

CRITICISM

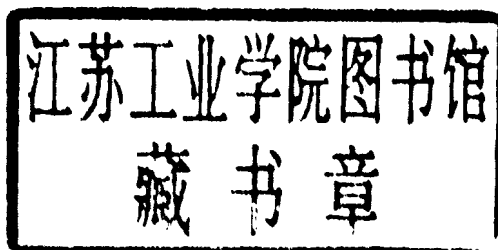
VOLUME

40

Poetry Criticism

*Excerpts from Criticism of the Works
of the Most Significant and Widely
Studied Poets of World Literature*

Volume 40



David Galens
Project Editor



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Poetry Criticism, Vol. 40

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Poetry Criticism

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Preface

Poetry Criticism (PC) presents significant criticism of the world's greatest poets and provides supplementary biographical and bibliographical material to guide the interested reader to a greater understanding of the genre and its creators. Although major poets and literary movements are covered in such Gale Literary Criticism series as *Contemporary Literary Criticism* (CLC), *Twentieth-Century Literary Criticism* (TCLC), *Nineteenth-Century Literature Criticism* (NCLC), *Literature Criticism from 1400 to 1800* (LC), and *Classical and Medieval Literature Criticism* (CMLC), PC offers more focused attention on poetry than is possible in the broader, survey-oriented entries on writers in these Gale series. Students, teachers, librarians, and researchers will find that the generous excerpts and supplementary material provided by PC supply them with the vital information needed to write a term paper on poetic technique, to examine a poet's most prominent themes, or to lead a poetry discussion group.

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- The **Introduction** contains background information that introduces the reader to the author and the critical debates surrounding his or her work.
- A **Portrait of the Author** is included when available.
- The list of **Principal Works** is ordered chronologically by date of first publication and lists the most important works by the author. The first section comprises poetry collections and book-length poems. The second section gives information on other major works by the author. For foreign authors, the editors have provided original foreign-language publication information and have selected what are considered the best and most complete English-language editions of their works.
- Reprinted **Criticism** is arranged chronologically in each entry to provide a useful perspective on changes in critical evaluation over time. All individual titles of poems and poetry collections by the author featured in the entry are printed in boldface type. The critic's name and the date of composition or publication of the critical work are given

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Marilyn Chin

1955-

(Full name Marilyn Mei Ling Chin) Chinese-born American poet.

INTRODUCTION

Chin is known for producing spare, often confrontational, poetry that explores her experience as a first-generation Chinese-American and a woman of color in the United States, as well as social and political injustices in her native China.

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Chin was born in Hong Kong in 1955 to George and Rose Chin, who emigrated to the American Northwest shortly after her birth. In a well-known poem, "How I Got That Name: An Essay on Assimilation," Chin meditated on the fact that her father, a restaurant proprietor in Oregon, incongruously named her after the American film and cultural icon Marilyn Monroe—an occurrence that helped form Chin's thoughts on the experience of assimilation in America. Chin received her B.A. at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst in 1977 and her M.F.A. at the University of Iowa in 1981. She worked as a translator and editor in the International Writing Program at the University of Iowa from 1978 to 1982. In 1988 Chin took a position as an assistant professor of creative writing at San Diego State University, becoming a full professor of English and Asian-American studies in 1996. Chin has won numerous fellowships and awards for her writing, including a National Endowment for the Arts grant in 1984-1985 and 1991; the Josephine Miles Award from PEN in 1994; and the Pushcart Prize in 1994, 1995, and 1997.

MAJOR WORKS

Chin's first collection of verse, *Dwarf Bamboo* (1987), which she dedicated to the Communist poet and revolutionary Ai Qing, contains many poems that focus on the immigrant experience in the United States. Chin continued this theme in her second collection, *The Phoenix Gone, The Terrace Empty* (1994). In this volume Chin began to more deeply explore the damaging effects of Western standards on women of color, notably in the autobiographical poem "How I Got That Name: An Essay on Assimilation," in which Chin bluntly describes her father's naming



her after "some tragic white woman / swollen with gin and Nembutal." *The Phoenix Gone* also contains a section entitled "Beijing Spring," a group of poems dealing with the 1989 student uprising in China's Tiananmen Square. *Rhapsody in Plain Yellow* (2001), Chin's third volume of poetry, again examines the struggle between heritage and the new world, mostly in poems exploring her relationship with her parents and grandparents. In this collection Chin drew inspiration for the forms and rhythms of her poems from Chinese music as well as Persian ghazals and American blues music.

CRITICAL RECEPTION

Critics have praised Chin's poetry for its unflinching examination of the contradictory feelings brought on by immigration in general and for Asian Americans specifically. Chin's openness about female sexuality and the social roles of women of color—in particular the image of

Asian women as exotic and doll-like—and her frequent references to the revolutionary movement in China have earned her a reputation as an important political feminist poet.

PRINCIPAL WORKS

Poetry

Dwarf Bamboo 1987
The Phoenix Gone, The Terrace Empty 1994
Rhapsody in Plain Yellow 2001

CRITICISM

George Uba (essay date 1992)

SOURCE: Uba, George. "Versions of Identity in Post-Activist Asian American Poetry." In *Reading the Literatures of Asian America*, edited by Shirley Geok-lin Lim and Amy Ling, pp. 33-48. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1992.

[In the following essay, Uba includes Chin in a discussion of Asian-American poets writing after the 1960s and 1970s, noting that Chin, in her poetry, is skeptical of the very source of personal and ethnic identity to which she is drawn.]

The raw energy of Asian-Pacific American "activist" poets of the late 1960s and early 1970s gave impetus to a literature in the process of self-discovery. By refereeing unexplored spaces of Asian American existence, these poets helped preside over an emerging ethnic consciousness and helped plot the sociopolitical vectors of the age. Seeking to "unmask" poetry by removing it from the elitist academy (which had sealed meanings in the esoteric and the arcane, renounced plainness of speech, and conferred shamanistic status on university professors), the activist writers sought to deliver poetry to the People, who, apprehending its "essentials," would renew it in the spirit of emerging political freedom. The activist spirit survives in the bristling warning contained in Janice Mirikitani's "We, the Dangerous":¹

We, the dangerous,
 Dwelling in the ocean.
 Akin to the jungle.
 Close to the earth.

Hiroshima
 Vietnam
 Tule Lake
 And yet we were not devoured.
 And yet we were not humbled.
 And yet we are not broken.

(Ayumi, 211)

Not uncommonly, activist poems resorted to linguistic shock tactics as well, as in these lines from Merle Woo's "Yellow Woman Speaks":

Yellow woman, a revolutionary speaks:

"They have mutilated our genitals, but I will
 restore them

.

I will create armies of . . . descendants.

And I will expose the lies and ridicule
 the impotence of those who have called us
 chink
 yellow-livered
 slanted cunts
 exotic
 in order to abuse and exploit us.
 And I will destroy them."

(Bruchac, 286)

Woo's poem eschews the conventional finesse of Euro-American poetry in an effort to confront directly the oppressors who have developed and perpetuated racist stereotypes. The revolutionary's vow is to multiply and to "destroy." Less confrontational, Mirikitani's approach is to assert the vitalizing power to endure. Nevertheless, she too warns that "we" are "dangerous." The impetus behind these poems is not only politics in the conventional sense but also the politics of poetry. Both poems align themselves self-consciously with an oral tradition. Woo's poem demands that it be spoken aloud ("a revolutionary speaks"); in the process it also contests standard Euro-American definitions of poetry by embracing polemic. Mirikitani's poem violates the contemporary "rules" of poetry by relying heavily on political slogans and the rhetoric of abstraction. Her poem aligns itself not with a theory of poetry as written inscription but with an oral tradition that blurs the distinction between poem and chant, and privileges performance over inscription. Moreover, the poem's paratactical linking of "Hiroshima / Vietnam / Tule Lake" reflects Russell Leong's notion of a "tribal" impulse common to poets of the late 1960s and early 1970s, an impulse that highlighted the "shared experience[s] of subjugation" among people of color and that actively sought to "unlock the . . . keys to memory and to provide a base for unity" (166).

This tribalism was a common way of negotiating identity, especially valuable as an ethnographic signifier of resistance to an oppressive, well-armed, and thoroughly entrenched dominant culture. It was a means of resisting the assimilationist ethic for so long spreading insidiously

across the American ethnic landscape by focusing on and celebrating differences between whites and people of color, while acknowledging both similarities and differences among the latter as well.² To some degree, much of contemporary Asian American poetry presupposes this activist base.

The situation has altered, however, in the sense that many of today's poets express at once an affinity for and a sense of distance from the activist tradition. In the wake of the profound demographic changes affecting Asian America, changes which have resulted in a diversity unimaginable twenty years ago, the reification of the "tribal" has become increasingly problematic.³ The dimensions of the effort to achieve a communal or "tribalistic" connection have multiplied, even as the results of such effort have grown less certain. Keenly aware of heterogeneity, as well as the absence of geographical centers, today's poets may yearn for a connection they can only ratify in a compromised form. They have been thrust back upon their sense of an individual self, an alteration implying the forfeiture of oral traditions. Joined with a loss of faith in the efficacy of language as an agent of social reform and as a reliable tool of representation, this individualizing tendency has redirected poets toward Euro-American poetics.

But with a difference. Today's poets tend to appropriate such poetics for their own ethnographic purposes. If, in acknowledging the provisional conduct of poetry, post-activist poets hold that identity, whether tribal or otherwise, is always in doubt, it is not that the issue of identity has ceased to demand their attention. Indeed, the post-activist poem tends to recognize problematics of language and event both as a way of approaching identity and of renouncing its stability. Although these recognitions extend to an increasing number of poets, recent works by Marilyn Chin and David Mura and the special case of John Yau reveal some of the distinct contours that Asian American poetry currently describes. For Chin and Mura—although in different ways—conceiving identity is only possible by foregrounding its partialities, while for Yau every version of identity is radically contestable because of the unstable nature of the tools used to conceptualize it.

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In dedicating her book *Dwarf Bamboo* to the Communist poet and revolutionary Ai Qing, Marilyn Chin reveals an affinity with the collectivist politics of the activist poets. However, her skepticism toward unificatory gestures and her intense recognition of identity as process rather than as cultural preserve lead her to question the very impulses toward which she is otherwise drawn. The poem "**Segments of a Bamboo Screen**," for example, conjoins the centrifugal tendencies of world politics with the inability to negotiate pictorial unity out of the "segments" of the bamboo screen. The speaker questions the bamboo screen artist's ability to "sit there on top of the world" and gain a perspective "that I cannot" (18)—a centrist position around which all others supposedly revolve. For this speaker, the partial replaces the whole: "The moon is gibbous. Just say / She shall no longer pay you her full attention" (17).

Chin is also acutely aware of how historical contingencies intrude upon every version of identity. Rather than stabilizing a connection to her "Parent Node," Chin's frequent use of historicized personae reveals the provisional nature of all identity. The poems "**The Landlord's Wife**" and "**Untrimmed Mourning**" offer contrasting portraits of the widows of two Chinese men, one a wealthy landlord slain in the course of political ferment in 1919 and the other a poor man who had "only small pink babies / and one good hog" (14). Years later in post-revolutionary China, the landlord's wife, who still regrets her loss of status as "the wealthiest woman in Guang Dung," nevertheless repudiates her husband's memory and proclaims her allegiance to Chairman Mao. "I never loved him, never. / The only man I love now, the only man I believe—/ The man from above, from Yenan" (12). For the impoverished widow remaining in prerevolutionary China, however, who for ten years has "gulped down / this loneliness," the continuing pressures of survival have forced her to drag the hog to market where she will proclaim in broken dialect, "'Rich man, have you no / dollars to taste?'" (14). The "Chinese" identity of these two survivors is self-consciously multiple, deriving from no acknowledged center but negotiated among historical contingencies. In severing her allegiance to her landlord husband's estate, the rich widow responds to a far-reaching alteration in political circumstances, while the poor widow responds to an immediate change in her personal environment. At the same time, it is evident that each woman's sense of identity is subject to further internal shift, depending on forces beyond her control.

As history destabilizes identity, so can ideology. The poem "**After My Last Paycheck from the Factory . . .**" takes as its epigraph, "For the Chinese Cultural Revolution and all that was wrong with my life" (21)—a satirical thrust at the notion that Mao's Cultural Revolution conferred a stable identity upon everyone of Chinese descent. And, indeed, in the poem a youthful Chinese American expatriate working in a Communist factory experiences a profound revulsion when she invites an elderly Chinese man for an afternoon meal. The sight of old Liu eating dog and smacking "his greasy lips" is enough to make the woman yearn for "home" and her "lover's gentle kisses" (21). Although the sight of two girls wearing uniforms, bandanas, and armbands and "shouting slogans and Mao-ish songs" momentarily reminds her of why she has come to China in the first place, "the realist Liu" disrupts this "mirage" by revealing that the raw conditions of life have not changed for him, for as he declares, "'It's the dog I ordered and am eating still!'" (21). The dog has spots, "rampant colonies of scabies and fleas," and a forehead that "bled with worms" (21-22). The woman says, "I rubbed my eyes, readjusted the world" (22). But through Chin's lenses, the world must be read just yet again. For a neighboring patron, a "stout provincial governor" who dines for free on fine "Chinese pug, twenty-five yuan a leg" and who afterwards flaunts his wealth, is destined, according to Liu, to pay a drastic penalty for his reactionary ways: "'and he as dead as the four-legged he ate / two short kilometers before home'" (22).

By setting itself skeptically on the shifting borders of ideological rectitude, the poem complicates the leftist political identification that constitutes the radical base of an "authentic" Asian American identity. Obviously, though, it also prohibits the retreat into bourgeois complacency. At the end of the poem, the woman is given no firm ideological hold on her own identity. Whatever she thought it was is now called into question; whatever it may become remains in a state of flux.

If history and ideology move toward the destabilization of identity, their "absence" exacts a similar price. Originally from Hong Kong, Chin has spent most of her life in America. In the poem "**Repulse Bay**," the "dead and swimming creatures of the sea" are images of the speaker herself, struggling to remain culturally afloat in a defamiliarized locale, a part of "the country I have lost" (64). In the poem "**A Chinaman's Chance**," Chin acknowledges the special difficulties faced by the American-born Chinese attempting to recover the Chinese American past when only its fragments remain. The inability to pattern oneself after Chinese ancestors in America is stated succinctly in the lines "The railroad killed your great-grandfather / His arms here, his legs there. . . . / *How can we remake ourselves in his image?*" (29). That is, how can a connection be forged with an image that has been rent, scattered, and left unpreserved? With an ancestor who can only be recalled—both physically and otherwise—in pieces? Such a dilemma can be exacerbated by alienation from traditional systems of belief, an alienation manifested in the sardonic question posed at the poem's start:

If you were a Chinese born in America, who would
you believe
Plato who said what Socrates said
Or Confucius in his bawdy way:
"So a male child is born to you
I am happy, very very happy."

(29)

The repudiation of traditional beliefs further problematizes the effort to recover a "lost" identity.

Yet, despite their instabilities, it is wrong to assume that Chin's views of identity inevitably testify to loss. In the poem "**I confess . . .**" the speaker expresses a dialogic relationship between cultures by reading alternately Bachelard's "The Poetics of Space" and chapters from "The Compassionate Buddha." She pens ironic "letters of progress":

one day I am filial
monkey, practicing reading
and writing. Next day
I wear ink
eyeliner, open up
Mandarin frock for the boys.

(53-54)

The speaker's mischievous "confession" regarding her obsessive movement between cultures is partly an acknowledgment of the intellectual tradition of the West,

which she willingly inherits. But more to the point, it is simultaneously a defense of an identity kept vital by its own instability. For Chin, the question of identity is engaging precisely because it is never still. The alternative—to snatch "a quick decision—/ to marry Chinese, / to succeed in business, / to buy that slow boat" (54)—is to avoid the vexations and rewards of self-examination by impulsive marriage to convention. Attending only to "business" means boarding a "slow boat" bound for a cultural nowhere.

Like Marilyn Chin, David Mura, author of the book *After We Lost Our Way*, acknowledges how activist poets serve as his literary ancestors, even as he insists upon his necessary differences from them. As a third-generation Japanese American, Mura feels a particular connection with the activists of twenty years ago of whom so many were also at least third-generation Asian Americans. The anger, outrage, and alienation they shared are especially manifest in Mura's poems dealing with racism, internment camps, and assimilation. Like Chin, Mura operates from outside the earlier oral tradition, even though he remains attracted to the aural (as is evidenced by several poems bearing the words "suite," "song," and "argument" in their titles). But whereas Chin remains skeptical of the communalistic impulse as a basis for identity, even as she yearns for its retrieval, Mura campaigns at once to recover and expand the impulse by embracing other marginalized lives—the oppressed, wretched, and suffering in all stations and cultures, including (in a singularly bold stroke) the homosexual Italian film director and writer Pasolini. By embracing even a white male European, Mura testifies to the impossibility of containing identity along purely racial and ethnic lines. Identity may also be conceived in the presence of lives outwardly removed from one's own.

Pasolini, as Mura explains in a series of eleven poems strategically placed at the center of his book, frequented the brutal Italian demimonde of "punks, pickpockets, whores," even as he directed brilliant, controversial films—nearly all of them censored, denounced, or involved in lawsuits—that assure his place in film history. From the peasant son of a father devoted to Mussolini to the adult "crazy about Marx and *terza rima*" (25) and from his compassion for slum dwellers to his autocratic desire "to subjugate, to block / his [lover's] ego's light with the shadow of mine" (30), Pasolini was a figure steeped in contradictions. Refusing to abjure "the ambiguous life" (25), Pasolini was persecuted in the popular press and prosecuted in a series of demeaning public trials.

In the majority of these poems Mura assumes a mask, usually that of Pasolini himself—Pasolini describing his seduction at the hands of his young lover Ninetto, Pasolini describing his ambivalence toward Roland Barthes or writing a letter from Nepal to Alberto Moravia, Pasolini transcribing a stunning apologia for his promiscuous, risk-filled life—while interspersing these subjective accounts with neutral ones of his brutal murder by a teenager, a "two-bit thief" (44). Although Pasolini seems as remote

from conventional Japanese American experience as humanly imaginable, Mura identifies him as a sort of presiding spirit, joined to the author by his powerful sense of alienation from bourgeois culture, by his artistry, and by his human frailty. Despite the apparent modesty of the title, the centrally placed poem "Intermission: Postcard from Rome" elucidates the nature and depth of the connection between the two artists. In a cemetery in Casarsa the American wife, a descendant of the Mayflower Pilgrims, discovers Pasolini's simple stone marker. It lies "next to the stone of Susanna," his mother; coincidentally, the American wife's name is "Susie" (37). Here, at the grave, the Japanese American poet stares at the stone of the Italian filmmaker and begins to weep, apologizing once because "it seems so predictable." Later, the speaker acknowledges that "in my country, // it's customary to ask why, why Pasolini?" (38). That is, why should a Japanese American poet be drawn so powerfully to Pasolini? The speaker answers, "We are young. We believe in the unconscious, an emotional life" (38). A stream of connection, unconscious and emotional, underlies and proceeds from the two lives despite surface discontinuities. The speaker affirms, "It's no good to say my genes are Japanese" (38), as though that simple biological accident somehow accounts for an entire identity. The speaker acknowledges, "We will never be intimate. Will always be the same" (38). They will always be the same in their lack of intimacy; their distance will never be completely bridged. Their identities are acknowledged as conjunctural, not identical. But at the same time the speaker reaffirms at the end the initiating connection: "Dear ghost, do not go to another house" (38). Only in this one poem is the issue of the speaker's Japanese American identity directly raised. But the affirmation of the connection to Pasolini suggests the plural possibilities of identity within the framework of opposition, rage, and outrage.

Elsewhere, Mura offers a gallery of portraits of the infirm and dying, the lost and the as-good-as lost. The range itself is remarkable—an architect's five-year old son dying, a Cambodian refugee bound for France, a Viet Cong recalling the men he has slain, a man in a pornographic bookstore, another turned informer in South Africa, a brutally beaten woman lying in a hospital emergency room. The nearly unbearable cry of pain, so heterogeneous in its sources yet so alarmingly unified in its despair, contributes to Mura's idea of identity expanded beyond its customary limits.

Ostensibly, then, Mura merely expands what the activist tradition had all along pointed in the direction of—a syncretical identity of the oppressed that resolves all the competing elements of experience. But the difference between him and the activist writers is pronounced, starting with the fact that he acknowledges linguistic limitations, admitting that language can result in "dangling rantings" (71) and averring that even at its best, its value in a world marked by profound suffering remains problematic. Like Marilyn Chin, Mura also acknowledges that all ideas about identity are in some way inadequate, partial, and

contradictory, even as he asserts that it is these very properties that help us to install identity at any moment in history. So imperfect, partial, and inherently contradictory is any expressed notion of identity that it cannot be known through any concrete instance; yet these same partialities and contradictions necessarily point in the direction of identity. As Fredric Jameson so succinctly puts it in describing Adorno's *Negative Dialektik* (Adorno is one of Mura's intellectual affiliations), "a negative dialectic has no choice but to affirm the notion and value of an ultimate synthesis, while negating its possibility and reality in every concrete case that comes before it" (56).

It is in this light that Mura's continual yearning for reconciliation, wholeness, and the unification of identity must be understood. The opening lines of his book's first poem, "Grandfather and Grandmother in Love," elucidate the poet's charge: "Now I will ask for one true word beyond / betrayal" (3). This word should be as true, as authentic, as the speaker takes the sex act between his grandparents in love to have been. Taking this "one true word," the speaker will "crack it, like a seed / between the teeth, spit it out in the world" (3), where, it is hoped, it may take root. The effort seemingly reflects what Adorno describes as "neo-romantic" poetry's endeavor "to recover some of the substantiality of language" (*Aesthetic Theory*, 23). For Mura, to substantialize language would be to re-substantialize his grandparents' pasts, to negotiate identity with an instrument made reliable and whole once again.

But Mura's poetry does not actually suggest either that language can be resubstantialized or identity stabilized in this way. In investigating identities within a given group, Mura repeatedly uncovers contradictions. In "A Nisei Picnic: From an Album" he describes an uncle, a veteran of the war, who eventually "ballooned like Buddha, / over three hundred pounds"; an aunt who tried vainly to raise minks instead of children; and the speaker's father who "worked . . . hard to be white" (14). The use of the family photograph to inscribe these disparate selves in a version of unity serves as reminder of how such family presentations constitute a lie collectively assented to, functioning to conceal rather than reveal differences. The speaker, still a young boy in the old photo, sees through the imposture in a burst of helpless sympathy: "Who are these grown-ups? / Why are they laughing? How can I tear / the bewilderment from their eyes?" (14).

Such self-awareness joins with vituperation in "Song for Uncle Tom, Tonto, and Mr. Moto," where Mura savages the unitary mask that racial stereotyping assumes by proclaiming a declaration of war to be waged by the obsequious yes-men of popular culture. These oppressed—African American, American Indian, Hispanic, Asian American—who have been forced to "live in the monstrous sarcophagi" of a "white cultivated heart" (15), have forged an alliance of the oppressed out of their hurt and rage. Here Mura self-consciously aligns himself with the tribal impulse and comes closest to connecting with an oral tradition of song. The creature orchestrating this rage is "Kit-

sune, the fox," a trickster figure with a "sneaky inscrutable body" (15) who reveals not only the inadequacy of racial stereotypes but also the yearning for an authentic identity. But himself a polymorphous figure, Kitsune cannot help but represent the uncertain nature of the identity aspired to. Linked by a shared outrage over oppression, the identities behind the mask of Kitsune nevertheless are never wholly revealed. By use of Kitsune, the poem necessarily acknowledges its own partialness.

Mura offers no enduring consolation in the form of language or event, no "true word beyond / betrayal" (the poem "The One Who Tells, The One Who Burns" describes a black South African watching the brutal murder of the black man he has informed on). Indeed, the poem "Hope Without Hope" contests the value of writing at all: "Words on the page, prayers, even shouts of rage, / What do they count against tanks, missiles, guns?" (61). Alternating lines of the poem rhyme, often conventionally ("rage"/"wage"; "guns"/"one"), as if to point up the futility of poetry against the unrhymed brutalities of existence. One's "poems are like roses," we are told, "Washed in the gutter by a dozen hoses" (61). Throughout there persists the feeling that language, no matter how powerfully expressed, changes nothing. And even though the despair is sometimes countered by "moments of release" (76) and affirmation, it is always with the sense of the temporal, with the acute knowledge that every brief burst of "clarity" contains as well the threat of its own extinction.

Only in the poem "The Natives" is an image of perfect unification offered. It is here where "time disappeared" (22), here where soldiers are absorbed into a mysterious, pacifistic "native" culture and gradually transformed into peaceful beings, "like soft-eyed virgins" (22). Gradually, the speaker of the poem says, "our names / fell from our mouths, never heard again" (21). But this note of reconciliation and transcendence recognizes at the same time its own unreality. Indeed, the markedly "unreal" conditions are what allow such a note to sound at all. Thus, the unificatory identity is negated as an actuality even as it is affirmed as an ideal.

Unlike both Chin and Mura, John Yau poses the special instance of the writer who not only eschews communalistic connections and oral traditions of poetry but affiliates with decidedly Western traditions of modern art (he doubles as an art critic). Author of *Corpse and Mirror*, along with at least six other volumes of poetry, Yau utilizes many of the elements associated with experimental writing, including discontinuous narrative, suspended logic, blurred distinctions between animate and inanimate objects, and a network of private symbols. His effort primarily is to disconnect rather than connect, to project a world cut off from certitude—a world in which human beings exist in perpetual exile, their lives an amalgam of absurdity, banality, and insufficiency, and in which politics are the ephemerae of a provisional reality. By contesting myths and other structuring devices as coherent stewards of meaning, as well as language as a reliable epistemologi-

cal tool, Yau posits a world of disorder in which the unstable traces of identity threaten to dissolve as quickly as they appear.

Evidence of such instability can be found in the prose poem "Two Kinds of Story-Telling," which describes an immigrant woman for whom the China of her childhood is recalled as a fairy tale, "a kind of Eden she could never return to" (72). Yet in the second telling of her story, she focuses on "how the present is better, and how the future will be better still." Behind this second version, the narrator asserts, lies the indigenous narrative of "the passage of the *Mayflower* to the New World," even though the names *Mayflower*, *Pilgrim*, and *Plymouth Rock* are associated in the woman's mind only with a moving van and insurance ads (72). The point is that the woman's sensibility has been incidentally conditioned by things she has come into contact with in America, and in the process she has become more thoroughly imbued with an American myth than even she is aware. The line of demarcation between the exile longing for her Chinese home and the immigrant at home in America becomes hopelessly blurred by such subconscious activity, as does the identity such demarcations are intended to reveal.

Behind the problematics of identity lies Yau's skepticism regarding the organizing properties of myth and other forms of narrative. Consistently foregrounding how writer and readers together create meaning, his poems acknowledge "the human urge to make order while pointing out that the orders we create are just that: human constructs, not natural or given entities" (Hutcheon 41-42). "Missing Pages," which describes an unidentified resort island whose featured attraction is a pair of "jeweled towers" rising out of a bay—"symbols of the miraculous"—parodies one type of mythmaking (33). The creation legend surrounding these towers begins "in daylight and desire" (33), which means that "anyone can add whatever they like to the story, or take some chunk of it away" (34). The precise details are later settled upon by vote of the city council at the beginning of the tourist season, and the story is passed on to the inhabitants' children as the "basis for the entire [school] curriculum" (34).

Yau also challenges language as a reliable epistemological tool. The poem "Persons in the Presence of a Metamorphosis," whose title pays homage to Mirò, demonstrates his method. It begins thus:

The porcelain bayonet of noon scrapes the face
of a man who has forgotten why he started
to spit. A uniformed girl,

tiny and tireless, memorizes words
she believes make accurate mirrors.
A nun felt damp and gray. . . .

(19)

Just as Mirò attempts simultaneously to quicken and release a flux of energies through his biomorphs, Yau disturbs and liberates the individual word from its "inert"