CHAPTER 42 Critical Strategies for Reading



Courtesy of George Eastman House, International Museum of Photography and Film.

Great literature is simply language charged with meaning to the utmost possible degree.

EZRA POUND



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The answers you get from literature depend upon the questions you pose.

- MARGARET ATWOOD

CRITICAL THINKING

Maybe this has happened to you: the assignment is to write an analysis of some aspect of a work — let's say, Nathaniel Hawthorne's The Scarlet Letter — that interests you and takes into account critical sources that comment on and interpret the work. You cheerfully begin research through your library's website but quickly find yourself bewildered by several seemingly unrelated articles. The first traces the thematic significance of images of light and darkness in the novel; the second makes a case for Hester Prynne as a liberated woman; the third argues that Arthur Dimmesdale's guilt is a projection of Hawthorne's own emotions; and the fourth analyzes the introduction, "The Custom-House," as an attack on bourgeois values. These disparate treatments may seem random and capricious — a confirmation of your worst suspicions that interpretations of literature are hit-or-miss excursions into areas that you know little about or didn't know even existed. But if you understand that the four articles are written from four different perspectives — formalist, feminist, psychological, and Marxist and that the purpose of each is to enhance your understanding of the novel by discussing a particular element of it, then you can see that the articles' varying strategies represent potentially interesting ways of opening up the text that might otherwise never have occurred to you. There are many ways to approach a text, and a useful first step is to develop a sense of direction, an understanding

of how a perspective — your own or a critic's — shapes a discussion of a text.

This chapter offers an introduction to critical approaches to literature by outlining a variety of strategies for reading fiction, poetry, or drama. These strategies include approaches that have long been practiced by readers who have used, for example, the insights gleaned from biography and history to illuminate literary works as well as more recent approaches, such as those used by critics who rely on theories related to specialized contextual categories like gender, reader-response, and deconstruction. Each of these perspectives is sensitive to point of view, symbol, tone, irony, and other literary elements that you have been studying, but each also casts those elements in a special light. The formalist approach emphasizes how the elements within a work achieve their effects, whereas biographical and psychological approaches lead outward from the work to consider the author's life and other writings. Even broader approaches, such as historical and cultural perspectives, connect the work to historic and social phenomena that frame literary production. Mythological readings represent the broadest approach because they link an individual work to narrative structures and tropes that have repeated across multiple cultures and time periods.

Any given strategy raises its own types of questions and issues while seeking particular kinds of evidence to illustrate its concerns. An awareness of the assumptions and methods that inform an approach

can help you to understand better the validity and value of a given critic's strategy for making sense of a work. More important, such an understanding can widen and deepen the responses of your own reading.

The critical thinking that goes into understanding a professional critic's approach to a work is not foreign to you because you have already used essentially the same kind of thinking to understand the work itself. You have developed skills to produce a literary *analysis* that describes how a character, symbol, or rhyme scheme supports a theme. These same skills are also useful for reading literary criticism because they allow you to keep track of how the parts of a critical approach create a particular reading of a literary work. When you analyze a story, poem, or play by closely examining how its various elements relate to the whole, your *interpretation* — your articulation of what the work means to you as supported by an analysis of its elements — necessarily involves choosing what you focus on in the work. The same is true of professional critics.

The following overview of critical strategies for reading is neither exhaustive in the types of critical approaches covered nor complete in its presentation of the complexities inherent in them, but it should help you to develop an appreciation of the intriguing possibilities that attend literary interpretation. The emphasis in this chapter is on ways of thinking about literature rather than on daunting lists of terms, names, and movements. Although a working

knowledge of critical schools may be valuable and necessary for a fully informed use of a given critical approach, the aim here is more modest and practical. This chapter is no substitute for the shelves of literary criticism that can be found in your library or for the databases that can be accessed on its website, but it does suggest how different perspectives produce different readings of texts.

The summaries of critical approaches that follow are descriptive, not evaluative. Each approach has its advantages and limitations. In practice, many critical approaches overlap and complement each other, but those matters are best left to further study. Like literary artists, critics have their personal values, tastes, and styles. The appropriateness of a specific critical approach will depend, at least in part, on the nature of the literary work under discussion as well as on your own sensibilities and experience. However, any approach, if it is to enhance understanding, requires sensitivity, tact, and an awareness of the various literary elements of the text, including, of course, its use of language.

Successful critical approaches avoid eccentric decodings that reveal so-called hidden meanings that are not only hidden but totally absent from the text. For a parody of this sort of critical excess, see "A Parodic Interpretation of 'Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening," in which Herbert R. Coursen Jr. has some fun with a Robert Frost poem and Santa Claus while making a serious point about the dangers of overly ingenious readings. Literary criticism attempts, like any valid hypothesis, to account for phenomena

within a text without distorting or misrepresenting what it describes.

FORMALIST STRATEGIES

Formalist critics focus on the formal elements of a work — its language, structure, tone, and the conventions of its genre. The word form at the root of formalism is key: each work of literature is a unique object, but one that helps us to understand the form it has taken, or the way it was formed. A formalist reads literature as an independent work of art rather than as a reflection of the author's state of mind or as a representation of a moment in history. Historic influences on a work, an author's intentions, or anything else outside the work are generally not treated by formalists. (This is particularly true of the most famous modern formalists, known as the New Critics, who dominated American criticism from the 1940s through the 1960s.) Instead, formalists offer intense examinations of the relationship between form and meaning within a work, emphasizing the subtle complexity of how a work is arranged. This kind of close reading pays special attention to what are often described as intrinsic matters in a literary work, such as diction, irony, paradox, metaphor, and symbol, as well as larger elements, such as plot, characterization, and narrative technique. Formalists examine how these elements work together to give a coherent shape (or "unity") to a work while contributing to its meaning. The answers to the questions formalists raise about how the shape and effect of a work are related come from the work itself. Other kinds of information that go beyond the text — biography, history, politics, economics, and so on — are typically regarded by formalists as

extrinsic matters, which are considerably less important than what goes on within the autonomous text.

For an example of a work in which the shape of the plot serves as the major organizing principle, let's examine Kate Chopin's "The Story of an Hour," a two-page short story that takes only a few minutes to read. A first reading probably results in surprise at the story's ending: a grieving wife "afflicted with a heart trouble" suddenly dies of a heart attack, not because she's learned that her kind and loving husband has been killed in a terrible train accident but because she discovers that he is alive, and thus still in her life. Clearly, we are witnessing an ironic situation since there is such a powerful incongruity between what is expected to happen and what actually happens. A likely formalist strategy for analyzing this story would be to raise questions about the ironic ending. Is this merely a trick ending, or is it a carefully wrought culmination of other elements in the story resulting in an interesting and challenging theme?

Formalists value such complexities over simple surprise effects.

A second, closer reading indicates that Chopin's third-person narrator presents the story in a manner similar to Josephine's gentle attempts to break the news about Brently Mallard's death. The story is told in "veiled hints that [reveal] in half concealing." But unlike Josephine, who tries to protect her sister's fragile heart from stress, the narrator seeks to reveal Mrs. Mallard's complex heart. A formalist would look back over the story for signs of the ending in

the imagery. Although Mrs. Mallard grieves immediately and unreservedly when she hears about the train disaster, she soon begins to feel a different emotion as she looks out the window at "the tops of trees ... all aquiver with the new spring life." This symbolic evocation of renewal and rebirth — along with "the delicious breath of rain," the sounds of life in the street, and the birds singing — causes her to feel, in spite of her own efforts to repress her thoughts and emotions, "free, free, free!" She feels alive with a sense of possibility, with a "clear and exalted perception" that she "would live for herself" instead of for and through her husband.

It is ironic that this ecstatic "self-assertion" is interpreted by Josephine as grief, but the crowning irony for this "goddess of Victory" is the doctors' assumption that she dies of joy rather than of the shock of having to abandon her newly discovered self once she realizes her husband is still alive. In the course of an hour, Mrs. Mallard's life is irretrievably changed: her husband's assumed accidental death frees her, but the fact that he lives combined with all the expectations imposed on her by his continued life kill her. She does, indeed, die of a broken heart, but only Chopin's readers know the real ironic meaning of that explanation.

Although this brief discussion of some of the formal elements of Chopin's story does not describe all there is to say about how they produce an effect and create meaning, it does suggest the kinds of questions, issues, and evidence that a formalist strategy might raise in providing a close reading of the text itself.

BIOGRAPHICAL STRATEGIES

A knowledge of an author's life can help readers understand his or her work more fully. Events in a work might follow actual events in a writer's life just as characters might be based on people known by the author. Relevant facts about an author's life can make clearer the source of his or her convictions and how his or her own experiences inform the major concerns showcased in a given work. Biographical details might also help to fill in some of the context for the author's motivation for writing about a certain subject, or for writing about it a certain way. The aim of a biographical critic would not be to equate the author and a character in a story, or voice in a poem. The *biographer* might want to solidify such connections between author and creation, but the *critic* would use those connections to frame an interpretive response.

Some formalist critics — some New Critics, for example — argue that interpretation should be based exclusively on internal evidence rather than on any biographical information outside the work. They argue that it is not possible to determine an author's intention and that the work must stand by itself. Although this is a useful caveat for keeping the work in focus, a reader who finds biography relevant would argue that biography can at the very least serve to narrow the scope of possible interpretations.

However, it is also worth noting that biographical information can complicate a work. Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" presents a repressed wife's momentary discovery of what freedom from her husband might mean to her. She awakens to a new sense of herself when she learns of her husband's death, only to collapse of a heart attack when she sees that he is alive. Readers might be tempted to interpret this story as Chopin's fictionalized commentary about her own marriage because her husband died twelve years before she wrote the story and seven years before she began writing fiction seriously. Biographers seem to agree, however, that Chopin's marriage was evidently satisfying to her and that she was not oppressed by her husband and did not feel oppressed.

Moreover, consider this diary entry from only one month after Chopin wrote the story (quoted by Per Seyersted in *Kate Chopin: A Critical Biography*):

If it were possible for my husband and my mother to come back to earth, I feel that I would unhesitatingly give up everything that has come into my life since they left it and join my existence again with theirs. To do that, I would have to forget the past ten years of my growth — my real growth. But I would take back a little wisdom with me; it would be the spirit of perfect acquiescence.

This passage raises provocative questions instead of resolving them. How does that "spirit of perfect acquiescence" relate to Mrs. Mallard's insistence that she "would live for herself"? Why would Chopin be willing to "forget the past ten years of ... growth" given her protagonist's desire for "self-assertion"? Although these and other questions raised by the diary entry cannot be answered here, this kind of biographical perspective certainly adds to the possibilities of interpretation. Critics should always be cautious about assuming that a character is automatically a stand-in for the author. The narrator of a short story, speaker of a poem, or protagonist of a play might in fact be a character far removed from the author's sensibility, even a character that the author has created in order to critique that character's thoughts, words, or behavior. There might be a literary reason for having created that character, such as to engage in a debate with another character in order to advance a work's theme. Unless you are thoroughly familiar with an author's biography, we would caution against taking the biographical details you know as the defining factors in an interpretation. These details are better thought of as signposts than treasure maps.

Psychological Strategies

Given the enormous influence that Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theories have had on twentieth-century interpretations of human behavior, it is nearly inevitable that most people have some familiarity with his ideas concerning dreams, unconscious desires, and sexual repression, as well as his terms for different aspects of

the psyche — the id, ego, and superego. Certainly an enormous number of twentieth-century European and American authors knew Freud's theories, and that awareness is evident in many literary works, even if authors did not agree with Freud or with the other theorists he influenced. But a critic using Freud's theories would not even necessarily need to know how much an author engaged with those theories: the works themselves can be used to illustrate or dispute the validity of Freud's theories. Psychological approaches to literature often draw on Freud's theories or other psychoanalytic theories to understand more fully the text, the writer, and the reader. Critics use such approaches to explore the motivations of characters and the symbolic meanings of events, while biographers speculate about a writer's own motivations — conscious or unconscious — in a literary work. Psychological approaches can also be used to describe and analyze a reader's responses to a text.

Although it is not feasible to explain psychoanalytic terms and concepts in so brief a space as this, it is possible to suggest the nature of a psychological approach. It is a strategy based heavily on the idea of the existence of a human unconscious — those impulses, desires, and feelings that a person is unaware of but that influence emotions and behavior.

Central to a number of psychoanalytic critical readings is Freud's concept of what he called the <u>Oedipus complex</u>, a term derived from Sophocles' tragedy *Oedipus the King* (<u>Chapter 36</u>). This complex is

predicated on a boy's unconscious rivalry with his father for his mother's love and his desire to eliminate his father in order to take his father's place with his mother. The female version of the psychological conflict is known as the *Electra complex*, a term used to describe a daughter's unconscious rivalry with her mother for her father's affection. The name comes from a Greek legend about Electra, who avenged the death of her father, Agamemnon, by plotting the death of her mother. In *The Interpretation of Dreams*, Freud explains why *Oedipus the King* "moves a modern audience no less than it did the contemporary Greek one." What unites their powerful attraction to the play is an unconscious response:

There must be something which makes a voice within us ready to recognize the compelling force of destiny in the *Oedipus....*His destiny moves us only because it might have been ours — because the oracle laid the same curse upon us before our birth as upon him. It is the fate of all of us, perhaps, to direct our first sexual impulse towards our mother and our first hatred and our first murderous wish against our father. Our dreams convince us that this is so. King Oedipus, who slew his father Laios and married his mother Iokaste, merely shows us the fulfillment of our own childhood wishes ... and we shrink back from him with the whole force of the repression by which those wishes have since that time been held down within us.

In this passage Freud interprets the unconscious motives of Sophocles in writing the play, Oedipus in acting within it, and the audience in responding to it. Although the Oedipus complex is, of course, not relevant to all psychological interpretations of literature, interpretations involving this complex do offer a useful example of how psychoanalytic critics might approach a text.

The situation in which Mrs. Mallard finds herself in Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" is not related to an Oedipus complex, but it is clear that news of her husband's death has released powerful unconscious desires for freedom that she had previously suppressed. As she grieved, "something" was "coming to her and she was waiting for it, fearfully." What comes to her is what she senses about the life outside her window; that's the stimulus, but the true source of what was to "possess her," which she strove to "beat ... back with her [conscious] will," is her desperate desire for the autonomy and fulfillment she had been unable to admit did not exist in her marriage. A psychological approach to her story amounts to a case study in the destructive nature of self-repression. Moreover, the story might reflect Chopin's own views of her marriage despite her conscious statements about her loving husband, for to admit her true feelings to herself or to her public might not be possible.

One key motif to pay attention to if you are interested in psychological interpretations of literature is the presence of dreams or dream-imagery in literature. Although there has been a great deal of debate over the centuries about what dreams "mean" — ranging

from prophecy, to random spasms of our brains, to the field of our unconscious desires — they are potent repositories of meaning in literary contexts. In Ralph Ellison's story "King of the Bingo Game," the protagonist initially dozes off during a movie, and much of the rest of the story depicts him in a kind of trance-like state in which the imagery doesn't make perfect sense — just as one might experience life in a dream. The speaker of John Keats's "Ode to a Nightingale" famously asks of his experience, "Was it a vision, or a waking dream? / Fled is that music: do I wake or sleep?" At the end of another famous poem, "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock," T. S. Eliot's speaker concludes with surreal, dream-like, underwater imagery which will last "Till human voices wake us, and we drown." The juxtaposition of irrational images, whether or not framed as an actual dream, will alert the psychoanalytic critic to the possibility that we are witnessing the border between rational and irrational urges, or between the conscious and unconscious mind. Humans can't always articulate what they desire or fear; dreams can sometimes provide a key.

Historical Strategies

Historians sometimes use literature as a window onto the past because literature frequently provides the nuances of a historic period that cannot be readily perceived through other sources. Another way of approaching the relationship between literature and history, however, is to use history as a means of understanding a literary work more clearly. The approach assumes that the writing contemporary to an author is an important element of the history that helps to shape a work. There are many ways to talk about the historical and cultural dimensions of a work. Such readings treat a literary text as a document reflecting, producing, or being produced by the social conditions of its time, giving equal focus to the social milieu and the work itself. The general impulse to view literature through a historical lens provides context for meaning. There are more refined or more ideological versions of historical approaches, too: Marxist criticism, new historicist criticism, and cultural criticism.

A work of literature may transcend time to the extent that it addresses the concerns of readers over a span of decades or centuries, but it remains for the historical critic a part of the past in which it was composed, a past that can reveal more fully a work's language, ideas, and purposes. When using a historical approach, critics move beyond both the facts of an author's personal life and the text itself to the social and intellectual currents in which the author composed the work. They place the work in the context of its time, and sometimes they make connections with other literary or artistic works that may have influenced the author. The basic strategy of these critics is to illuminate the historical background in order to shed light on some aspect of the work itself.

To return to our recurrent example: the repression expressed in the lines on Mrs. Mallard's face is more distinctly seen if Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" is placed in the context of "the Woman Question" as it continued to develop in the 1890s. Mrs. Mallard's impulse toward "self-assertion" runs parallel with a growing women's movement away from the role of long-suffering and unfulfilled housewife. This desire was widely regarded by traditionalists as a form of dangerous selfishness that was considered as unnatural as it was immoral. It is no wonder that Chopin raises the question of whether Mrs. Mallard's sense of freedom owing to her husband's death isn't a selfish, "monstrous joy." Mrs. Mallard, however, dismisses this question as "trivial" in the face of her new perception of life, a dismissal that Chopin endorses by way of the story's ironic ending. This is not to conclude simply that Mrs. Mallard was representative of all American women at the time of its publication, but rather that her internal struggle connected to a broader social context, one which would have been more immediately apparent to Chopin's readers in 1894 than it is to readers in the twenty-first century. That is why a historical reconstruction of the limitations placed on married women helps to explain the pressures, tensions, and momentary release that Mrs. Mallard experiences.

Marxist Criticism

Marxist readings developed from the heightened interest in radical reform during the 1930s, when many critics sought to understand literature in terms of proletarian social and economic goals, based largely on the writings of Karl Marx. *Marxist critics* focus on the ideological content of a work — its explicit and implicit assumptions and values about matters such as culture, race, class, and power. Marxist studies typically aim at revealing and clarifying ideological issues and also correcting social injustices. Some Marxist critics have used literature to describe the competing socioeconomic interests that too often pit wealth and capitalist power against socialist morality and justice. They argue that criticism, like literature, is essentially political because it either challenges or supports economic inequality or oppression. Even if criticism attempts to ignore class conflicts, it is politicized, according to Marxists, because it accepts the status quo.

It is not surprising that Marxist critics pay more attention to the content and themes of literature than to its form. A Marxist reading of Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" might draw on the evidence made available in a book published only a few years after the story by Charlotte Perkins Gilman titled *Women and Economics: A Study of the Economic Relation between Men and Women as a Factor in Social Evolution* (1898). An examination of this study could help explain how some of the "repression" Mrs. Mallard experiences was generated by the socioeconomic structure contemporary to her and how Chopin challenges the validity of that structure by having Mrs.

Mallard resist it with her very life. A Marxist reading would see the protagonist's conflict as not only an individual issue but part of a larger class struggle.

New Historicist Criticism

Since the 1960s a development in historical approaches to literature known as *new historicism* has emphasized the interaction between the historic context of a work and a modern reader's understanding and interpretation of the work. In contrast to many traditional historical frameworks for reading literature, however, new historicists attempt to describe the culture of a period by reading many different kinds of texts that earlier critics might have previously left for economists, sociologists, and anthropologists. New historicists attempt to read a period in all its dimensions, including political, economic, social, and aesthetic concerns. These considerations could be used to explain the pressures that destroy Mrs. Mallard. A new historicist might examine the story and the public attitudes toward women contemporary to "The Story of an Hour" as well as documents such as suffragist tracts and medical diagnoses to explore how the same forces — expectations about how women are supposed to feel, think, and behave — shape different kinds of texts and how these texts influence each other. A new historicist might, for example, scrutinize medical records for evidence of "nervousness" and "hysteria" as common diagnoses for

women who led lives regarded as too independent by their contemporaries.

Without an awareness of just how selfish and self-destructive Mrs. Mallard's impulses would have been in the eyes of some of her contemporaries, readers in the twenty-first century might miss the pervasive pressures embedded not only in her marriage but in the social fabric surrounding her. Her death is made more understandable by such an awareness. The doctors who diagnose her as suffering from "the joy that kills" are not merely insensitive or stupid; they represent a contrasting set of assumptions and values that are as historic and real as Mrs. Mallard's yearnings.

New historicist criticism acknowledges more fully than traditional historical approaches the competing nature of readings of the past and thereby tends to offer new emphases and perspectives. New historicism reminds us that there is not only one historic context for "The Story of an Hour." Those doctors reveal additional dimensions of late-nineteenth-century social attitudes that warrant our attention, whether we agree with them or not. By emphasizing that historical perceptions are governed, at least in part, by our own concerns and preoccupations, new historicists sensitize us to the fact that the history on which we choose to focus is reconstructed by concerns that have come to the foreground in our own present moment. This reconstructed history affects our reading of texts.

Cultural Criticism

<u>Cultural critics</u>, like new historicists, focus on the historical contexts of a literary work, but they pay particular attention to popular manifestations of social, political, and economic contexts. Popular culture — mass-produced and consumed cultural artifacts, today ranging from advertising to popular fiction to television to rock music — and "high" culture are given equal emphasis. A cultural critic attempting to interpret Ellison's "King of the Bingo Game" might be less interested in the Great Depression as a global phenomenon than in the type of movie the protagonist watches before playing bingo. The critic might note that in 1934 Hollywood adopted a widespread set of guidelines that essentially amounted to censorship known as the "Hays Code." This code turned movies into escapist fantasies that upheld moral behavior: sex and violence were largely removed from the silver screen. The sexual desire the protagonist feels and the violence he experiences are thus in sharp contrast to the type of movie he is watching that day. Adding the "low" art of everyday life to "high" art opens up previously unexpected and unexplored areas of criticism. Cultural critics use widely eclectic strategies drawn from new historicism, psychology, gender studies, and deconstructionism (to name only a handful of approaches) to analyze not only literary texts but radio talk shows, comic strips, calendar art, commercials, travel guides, and baseball cards. Because all human activity falls within the ken of cultural

criticism, nothing is too minor or major, obscure or pervasive, to escape the range of its analytic vision.

A cultural critic's approach to Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" might emphasize how the story reflects the potential dangers and horrors of train travel in the 1890s or it might examine how heart disease was often misdiagnosed by physicians or used as a metaphor in Mrs. Mallard's culture for a variety of emotional conditions. Each of these perspectives can serve to create a wider and more informed understanding of the story.

GENDER STRATEGIES

Gender critics explore how ideas about how traditionally masculine and feminine behavior can be regarded as socially constructed by particular cultures. According to some critics, sex is determined by simple biological and anatomical categories of male or female, and gender is determined by a culture's values. Thus, ideas about gender and what constitutes masculine and feminine behavior are created by cultural institutions and conditioning. A gender critic might, for example, focus on Chopin's characterization of an emotionally sensitive Mrs. Mallard and a rational, composed husband in "The Story of an Hour" as a manifestation of socially constructed gender identity in the 1890s. Gender criticism expands categories and definitions of what is masculine or feminine and tends to regard sexuality as more complex than merely masculine or feminine, heterosexual or homosexual. Gender criticism, therefore, has come to include LGBTQ+ criticism as well as feminist criticism.

Feminist Criticism

Like Marxist critics, *feminist critics* reading "The Story of an Hour" would also be interested in a text like Charlotte Perkins Gilman's Women and Economics: A Study of the Economic Relation between Men and Women as a Factor in Social Evolution (1898) because they seek to

correct or supplement what they regard as a predominantly male-dominated critical perspective with a feminist consciousness. Like other forms of sociological criticism, feminist criticism places literature in a social context, and, like those of Marxist criticism, its analyses often have sociopolitical purposes — explaining, for example, how images of women in literature reflect the patriarchal social forces that have impeded women's efforts to achieve full equality with men. Consequently, feminist critics' approach to literature employs a broad range of disciplines, including history, sociology, psychology, and linguistics, to provide a perspective sensitive to feminist issues.

A feminist approach to Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" might explore the psychological stress created by the expectations that marriage imposes on Mrs. Mallard, expectations that literally and figuratively break her heart. Given that her husband is kind and loving, the issue is not her being married to Brently but her being married at all. Chopin presents marriage as an institution that creates in both men and women the assumed "right to impose a private will upon a fellow-creature." That "right," however, might be interpreted, especially from a feminist perspective, as primarily imposed on women by men. A feminist critic might note, for instance, that the protagonist is introduced as "Mrs. Mallard" (we learn that her first name is Louise only later); she is defined by her marital status and her husband's name, a name whose origin from the Old French is related to the word *masle*, which means "male."

The appropriateness of her name points up the fact that her emotions and the cause of her death are interpreted in male terms by the doctors. The value of a feminist perspective on this work can be readily discerned if a reader imagines Mrs. Mallard's story being told from the point of view of one of the doctors who diagnoses the cause of her death as a weak heart rather than as a fierce struggle.

LGBTQ+ Criticism

LGBTQ+ critics focus on a variety of issues, including how individuals from nonnormative or nonbinary gender and sexual identifications are represented in literature, how they read literature, and whether sexuality and gender are culturally constructed or innate. The emergence of "queer theory" in the 1990s served to destabilize the dominant ideology that normalizes heterosexuality and considers other sexualities deviant. These critics have produced new readings of works by established canonical writers in which underlying homosexual concerns, desires, motifs, or motivations are lifted out and examined as revealing components of these texts. A reading of "The Story of an Hour" for example, might consider whether Mrs. Mallard's ecstatic feeling of relief — produced by the belief that her marriage is over due to the presumed death of her husband — isn't also a rejection of her heterosexual identity. Perhaps her glimpse of future freedom, evoked by feminine images of a newly discovered nature "all aquiver with the new spring life," embraces a repressed new sexual identity that "was too subtle and elusive to name" but that was "approaching to possess her" no matter how much she "was striving to beat it back with her will."

A queer theorist such as Eve Kosofsky Sedgwick would interrogate any simplistic assumptions about Mrs. Mallard's sexuality. A superficial reading of "The Story of an Hour" might point to the fact that Mrs. Mallard initially displays her grief by embracing a woman, her sister Josephine: "She wept at once, with sudden, wild abandonment, in her sister's arms." One might be tempted to read into this brief gesture a lifetime of latent homosexual longing, especially given the term "wild abandonment." But such a reading is potentially reductive, and assumes that sexual desire must be placed in one of two categories (homosexual or heterosexual). Upon closer examination, the evidence for Mrs. Mallard's lesbian tendencies is thin given the fact that she is weeping here rather than experiencing sexual pleasure. Contemporary queer theorists tend to see sexuality and sexual desire as fluid, and sometimes difficult to label. A more nuanced queer reading might look at Mrs. Mallard's autoerotic identity. Focusing on her body, such a critic would concentrate on the scenes when Mrs. Mallard is alone. She anticipates "something coming to her ... too subtle and elusive to name ... creeping out of the sky." On the surface this feeling is merely relief, but a LGBTQ+ critic might focus on her body's reaction to it: "her bosom rose and fell tumultuously ... a little whispered word escaped her slightly parted lips.... Her pulses beat fast, and the coursing blood warmed

and relaxed every inch of her body." These descriptions sound unabashedly sexual, and Mrs. Mallard seems to gradually embrace the idea that she can achieve bodily ecstasy when alone: following the quotations above, she throws open her arms, comments on the freedom of her body (as well as her soul), and locks her bedroom door. Her sister desperately calls through the keyhole, alarmed by the clearly transgressive behavior going on inside: "open the door you will make yourself ill. What are you doing, Louise?" What she is doing is private and clearly involves a feeling of bodily ecstasy. This critic might move in a number of directions from this initial observation — to discuss the effects of a repressive culture, for instance, or to examine the fact that Mrs. Mallard's feeling of freedom can only take place behind a locked door, which is nearly a closet, the central metaphor for the repression of one's natural sexual desires. Although nonnormative gender or sexuality readings often raise significant interpretive controversies among critics, they have opened up provocative discussions of texts that might otherwise seem completely unconcerned with sexual desire.

MYTHOLOGICAL STRATEGIES

Mythological approaches to literature attempt to identify what elements in a work create deep universal responses in readers. Whereas psychological critics interpret the symbolic meanings of characters and actions in order to understand more fully the unconscious dimensions of an author's mind, a character's motivation, or a reader's response, *mythological critics* (also frequently referred to as *archetypal critics*) interpret the hopes, fears, and expectations of entire cultures based on the stories they tell and the symbols they employ repeatedly.

In this context myth is not to be understood simply as referring to stories about imaginary gods who perform astonishing feats in the causes of love, jealousy, or hatred. Nor are myths to be judged as merely erroneous, primitive accounts of how nature runs its course and humanity conducts its affairs. Instead, literary critics use myths or archetypes as a strategy for understanding how human beings try to account for their lives symbolically. Myths can be a window into a culture's deepest perceptions about itself because they attempt to explain what otherwise seems unexplainable: a people's origin, purpose, and destiny.

All human beings have a need to make sense of their lives, whether they are concerned about their natural surroundings, the seasons, sexuality, birth, death, or the very meaning of existence. Myths help people organize their experiences; these systems of belief (less formally held than religious or political tenets but no less important) embody a culture's assumptions and values. What is important to the mythological critic is not the validity or truth of those assumptions and values; what matters is that they reveal common human concerns.

It is not surprising that although the details of mythic stories vary enormously, the essential patterns are often similar because these myths attempt to explain universal experiences. There are, for example, numerous myths that redeem humanity from permanent death through a hero's resurrection or rebirth. The resurrection of Jesus symbolizes for Christians the ultimate defeat of death and coincides with the rebirth of nature's fertility in spring. Features of this rebirth parallel the Greek myths of Adonis and Hyacinth, who die but are subsequently transformed into living flowers; there are also similarities that connect these stories to the reincarnation of the Indian Buddha or the rebirth of the Egyptian Osiris. Important differences exist among these stories, but each reflects a basic human need to limit the power of death and to hope for eternal life.

Mythological critics look for underlying, recurrent patterns in literature that reveal universal meanings and basic human experiences for readers regardless of when or where they live. The characters, images, and themes that symbolically embody these meanings and experiences are called <u>archetypes</u>. This term

designates universal symbols that evoke deep and perhaps unconscious responses in a reader because archetypes bring with them hopes and fears that have always defined humanity. Surely one of the most powerfully compelling archetypes is the death and rebirth theme that relates the human life cycle to the cycle of the seasons. Many others could be cited and would be exhausted only after all human concerns were cataloged, but a few examples can suggest some of the range of plots, images, and characters addressed.

Among the most common literary archetypes are stories of quests, initiations, scapegoats, meditative withdrawals, descents to the underworld, and heavenly ascents. These stories are often filled with archetypal images — bodies of water that may symbolize the unconscious or eternity or baptismal rebirth; rising suns, suggesting reawakening and enlightenment; setting suns, pointing toward death; colors such as green, evocative of growth and fertility, or black, indicating chaos, evil, and death. Along the way are earth mothers, fatal women, wise old men, desert places, and paradisal gardens. No doubt your own reading has introduced you to any number of archetypal plots, images, and characters.

Mythological critics attempt to explain how archetypes are embodied in literary works. Employing various disciplines, these critics articulate the power a literary work has over us. Some critics are deeply grounded in classical literature, whereas others are more conversant with philology, anthropology, psychology, folklore, or

cultural history. Whatever their emphases, however, mythological critics examine the elements of a work in order to make larger connections that explain the work's lasting appeal.

These kinds of archetypal patterns exist potentially in any literary period. Consider how in Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" Mrs. Mallard's life parallels the end of winter and the earth's renewal in spring. When she feels a surge of new life after grieving over her husband's death, her own sensibilities are closely aligned with the "new spring life" that is "all aquiver" outside her window. Although she initially tries to resist that renewal by "beat[ing] it back with her will," she cannot control the life force that surges within her and all around her. When she finally gives herself to the energy and life she experiences, she feels triumphant — like a "goddess of Victory." But this victory is short lived when she learns that her husband is still alive and with him all the obligations that made her marriage feel like a wasteland. Her death is an ironic version of a rebirth ritual. The coming of spring is an ironic contrast to her own discovery that she can no longer live a repressed, circumscribed life with her husband. Death turns out to be preferable to the living death that her marriage means to her. Although spring will go on, this "goddess of Victory" is defeated by a devastating social contract. The old, corrupt order continues, and that for Chopin is a cruel irony that mythological critics would see as an unnatural disruption of the nature of things.

READER-RESPONSE STRATEGIES

Reader-response criticism, as its name implies, emphasizes the reader's experience over the work itself. This approach to literature describes what goes on in the reader's mind during the process of reading a text and also the way communities of readers cooperate to advance an interpretation. In a sense, all critical approaches (especially psychological and mythological criticism) concern themselves with a reader's response to literature, but there is a stronger emphasis in reader-response criticism on the reader's active construction of the text's meaning. Although many critical theories inform reader-response criticism, all *reader-response* critics aim to describe the reader's experience of a work: in effect we get a reading of the reader, who comes to the work with certain expectations and assumptions, which are either met or not met. Hence the consciousness of the reader — produced by reading the work — is the subject matter of reader-response critics. Just as writing is a creative act, reading is too, since it also leads to the production of a text.

Reader-response critics do not assume that a literary work is a finished product with fixed formal properties, as, for example, formalist critics do. Instead, the literary work is seen as an evolving creation of the reader as he or she processes characters, plots, images, and other elements while reading, and also how reading communities (such as your class) are vital in directing the trajectory

of interpretation. Some reader-response critics argue that this act of creative reading is, to a degree, controlled by the text, but it can produce many interpretations of the same text by different readers. There is no single definitive reading of a work, because the crucial assumption is that readers create rather than discover meanings in texts. Readers who have gone back to works they had read earlier in their lives often find that a later reading draws very different responses from them. What earlier seemed unimportant is now crucial; what at first seemed central is now barely worth noting. The reason, put simply, is that two different people have read the same text. Reader-response critics are not after the "correct" reading of the text or what the author presumably intended; instead they are interested in the reader's experience with the text.

Reader-response criticism calls attention to how we read and to what influences our readings. It does not attempt to define what a literary work means on the page but rather what it does to an informed reader, a reader who understands the language and conventions used in a given work. Reader-response criticism is not a rationale for mistaken or bizarre readings of works but an exploration of the possibilities for a plurality of readings shaped by readers' experiences with the text. This kind of strategy can help us understand how our responses are shaped by both the text and ourselves.

Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" illustrates how reader-response critical strategies read the reader. Chopin doesn't say that Mrs.

Mallard's marriage is repressive; instead, that troubling fact dawns on the reader at the same time that the recognition forces its way into Mrs. Mallard's consciousness. Her surprise is also the reader's because although she remains in the midst of intense grief, she is on the threshold of a startling discovery about the new possibilities life offers. How the reader responds to that discovery, however, is not entirely controlled by Chopin. One reader, perhaps someone who has recently lost a spouse, might find Mrs. Mallard's "joy" indeed "monstrous" and selfish. Certainly that's how Mrs. Mallard's doctors — the seemingly authoritative diagnosticians in the story — would very likely read her. But for other readers Mrs. Mallard's feelings require no justification. Such readers might find Chopin's ending to the story more ironic than she seems to have intended because Mrs. Mallard's death could be read as Chopin's inability to envision a protagonist who has the strength of her convictions. In contrast, a reader in 1894 might have seen the ending as Mrs. Mallard's only escape from the repressive marriage her husband's assumed death suddenly allowed her to see. A reader in our times probably would argue that it was the marriage that should have died rather than Mrs. Mallard, that she had other alternatives, not just obligations (as the doctors would have insisted), to consider.

By imagining different readers, we can imagine a variety of responses to the story that are influenced by the readers' own impressions, memories, or experiences with marriage. Such imagining suggests the ways in which reader-response criticism opens up texts to a number of interpretations. As one final example,

consider how readers' responses to "The Story of an Hour" would be affected if it were printed in two different magazines, read in the context of either *Ms.* or *Good Housekeeping*. What assumptions and beliefs would each magazine's readership be likely to bring to the story? How do you think the respective experiences and values of each magazine's readers would influence their readings? For a sample reader-response student paper on see "Differences in Responses to Kate Chopin's 'The Story of an Hour."

DECONSTRUCTIONIST STRATEGIES

Deconstructionist critics insist that literary works do not yield fixed, single meanings. They argue that there can be no absolute knowledge about anything because language is unstable across different contexts and time periods, and thus can never say what we intend it to mean. Anything we write conveys meanings we did not intend, so the deconstructionist argument goes. Language is not a precise instrument but a power domain whose meanings are caught in an endless web of possibilities that cannot be untangled. Accordingly, any idea or statement that insists on being understood separately can ultimately be "deconstructed" to reveal its relations and connections to contradictory and opposite meanings.

Unlike other forms of criticism, <u>deconstructionism</u> seeks to destabilize meanings instead of establishing them. In contrast to formalists such as the New Critics, who closely examine a work in order to call attention to how its various components interact to establish a unified whole, deconstructionists try to show how a close examination of the language in a text inevitably reveals conflicting, contradictory impulses that "deconstruct" or break down its apparent unity.

Although deconstructionists and New Critics both examine the language of a text closely, deconstructionists focus on the gaps and ambiguities that reveal a text's instability and indeterminacy, whereas New Critics look for patterns that explain how the text's fixed meaning is structured. Deconstructionists painstakingly examine the competing meanings within the text rather than attempting to resolve them into a unified whole.

The questions deconstructionists ask are aimed at discovering and describing how a variety of possible readings are generated by the elements of a text. In contrast to a New Critic's concerns about the ultimate meaning of a work, a deconstructionist is primarily interested in how the use of language — diction, tone, metaphor, symbol, and so on — yields only provisional, not definitive, meanings.

Deconstructionists look for ways to question and extend the meanings of a text. A deconstructionist might find, for example, the ironic ending of Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" less tidy and conclusive than would a New Critic, who might attribute Mrs. Mallard's death to her sense of lost personal freedom. A deconstructionist might use the story's ending to suggest that the narrative shares the doctors' inability to imagine a life for Mrs. Mallard apart from her husband. As difficult as it is controversial, deconstructionism is not easily summarized or paraphrased. The final sentence contains a number of phrases that are ambiguous: to whom are the doctors speaking? What does joy kill? Since language

itself is unstable, its contradictions are of great interest to deconstructionists who like to examine its slippages and who like to show how the texts it produces are also unstable. Here's a thought that might delight a deconstructionist: how do we know that Mrs. Mallard is dead? Who says so? The story has already proven that Brentley Mallard was presumed dead because of a story told by Josephine and Richards; who's to say that Mrs. Mallard is not also alive but only presumed dead because the doctors said so? Why trust them? The story does not end with a dead body, but with another story.

The following lists of questions for the critical approaches covered in this chapter should be useful for discovering arguments you might make about a short story, poem, or play. As we stress above, we are only introducing these fields, and the questions that follow are designed to sharpen your sense of what these critical strategies entail, and also invite you to consider how the "meaning" of a text might look different based on the way you approach it, or the lens through which you view it.

FORMALIST QUESTIONS

- 1. How do various elements of the work plot, character, point of view, setting, tone, diction, images, symbol, and so on reinforce its meanings?
- 2. How are the elements related to the whole?

- 3. What is the work's major organizing principle? How is its structure unified?
- 4. What issues does the work raise? How does the work's structure resolve those issues?

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONS

- 1. Are facts about the writer's life relevant to your understanding of the work?
- 2. Are characters and incidents in the work versions of the writer's own experiences? Are they treated factually or imaginatively?
- 3. How do you think the writer's values are reflected in the work?

PSYCHOLOGICAL QUESTIONS

- 1. How does the work reflect the author's personal psychology?
- 2. What do the characters' emotions and behavior reveal about their psychological states? What types of personalities are they?
- 3. Are psychological matters such as repression, dreams, and desire presented consciously or unconsciously by the author?

HISTORICAL QUESTIONS

- 1. How does the work reflect the period in which it is written?
- 2. What literary or historical influences helped to shape the form and content of the work?
- 3. How important is the historical context to interpreting the work?

MARXIST QUESTIONS

- 1. How are class differences presented in the work? Are characters aware or unaware of the economic and social forces that affect their lives?
- 2. How do economic conditions determine the characters' lives?
- 3. What ideological values are explicit or implicit?
- 4. Does the work challenge or affirm the social order it describes?

NEW HISTORICIST QUESTIONS

- 1. What kinds of documents outside the work seem especially relevant for shedding light on the work?
- 2. How are social values contemporary to the work reflected or refuted in the work?
- 3. How does your own historical moment affect your reading of the work and its historical reconstruction?

CULTURAL STUDIES QUESTIONS

- 1. What does the work reveal about the cultural behavior contemporary to it?
- 2. How does popular culture contemporary to the work reflect or challenge the values implicit or explicit in the work?
- 3. What kinds of cultural documents contemporary to the work add to your reading of it?
- 4. How do your own cultural assumptions affect your reading of the work and the culture contemporary to it?

GENDER STUDIES QUESTIONS

- 1. How are the lives of men and women portrayed in the work? Do the men and women in the work accept or reject these roles?
- 2. Are the form and content of the work influenced by the author's gender?
- 3. What attitudes are explicit or implicit concerning sexual relationships? Are these relationships sources of conflict? Do they provide resolutions to conflicts?
- 4. Does the work challenge or affirm traditional ideas about men and women and same-sex relationships?
- 5. Are gender and/or sexuality presented as fixed or fluid?

MYTHOLOGICAL QUESTIONS

- 1. How does the story resemble other stories in plot, character, setting, or use of symbols?
- 2. Are archetypes presented, such as quests, initiations, scapegoats, or withdrawals and returns?
- 3. Does the protagonist undergo any kind of transformation such as a movement from innocence to experience that seems archetypal?
- 4. Do any specific allusions to myths shed light on the text?

READER-RESPONSE QUESTIONS

1. What is your initial reaction to the work?

- 2. How do your own experiences and expectations affect your reading and interpretation?
- 3. What is the work's original or intended audience? To what extent are you similar to or different from that audience?
- 4. Do you respond in the same way to the work after more than one reading?
- 5. What kind of interpretive community are you a part of? Is your reading of a text conditioned by the readings offered by your peers, by professional literary critics, by your instructor, and so on?

DECONSTRUCTIONIST QUESTIONS

- 1. How are contradictory and opposing meanings expressed in the work?
- 2. How does meaning break down or deconstruct itself in the language of the text?
- 3. Would you say that ultimate definitive meanings are impossible to determine and establish in the text? Why? How does that affect your interpretation?
- 4. How are implicit ideological values revealed in the work?

These questions will not apply to all texts; and they are not mutually exclusive. They can be combined to explore a text from several critical perspectives or contexts simultaneously. A feminist approach to Kate Chopin's "The Story of an Hour" could also use Marxist concerns about class to make observations about the oppression of women's lives in the historical context of the

nineteenth century. Your use of these questions should allow you to discover significant issues from which you can develop an argumentative essay that is organized around clearly defined terms, relevant evidence, and a persuasive analysis in response to your instructor's directions.