetry, stressing the gender- and race-based utilization of biblical allusions in her work.]

The Bible has functioned as a sourcebook for Lucille Clifton throughout her illustrious, twenty-five-year poetic career. In three cycles of poems written between 1972 and 1991, she directly treats many of its major characters and events. On one level, her use of this biblical material is—in every sense of the word faithful; yet, in fundamental and crucial ways, she is startlingly heterodox. Perhaps the simplest way to describe her transformative mode is to say that she (1) Africanizes, (2) feminizes, (3) sexualizes, and (4) mysticizes the original text. Thus she rewrites it in her own image as a black and cosmically spiritual woman. The poetic genre through which she mediates her vision is the personal, free verse lyric but here, too, she negotiates a mutually illuminating relationship between the traditional and the new, the ordinary and the extraordinary. Invariably lowercased, brief, and deceptively simple in form, style, and diction, her poems ultimately authorize themselves as complexly crafted pieces redolent with both mystical-spiritual and sociopolitical consciousness.

As important context, it should be mentioned that Lucille Clifton is one of an impressive number of contemporary African American women writers whose spiritual consciousness is providing both content and modality for their work. They are writing about supranatural experiences and phenomena, and also utilizing what Toni Morrison has called "ways of knowing beyond the five senses" to access their material. Morrison herself has spiced her novels with flying Africans, ghosts, supernatural birth, rootworking, and so forth. She has also spoken in propria persona about her connection through her grandmother and father to the world of dreams and spirits (Strouse 1981). Alice Walker has said that the characters of The Color Purple (1982) visited her to have her transmit their story (A. Walker 1983); and in a later book, The Temple of My Familiar (1989), she deals undramatically with such matters as karmic union, reincarnation, and the physical materialization of energy.

Adopting science fiction, Octavia Butler deploys shape-shifters and an array of telepathic powers, as in *Mind of My Mind* (1977) and *Wild Seed* (1980), two of her earlier works. Another poet, Dolores Kendrick, prefaces her 1989 volume with these words:

I thank these women for coming, and I thank the good God who sent them.

The Women of Plums

Toni Cade Bambara's novel *The Salt Eaters* (1980) is a brilliant compendium of ancient, black, and New Age spiritual wisdoms. Paule Marshall's heroine in *Praisesong for the Widow* (1983) undergoes a psychic rebirth that catapults her into ancestral visions and Yoruba gods. This list could be extended to further enforce the point that spirituality is a vital current for black women writers—just as it increasingly is for United States society and the whole of pre-twenty-first-century civilization. This special dimension of their work seems to account significantly for their current popularity, for the way unprecedented masses of readers are attracted to their writings.

Fitting generally into this movement, Lucille Clifton is yet unique in her unclouded self-revelation and the meshing of personal autobiography with her art. Spiritually endowed, she practices her gifts in both her life and her poetry. Clifton hears voices, automatically writes, reads palms, senses realities, and speaks normally unknowable truths. She and her familywhich she has described as "spiritual and even perhaps mystical" (Clifton 1983)1—learned over time to "incorporate the nonvisible" into their everyday cosmology. How she does so makes her spirituality a force that could be described with the following adjectives: black, natural, rooted, unpretentious, practical, quietly powerful, good-natured, good-humored, ethically and politically edged, humanly respectful, lovingly shared, transformative.

Clifton's way of functioning in this area breaks down the boundaries between this world and the "other" world. Likewise, her spirituality-driven poetry transgresses categories of form, genre, and artistic convention. One very striking example of this is her poem "the light that came to lucille clifton" (from two-headed woman, 1980). Immediately, the use of her own, real name is arresting. In earlier poems, she had incorporated fanciful references to "lucy girl," but she had never instated herself with this degree of fullness, formality, and solemnity. Thus, with a dramatic move that upsets modesty and convention, the reader is invited to see the person behind the persona, the lady behind the mask.

Poetically working Clifton's actual experience, "the light that came" ["the light that came to lucille clifton"] recounts a pivotal time when "a shift of knowing" makes possible the breakthrough to higher levels of awareness and personal power.

it was the summer she understood that she had not understood and was not mistress even of her own off eye. then the man escaped throwing away his tie and the children grew legs and started walking and she could see the peril of an unexamined life.

(Clifton 1987a:209)

Among this series of concrete details is Clifton's allusion to her half-blind eye, whose functions she cannot control. This image inversely resonates with her finally being able to see that she needs to scrutinize her own autonomous being more closely. However, she closes her eyes, "afraid to look for her / authenticity."

but the light insists on itself in the world; a voice from the nondead past started talking, she closed her ears and it spelled out in her hand "you might as well answer the door, my child, the truth is furiously knocking."

(209)

Thus the poem ends, with reference to an automatic writing experience and active resignation/acceptance.

In addition to incorporating her full name, this poem presents the oddness of Clifton referring to herself in the third person within a work that otherwise fits into the "I" frame of confessional or autobiographical verse. This disassociative effect is heightened by the way she linguistically distances obviously intimate elements: "the man" is her husband, "the children" her own six maturing ones (whose just-growing legs strike an almost surreal chord). These features tip the ambiance of the poem toward madness—which is reflected in its initially de-ranged lines. Yet this craziness is effectively contravened by a simultaneous, convincing lucidity.

For an epiphanic poem, "the light that came to lucille clifton" is strangely low-key; as a rendition of mystical experience, it is singularly nonelevated. Seemingly, Clifton is conveying through her form and style what she believes: that the extraordinary is really quite ordinary, nothing to get overly excited about, and available to us all. Cumulatively, this is a highly original poem. It is followed by a remarkable final sequence through which Clifton testifies to having seen the light and heard the voices of another world. Despite being called mad, she holds onto the truth of her experience and authoritatively declares in the last lyric:

in populated air our ancestors continue. i have seen them. i have heard their shimmering voices singing.

(221)

From this point on, spiritual-mystical themes and materials become an even more prominent feature of her work.

* * *

Situated against this background of expressed—and expressive—spirituality, Lucille Clifton's handling of the Bible effects a perhaps contradictory-seeming union of Christian subject matter and her own brand of spirituality, which is certainly not traditionally religious but rather mystical in the broadest sense of the word. Having defined herself as "someone who is aware of mystery," Clifton illuminates on multiple levels the even more marvelous mysteries that lie behind received Mystery.

Moreover, her treatment of the Bible places her among contemporary women poets who, like herself, are engaged in what the critic Alicia Ostriker terms "revisionist mythmaking"—the poets' appropriation "for altered ends" of "a figure or story previously accepted and defined by a culture," including historic and quasi-historical figures, folktales, legends, and Scripture (1986:212-13). Ostriker notes that these poets no longer hide behind the characters to make their socially seditious points but openly "deviate from or explicitly challenge the meanings attributed to mythic figures and tales." She sums up the revisionist mythmaking of this poetry thus:

These poems generically assume the high literary status that myth confers and that women writers have often been denied because they write "personally" or "confessionally." But in them the old stories are changed, changed utterly, by female knowledge of female experience, so that they can no longer stand as foundations of collective male fantasy or as the pillars sustaining phalocentric "high" culture. Instead, they are corrections; they are representations of what women find divine and demonic in themselves; they are retrieved images of what women have collectively and historically suffered; in some cases they are instructions for survival.

(Ostriker 1986:215)

Ostriker's emphasis on the legitimacy gained through employing respected cultural myths and the ultimate feminization of this material is a particularly helpful context for understanding Clifton's work.

Another necessary context is Clifton's own African American religious background. Her mother belonged to the Sanctified church, and her father was Baptist. She grew up in the Baptist church of her father, no doubt absorbing the Bible along with its interpretations and embellishments in Sunday school and sermons. Though she does not believe it "as a literal book," she herself has read the text from cover to cover. Clifton says that she finds it interesting but really does not know why she uses it so extensively in her writing: "It just interests me. The figures there interest me." One might also surmise that the Bible has possibly influenced her literary style. Both it and her poems possess a terse but affluent concreteness, an elliptical fullness.

As an African American woman, Clifton effortlessly balances a respectful—and even, one could say, affectionate—use of the Bible with her other nonorthodox attitudes, ideas, and beliefs. As is true for many of her counterparts (especially of her generation), she feels no need to rail against God and Christianity. It would be highly unusual to find someone like her expressing angry, negative sentiments about this religious code. It is too African American, too much who we are—our culture, blood, survival; the faith of our fathers and grandmothers. Not surprisingly, while Clifton relentlessly lowercases absolutely everything else, she always capitalizes "God" and his pronouns. Furthermore, as a truly spiritual person, Clifton would know that (1) fundamentally, all spiritual systems are essentially the same, and (2) they all (can) work for whoever sincerely believes and faithfully practices them.

Clifton's equipoise of contrasting doctrines can also be framed as an agile juxtaposition of folk and religious beliefs. Dianne Johnson uses this dyad in her helpful discussion of Clifton's books for children. She notes that even though, after 1947, (mostly) white writers of black children's books tended to eliminate superstition, while continuing to portray black people as religious, Clifton "sees no reason to avoid the 'superstitious' merely because it may evoke images of the 'primitive' or to deny the overlay of the superstitious with the religious." Her perpetuation of these "superstitious" images can, in fact, be "viewed as an acceptance of a world view rather than as a resignation to stereotypes" (Johnson 1990: 86-87). This notion of seeing what Clifton does as considered ontology is absolutely correct. As both her life and her work demonstrate, she accepts phenomena usually dubbed superstition as valid reality and does so from a deep rootedness in her cultural identity as an African American woman.

Johnson illustrates Clifton's syncretism of the folk and the religious with a discussion of her children's book *The Lucky Stone* (1979). This stone—originating as a talisman that helped save the life of a slave girl Mandy and subsequently handed down to generations of her successors—is now, after Emancipation, in the possession of Mandy's daughter, Vashti. One Sunday when the weather is "strange and threatnin," Vashti attends a special and very spirited church service. The last to ascend the platform to testify, Vashti does so with her mother's stone worn in a pouch around her neck. The pouch string breaks, "hurling the stone to the ground"—and just as she jumps down to retrieve it, a mighty bolt of lightning strikes the platform, destroying it with fire. In the story, Vashti's descendant, Tee, who is being told this tale by her great grandmother, whispers, "That stone was sure lucky for her." The "Grandmama" replies with a smile, "That's cause it's a lucky stone" (Johnson 1990:88). Johnson comments on the meaning of this passage:

[T]here is little or no differentiation between the "religious" and the "superstitious" as commonly understood in everyday English. Recognizing this, the passage is both remarkable and unremarkable for the same reason—for the Black worshippers on this stormy afternoon, Vashti's shiny black stone is a savior just as God himself is a deliverer. Belief in God's power is at the base of the events taking place. Yet the power of the stone is an inextricable element too. Both are part of the acknowledged order of things. In this version of the event, in fact, it is the stone that is finally hailed as the protector.

(88)

Born of African cosmology and of experiences in America that often made no "sense," this ability to live well and happily with apparent contradiction is a notable feature of African American culture. It is certainly relevant for Clifton's overall spirituality and for her handling of the Bible and Christianity in her work.

These biblical poems occur in three primary places: (1) the "some jesus" sixteen-piece final section of good news about the earth (1972), (2) the eight-poem sequence about Mary in two-headed woman (1980). and (3) the "Tree of Life" section in quilting (1991), which consists of ten poems revolving around Lucifer, the fallen angel. One of the most immediately striking features of all these selections is Clifton's ability to see the ordinary in the extraordinary, to bring heaven "down" to earth and make "men" of gods (the hierarchical metaphors are inappropriate). This is a critical ingredient of her uniqueness and success. The intermingling of ordinary and extraordinary—whether she begins with one side or the other—is a characteristic feature of her consciousness and is reflected in her style. She reports that a friend of hers expresses the same idea by saying that she, Clifton, tries to find "the human in the mythology and the mythology in the human."

A single work from *Next* (1987), "my dream about God," illustrates Clifton's manipulation of these two dimensions. The beginning stanzas of the poem read:

He is wearing my grandfather's hat. He is taller than my last uncle. when He sits to listen He leans forward tilting the chair.

where His chin cups in my father's hand. it is swollen and hard from creation. His fingers drum on His knee dads stern tattoo.

(Clifton 1987b:41)

Here, God becomes anthropomorphic, family, familiar, complete with the appurtenances and mannerisms of the poet's male relatives, down to his work-hardened hands. This poem is reminiscent of Gwendolyn Brooks's "the preacher: ruminates behind the sermon" from her first collection, A Street in Bronzeville (1945). Brooks's work begins with the arresting lines: "I think it must be lonely to be God. / Nobody loves a master." It goes on to picture a Jehovah who strides importantly through his halls, but who has no one to take his arm, tweak his ear, or buy him a coke or beer. Perhaps, the poet wonders, "He tires of looking down. . . . Perhaps sometimes He tires of being great / In solitude. Without a hand to hold" (Brooks 1963:8). Not so with Clifton's God. He is a companionable father who, in the poem, "leans forward" and "strains to hear" his good daughter's wishes. Clifton has taken this basic conceit one step further, from the problem of Divine isolation to a solution which releases Him from His misery. Everyone is happier.

Her anthropomorphic strategies in this poem appear on a larger, amplified scale in the "some jesus" sequence. These are brief (as usual), first-person monologues, which read like soliloquies rather than like traditional dramatic monologues that assume a listener and an active context. The biblical characters who obviously do interest Clifton—are projected as ordinary folk. They are demythologized, debunked, leveled through homely imagery and contextualizations. Cain "plants tears" in the desert every morning that his brother Abel, whom he has slain, does not rise up (1972). And Job comes to the rags of his suffering "like a good baby / to breakfast." Perhaps the most heterodox (for some readers) of Clifton's strategems is that she further "Tevels" these biblical figures by making them racially black. This is apparent throughout in their language, for they speak an African American folk dialect of "be's," third-person subject-verb "disagreements," and colorful metaphor.

In addition, as if this were not enough to make her point, Clifton either clearly Africanizes history and historical context or slyly suggests their Afrocentric possibilities. Moses becomes "an old man / leaving slavery," which is literally and biblically true and also redolent of black United States history. Solomon blesses blackness in all its forms, from "the black skin of the woman" (the dark lover in his Song of Solomon or Songs) to the "black / night turning around her." On Palm Sunday, the people lay turnips for Christ's mule to walk on and wave beets and collard greens in the air (an especially humorous visualization). John the Baptist, the forerunner of Jesus Christ, announces:

somebody coming in blackness like a star and the world be a great bush on his head

i'm just only a baptist preacher somebody bigger than me coming in blackness like a star

(98)

The "great bush" calls to mind God inaugurating Moses' mission by speaking to him from the burning bush, while it simultaneously—and almost as a punbecomes a head of natural black hair, also called a "bush." After a reference like this and locutions such as "he be calling the people brother," it is almost impossible not to make John a black "baptist preacher."

Another arresting poem in this category is "jonah":

what i remember
is green
in the trees
and the leaves
and the smell of mango
and yams
and if i had a drum
i would send to the brothers
—Be care full of the ocean—

(97)

Speaking from the belly of the whale that swallowed him, Jonah waxes nostalgic about the sights, smells, and tastes of his tropical home. The crowning touch, however, is his yearning for one of the famed talking drums with which to warn his kin about the dangers of the ocean, a trope that spells enslavement and the Middle Passage—in addition to its accurate Bible reference.

Even in their biblical guises, many of the figures about which Clifton writes exhibit ordinary human traits—and this is probably what attracted her to them in the first place. (Limning these traits is certainly one way that Baptist preachers make their sermons interesting and effective for their congregations.) Jonah himself, for instance, runs away from responsibility, sleeps during a crisis, gets angry, inflexibly holds a grudge, and

sulks (see his story in the Book of Jonah). Clifton picks up on human cues like these and refracts them in her own image. The result is sometimes surprising, sometimes humorous, and always impressive. Her working in this way fits into the anthropomorphizing tendencies of African American folktales, where characters from the Bible and even God himself are similarly "raced" and humanized. Another, earlier woman writer, Zora Neale Hurston, displays this approach in her highly original folklore collection, Mules and Men (1935). Finally, it must be said that transforming biblical figures into plain black folks is a move that simultaneously levels and elevates. It brings the Bible's inhabitants down to earth, while it imparts to black people some of the status of universal heroes and heroines.

Clifton treads even further into heterodox territory when she adds sexual overtones to the human characteristics that these biblical personages exhibit. Often this is ambiguously referenced and ripples as a delicate undercurrent, but for almost any perceptive reader, it is there. Attend to her poem "mary":

this kiss as soft as cotton

over my breasts all shiny bright

something is in this night oh Lord have mercy on me

i feel a garden in my mouth

between my legs i see a tree

(1972:99)

This poem recounts Mary, the virgin betrothed to Joseph, being "gotten with child" by the Holy Spirit. However, it adds flesh and body to traditional projections of this event, corporealizing and even eroticizing what is usually treated as a strictly nonphysical and ethereal phenomenon. In the incoherence of their grammatical structure and the vague wonder of their words, the first two "couplets" indicate a mating experience. After this, a series of short, definite sentences follow, even though fear and awe are still present—especially in the plea to God for mercy. The final two "couplets" show Mary as a visionary who sees through this present happening to its ultimate result.

The garden in her mouth is Gethsemane, the place where Christ prayed shortly before the Last Supper, and the tree is certainly representative of his subse-