TRABALHOS DE CIÊNCIAS SOCIAIS

FROM INTERPRETIVE TO CRITICAL ANTHROPOLOGIES

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Departamento de Ciências Sociais Brasília 1982 Este texto foi apresentado nos "Seminários de Antropología", dias 16 e 23 de junho de 1982 Creative anthropologies arise in particular historical conjunctures and national contexts. It is no accident, for example, as is often noted, that social theorizing in France (or in nine-teenth century England) has been more universalizing than social theorizing in Germany (or in classical British social anthropology). German social theory in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was more attuned to historical particularities (and so laid the groundwork for the exploration of the notion of cultures in the plural). Third world social thought, for similar reasons to those in Germany, have often been historicist and dialectical, situating themselves with reference to a powerful Other (a first world, imperialism, dependency, etc.); and yet, this context has not necessarily meant that other problems, more internal, have not become equally compelling for the development of new anthropologies. (1)

I have been asked to talk about a style of anthropological inquiry in the United States which has come to be called "interpretive anthropology" (2), particularly about the role of Clifford Geertz, and thirdly about the way I situate my own work in relation to that anthropological style. "Interpretive anthropology" is a recent slogan (and perhaps substantive twist) for an initiative which

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⁽¹⁾ The argument about third world social thought (and particularly third world marxisms) has been engagingly laid out in Abdullah Laroui, The Crisis of the Arab Intellectual (English transtive strengths of the anthropologies developed in India, Israel and Japan. On Brazil (and Germany and France) see Mariza G.S. (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1981). A good introduction to the intellectual sociology of Germany is Fritz Ringer, The German Mandarins, Cambridge Unv. Press. On the contrast instance Norbert Elias, The Civilizing Process, 1939, E.T. New United States, see especially: C.W. Mills, Sociology and Pragnatism (1964, N.Y.: Paine-Whitman); Ernst Becker, The lost Science of Man (Braziller, 1971); and the book by Haskell.

⁽²⁾ Clifford Geertz entitled his 1973 collection of essays, "The Interpretation of Cultures (Basic Books); Roy Wagner entitled an introductory text with the similar sounding Invention of Culture

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seemed to crystalize at the University of Chicago in the 1960s under the leadership of David M. Schneider and Clifford Geertz, but; engaging the active interest of practically the entire faculty (3). At the time this initiative tended to go under the more general names "cultural" (as opposed to "social") anthropology or "symbolic anthropology" (4).

All of these tags — symbolic, cultural, interpretive — trace themselves back to the nineteenth century German debate over the role of <u>Verstehen</u> (understanding) in the methodology of the social sciences. The initial question was the perenniel one: is there, in principle, a difference between the methods of the natural sciences and those of the human or social sciences? The effort was to combine, under the notion of <u>Verstehen</u>, the scientific goals of objectivity with the recognition that because men reflect upon what they do (and act upon those reflections) it is hard to treat them merely as objects. (That there may be patterns to behavior which are not fully conscious can be accommodated in this formulation). One can pick one's significant ancestors in this effort; Oilthey if you are a philosopher of the social sciences, Max Weber if you are a sociologist or anthropologist, Karl Marx if you are a

⁽Prentice-Hall, 1975), I used "Interpretive Anthropology" for a review article in 1977 (Reviews in Anthropology): and there is now a reader called Interpretive Social Science (edited by Paul Rabinow).

⁽³⁾ Melford Spiro, Lloyd Fallers, Nur Yalman, Ralph Nicholas, Mckim Marriott, Raymond Smith, Milton Singer, Manning Nash, Raymond Fogelson, Paul Friedrich, later Victor Turner and Terence Turner, and still later Stanley J. Tambiah and Michael Silverstein and now Marshall Sahlins.

⁽⁴⁾ The core course for graduate students, for instance, was divided (a term each) according to the Parsonian scheme into "cultural systems"; "social systems", and "psychological systems". David Schneider entitled his 1968 book, American Kinship: A Cultural Account. A cadet department staffed by Chicago people was started at Princeton calling itself a Department of Symbolic Anthropology, and sponsored a monograph series in symbolic anthropology. David Schneider later together with Janet Polgin and David Kemnitzer edited a reader called Symbolic Anthropology. (Columbia University Press).

marxist, Wilhelm Wundt if you are a psychologist. But in all cases the general problem was how to capture in an objective way the intellectual, motivational and cultural elements that influence social action. The general answer was to conceive of men as acting within "socially constituted intersubjective worlds". Even subjective experiences are largely mediated by language, social participation (the reactions of others), and cultural symbols. Such mediation can be on several levels: conscious intentions or the intellectual level (which is what philosophers tend to restrict themselves to, but also the uncounscious (as Freud impressed upon us), and those socially presented frameworks we call culture. Insofar as communication between individuals are understood (have agreed-on meanings), they are public, objective, and at least theoretically available for analysis. Such a formulation of culture and of the web of communication within which individuals live has Howe immediate implications. First, it gets way from all those social philosophies rooted in the experiences of the ego (e.g., Descartes, "cogito ergo sum") and forces an empirical and comparative method. Second, it gets away from genetic theories of society which would start with individual needs and desires (i.e., biologically reductionist theories rather than introspective ones); individuals are always born into society. And thirdly, most importantly for my purposes, viewing culture as relatively crystallized communication patterns makes the notion of culture highly dynamic. Individuals have different positions in society, different perception, interests, roles, and out of the negotiations and conflicts among them emerges a plural social universe in which many opposed outlooks may coexist and compete.

This general mode of formulating the task and the subject of the social sciences can be traced back variously to Vico in the siteenth century, or — as Hans-Georg Gadamer convincingly shows — to the rhetoricians of classical times $^{(5)}$. The critical

⁽⁵⁾ Hans-Georg Gadamer, Turth and Method, (English Translation, Seabury Press, 1975). This is a superb introduction and exploration of the issues I have all too briefly summarized in the preceeding paragraphs.

contribution of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries has been to operationalize and make empirical the general approach. Two sorts of observation may be made about this contributions: about the refinements in methodological formulation, and about their ideological or historical context.

Let's take the methodological first, and let me just take four figures as representing some of the basic anthropological contribution to empirical operationalization. One might start with Malinowski, not only for his slogan and insistence on getting the "native point of view", but more importantly and more specifically for his insistence on native texts with a three-fold commentary: word-for-word translations, free translations to convey the meaning, and then most importantly commentaries including grammar, semantic networks, cultural allusions, etc. Another figure who has recently been rediscovered and rehabilitated in the anthropological "hall of fame" is the Frenchman Maurice Leenhardt, for his attempt to go even further than Malinowski by involving the natives in crosschecking, discussing and elaborating the texts and descriptions recorded in the ethnographic enterprise. There were two reasons for this collaboration of the natives: first, of course, to expand the potential for ethnographic comprehensiveness and accuracy, but secondly, to open a dialogue with the natives, and to stimulate them to reflect upon their own culture, to systematize, perhaps to introduce change, to achieve a greater critical awareness for them as well as for the ethnographer and his readers. This dual access to ethnography is an aspiration of my own work. A third important methodological contributor was Clifford Geertz in the 1960s. Geertz provided a conceptural step beyond the methodology of Max Weber. Weber, in elaborating his notion of Verstehen, said that we of course want to know the motivations and the intentions of the social actors whose behavior we wish to describe and explain, but that the business of getting inside other people's heads is methodologically impractical if not impossible. Behavior, however, is regular enough, that a stop-gap procedure will allow us to work: the construction of "as if" models or "ideal types" based on the

analyst's subjective re_enactment (Nacherleben) or reconstruction (Nachbilden) of typical motivations, fitted to institutional structures which reinforce such motivations. (Thus Weber's analysis of the Protestant Ethic as fitted to a particular social stratum at a particular historical conjunction; or his similar discussion of the type of personality that tends to get selected in the lower reaches of a bureaucracy). A student of Weber's, A. Schutz, who Geertz read and then all the graduate students at Chicago read in the mid-1960s, attempted to work out Weber's methodology of construction ideal types in more detail. In the important paper published in 1966 "Person, Time and Conduct in Bali", Geertz showed the pitfalls of relying upon an introspective procedure, and reinforced the anthropological insistence that social theory must be based on empirical ethnography. In this and later papers, Geertz made the point for anthropologists (Gadamer makes it more generally in a more systematic fashion) that understanding (Verstehen) is not based on empathy or other subjective psychological introspections, but rather on a process of juxtaposing native frames of reference with those of the analyst, itself a process of communication. This conception of the ethnographic (and anthropological) task focusses attention on the idioms, media, modes, tropes, and chanellings of communication. And indeed the nineteen sixties was a time anthropologists looked for help and inspiration to linguistics.

One final figure I would include for another kind of contribution to the operationalizing of <u>Verstehen</u> is Claude Levi-Strauss, and the techniques (rather than the metaphysics) of structuralism. Structuralism was perhaps initially devised to deal particularly with fragmentary remains of cultural systems: the clues of which Levi-Strauss speaks so movingly in Tristes Tropiques, where there was no history, and no other way to compose a sense of the whole. Structuralism of course is also particularly suited to "cold societies", where the attempt is to replicate the cultural system and to deny change. As to how far it can be applied to warmer and hot societies, Levi-Strauss himself has left an open

question. There are to be sure cold processes in hot societies, mythic processes where literary has already developed. Indeed my favorite structuralist at the moment is Marcel Detienne, who deals with mythic processes in Greek culture that have considerable stability over time; his demonstrations have added value since they are done in the bright light of many classicists (unlike the South American situation where only a few Indianist critics are able to dispute with full authority). In any case, there is a convergence between structuralism and the conception of an intersubjectivity which constitutes culture; this is how I would read Levi-Strauss' famous dictum that it matters little whether the myths think through his mind or his mind thinks through the myths. The criterion of objectivity in these structuralist analyses is provided by redundancy.

Let me sum up these methodological contributions:

Malinowski's concern with the actual form and content of native understandings, Maurice Leenhard's concern with a collaborative effort, mutual arousal of critical awareness between native and ethnographer, and dual access to the product of ethnography;

Geertz's (and Gadamer's) demonstration that at issue in understanding/ethnography is a public communicative process involving successive approximations and juxtapositions of frameworks, and Levi-Strauss' detection of structural codes.

Let me now turn to a comment on the ideological or historical context in which the 1960s saw the initiative called symbolic and interpretive anthropology. I want to focus on Clifford Geertz he is probably the most widely read contemporary American anthropologist (outside the profession as well as inside); his visibility is perhaps indexed by the fact that for years he was the only social scientist at the Institute for Advanced Studies at Princeton. But more importantly, Geertz' career seems almost an ideal typical crystallization of certain processes in which the 1960s appear almost as a replay of the 1920s. Social science often takes on the character of doubling or repetition, there is often a

return to an earlier era for inspirational texts; the doubling or repetition is never just repetition, there is always a new twist or a new working out; history is in this sense not circular but spiral.

Let me begin by juxtaposing the three intellectual "generations" before World War II. Paul Ricosur has referred to the generation of the late nineteenth century as composed of "schoolsof suspicion": Nietzsche's attack on Christianity as a slave mentality; Marx's attack on utilitacianism; and especially free trade classical economics, as a protective ideology for the English bourgeoisie, Weber's analysis of the Protestant Ethic as socially located at a particular stratum of society and powerful at a particular historical conjuncture; and Freud's exposure of sexual neuroses as a means of control and of repression as necessary for culture. All these introduced the modern attitude of not taking things at face value, and of viewing the grand systems of the nineteenth century with suspicion (Hegel, Spencer, Comte). This was also a time when industrialization and urbanization were creating a social environment increasingly felt to be beyond the control and comprehension of the individual. It was the time of the theories of characterizing the transation of society from Gemeinschaft to Gesellschaft, from mechanical to organic, from status to contract. from comfortable wholism to alienating individualism. The generation which followed the schools of suspicion is the so called "Generation of 1905" who came to maturity in the 1920s and 1930s: Robert Musil, Ludwig Wittgenstein, Walter Benjamin, the surrealists. This was a generation which introduced "modernism", which saw stable orders of meaning (ideologies, grand systems) as artificial and repressive, which worried about ideologies allowing empires to be amassed "in fits of absentmindedness" or wars to be wandered into as almost a matter of routine; and which therefore reveled in subverting the conventions of normalcy, juxtaposing exotica and fragments of reality in order to challenge people. It was a generation of essayists who claimed that one could have only fragmentary insights into truth.

There is a kind of parallelism for the situation in the United States after World War II. As the victors of World War II, in the 1950s there was a mood of optimism, a sense of boundless power, nothing that the appropriate knowledge and energy couldn't solve. It was the era of Parsonianism, that grand attempt at synthesis of all social science, which ended in an endless (if comprehensive) generation of classifications. It was also the period of modernization theory: the feeling that the problems of developing the world could be solved, that there was even a regular sequence to development, and a take-off point for each country into self sustained and independent growth.

In the 1960s this vision of systems came under attack. There was in anthropology a mutual reinforcement between two developments, quite different in origin. There was first of all the politics of the 1960s, the reaction against the war in Vietnam, a politics of protest, with anarchist, modernist elements. And quite separately there was the development of the cultural level of the Parsonian scheme at the University of Chicago which inevitably led to the breakdown of the somewhat static conception of the cultural system. As soon as Parsons' students and their friends began to take seriously Parsons' claim that the cultural system could be studied as an analytically separate object, attention focussed on the process of communication which compose culture and which are by no means as static or crystaline as the rubric "system of symbols" seemed to imply. Geertz' career is symptomatic: if you read the essays in Interpretation of Cultures in chronological order, there seems to be a change in the conceptualization of culture. At first it is compared to a computer program, an information system that plays an important role in the evolutionary process; in the mid sixties we get the essays on "Religion as a Cultural System", "Ideology as a Cultural System", "Art as a Cultural System", "Common Sense as a Cultural System" in which the notion of a "system of symbols" gets considerable stress: by the 1970s, perhaps already with "Deep Play" but certainly with "Thick Description" one has a much more flexible and indeterminate

notion of the communicative process. It is both more sophisticated in terms of handling signification, and at the same time frustratingly recalcitrant to systematization. What Geertz is now writing about the ethnographic enterprise begins to resonnate with the "generation of 1905".

It was Robert Musil who argued that knowledge had outgrown ideology and one could only have piecemeal pragmatic knowledge. (Weber too had argued that reality was too complex for absolute description, that one achieved sociological understanding by comparisons for specific probleme or purposes). The role of the writer, Musil continued, is to be a poet in the sense of imaginatively evocking experience. So too Geertz in Islam Observed speaks of the anthropologist as a poet in just this sense. It was Wittgenstein who taught that language is to be understood the way we understand games: meaning is often in the way words are used, in their context, not in any illusion of fixed denotations. (It was incidentally he who scathingly reviewed in 1922 Sir James Frazer's notion that primitive religion could be an intellectual mistake). Wittgenstein, like Geertz later, spoke of understanding being like the grasping of a posture or the seeing of a joke, depending upon a wide range of allusions and associations. Walter Benjamin wrote of language as being in large part metaphorical, of aiming not to be verifiable (like scientific statements, a peculiar and very restricted usage of language) but at characterizing experience, and of containing deep sediments of history, so that the process of understanding was one of unravelling meaning layer upon layer. So too Geertz, in Thick Description, would see the anthropologist's task as one of unravelling meanings, associations, connections; and in his more recent (and much less successful) essay on a Moroccan bazaar one sees the stress on linguistic tokens. (6)

⁽B) The essay is his contribution to the joint volume, Meaning and Order in Moroccan Society, with Lawrence Rosen and Hildred Geertz. See the interesting criticism by Vincent Crapanzano of this essay (Culture and Economic Change, 1982), where Crapanzano thinks Geertz has lost his grasp on the differences between referential meaning (thus the lists os nisba names) and indexical meaning rules of use).

Like Benjamin, Geertz observes that the essay is the appropriate medium; like Musil he argues that systematic theory is either impossible or vacuous. The resonnance of the earlier period at times is direct: models of and models for, Geertz' enormously popular phrase for how symbols arise from and mould reality, is of course Dilthey's Nachbild and Vorbild.

Geertz is an enormously entertaining, instructive, even inspirational writer. Anthropologists of my generation were introduced by him to the problems of Verstehen, and to the tradition of German social theory read directly (not in the bowdlerized versions via a Ruth Benedict or a Talcott Parsons). The aesthetic of fragmentary insight (both in the 1920s-30s, and again in the 1960s-70s) is a regarding and salutary mode of critique, it has a renewing effect, reintroducing the joy of exploration and discovery. But ultimately it is unsatisfying because it fails to respond to that obligation in anthropology to the scientific, the systematizing and generalizing side of the enterprise.

There is an ambiguity in Geertz' drawing of attention to the nature of the communicative processes: both understanding among social actors, and understanding across cultures (the ethnographic text) are constructed similarly; yet for scientific purposes we usually wish to maintain a distinction between the two. Complaints have been raised for instance about the essay "Deep Play" that the process of composing the description has been occulted: is this a composite of many cockfights? Or in the essays on personhood ("Person, Time and Conduct ..." and "From the Native Point of View"), are all Balinese, Javanese, Moroccans, Europeans this way? how long have they been this way? how did these differences come about? (Note for instance, the timeless description of the Balinese conceptions suddenly called into question with the figure

⁽⁷⁾ On the relationship between the surrealists and anthropologists in France, see James Clifford "On Ethnographic Surrealism". CSSH 1981.

of Sukarno in the closing paragraphs of "Person, Time and Conduct").

On the one hand, there is a sense in which the more recent writings of Geertz have abandoned the important and critical questions of the social and historical limits or boundaries of given cultural forms. There are questions which can and should be addressed, as Weber did with the Protestant Ethic, Benjamin with the Trauerspielen or with Baudelaire, or Bakhtin with Rabeslaisian humor. There are symbols and cultural forms which possess greater power within a particular social formation (8), and one ought not to slide back into a position that anything which strikes the ethnographer's imagination is of equal utility for the ethnographic text as seems to be suggested in "Thick Description". Indeed any form of "thick description" or micro-analysis becomes trivial if not placed within larger macro-sociological and historical frameworks (9)

On the order hand, what Geertz has done in essays such as "Thick Description" and "Blurred Genres" is to focus on the way ethnographic texts are constructed, an issue of increasing interest to contemporary anthropologists. The term "Interpretive Anthropology" has thus placed a substantive twist to the old problems of Verstehen by focussing attention as much (if not more) on the texts created by anthropologists (why should we believe then, whence comes their authority) as on the operation of the cultural processes being described in the texts.

(9) The recent essay on the Bazaar of Sefrou in Morocco does contain some suggestions about historical transformation; but even here, fellow Moroccanist Crapanzano finds the essay's attempts at historical specification to be sweeping generalizations undocumented and poorly integrated with the thesis

about the current nature of the bazaar (op. cit.).

⁽B) Indeed the very notion of "Deep Play" is of something which is so compelling to the actors that like moths to a flame they are attracked beyond rational degree. See for instance the way I have suggested the Karbala Paradigm functioned in Iran during the 1970s, and the way the legends of Khomeini functioned in the early 1980s.

Let me conclude with a brief set of comments on the generation of Geertz' students and my own work in particular. If I may continue the conceit of the circular or spiral process of renewal in anthropology, perhaps we have returned to a particular strand of thought in the 1930s which refused to give up the search for macro-sociological and historical frameworks, while at the same time being concerned with the humanist issues of form and content in communication. One of the major sources of my own "renewal" is in the work of the Frankfurt School — especial by Adorno and Benjamin (10) — where there was an explicit effort to synthesize the inquiries of Weber, Marx and Freud and also Nietzsche's concern with aesthetics. (Indeed I've subtitled several of my recent papers as efforts in "critical hermeneutics") (11). A similar source of inspiration for my generation has been the work of the French Annales School of historians, a school which appropriately enough has been itself open to contributions from anthropology.

My own anthropology aspires to be (a) dynamic, more concerned with cultural and social change than with cultural forms merely as texts (12); (b) politically democratic, in Leenhardt's sense of trying to produce ethrographic texts which are rich enough to be meaningful to the people being described (and not only to the anthropological community or reading public in the West) and meaningful enough to engage them; (c) objective, in the sense of capturing public forms of discourse which are not idiosyncratic

⁽¹⁰⁾ A somewhat superficial acquaintance with the Frankfurt School was widely disseminated among New Left students in the 1960s largely through the work of Herbert Marcuse.

^{(11) &}quot;On Being Raised in the Middle East: Child Development, Socialization, and the Socialization of Affect"; "Legal Postulates in Flux: Law, Wit and Hierarchy in Iran"; "Symbolic Modes of Conduct: A Critical Hermeneutic Approach".

⁽¹²⁾ From the observation that in order to analyze culture, it must be captured in a written form, the notion grew that understanding culture was analogous to reading a text. Both Paul Ricoeur and Geertz have elaborated this notion.

impressions but which other observers and participants can confirm, involving therefore attention both to the modes of communication utilized by the culture under discussion and to the forms of text-construction available to a writer $^{(13)}$.

My dissertation attempted to begin with problems as defined by Iranians, seeing the anthropological task to be one of clarification, framing, comparative juxtaposing. Religion and feelings of persecution seemed to be among the central such problems: rather than beginning with a definition of religion drawn from anthropological theories, the effort was to allow different Iranian actors to define its problematic. So, for instance, planners, politicians and academics might talk of religion posing problems for development; Shiites, Jews, Zoroastrians, and Bahais might complain about the oppressive demands placed upon them by the religion of others, by repressive ancient traditions, or by ignorant clerics; and yet all the above might still claim that despite abuse religion was something good. Concern with religious persecution led to analysis of religiously phrased rights, and this in turn led to political and economic forces. My recent book, to take a second example, is intended to be rich enough in detail and Iranian argumentation to engage Iranian readers, not only to gain their feedback, but also to try to hold up a mirror for them, to engage in a mutual raising of critical consciousness. In evaluating such efforts, I can of course only speak of my hopes and aspirations.

Another area of effort worth a quick mention may be the anthropology we are trying to build at Rice University. I of course cannot claim that what is happening in the United States is what is happening at Rice; what is happening in my anthropology, at least, is happening at Rice. We have a dynamic young group which

⁽¹³⁾ A minor effort at innovation was my dual introduction to the original version of the book recently published as Iran: From Feligious Pispute to Revolution, an "Introduction for Iranians" and an "Introduction for Frericans". Middle Easterners seemed to like this device; Americans (a fortiori publishers) rejected it.

would like to explore the critical hermeneutic approaches I've referred to above [14], and to apply them to the United States, to fulfill the old promise of anthropology to bring home its tools and skills. One of the topics of continual discussion and reflection is new modes of ethnographic writing, including the nature of the old realist conventions of ethnography (15), the nature of authority which must be conveyed in an anthropological text, and the possibility of utilizing conventions of dialogue. Tyler, for instance, in a paper reanalyzing discussions about a ritual between himself and a native informant, argues that the notion of a true collaborative dialogue is illusion in an ethnography because ultimately one person holds the pen. I would argue on the other hand that dialogue (and multi-logue) is a viable option; that no dialogue is simply between two persons but any discourse involves a third composed of cultural forms, linguistic media, what Gadamer calls the sensus communis (consensu, common sense, in its richest meaning) - i.e. that there are always third parties to correct one or two discussants on matters cultural (15), and that a basic ethnographic task is to explore the range of opinions on any subject,

⁽¹⁴⁾ Steven Tyler, once a leading explorer of formal methods in anthropology (viz. his edited volume, Cognitive Anthropology), has more recently written a searching (and often amusing) critique of formalisms in linguistic and cultural anthropology, calling for a hermeneutic sensitivity (The Said and the Unsaid, Academic Press). He teaches courses on Hermeneutics and on Neurolinguistics. George Marcus, the chairman, has written reviews of ne's modes of ethnographic writing, teaching courses in both this and on intercultural communication. Julie Taylor, who has worked in both Brazil and Argentina, is concerned with symbolic forms, and teaches a course for instance on History as Symbolic Process. Joining us next year will be Tulio Maranhão, who brings an interest in hermeneutics and sociolinguistics, having worked through particularly the approaches of Habermas and Labov in a study of Cape Verdian Portuguese speakers in Cambridge, Massachussets.

⁽¹⁵⁾ See George Marcus' forthcoming review in <u>Annual Reviews in Anthropology</u>, also his introduction to his edited volume on studies of elites (New Mexico Univ. Press, forthcoming).

⁽¹⁶⁾ See also the recent work of Vincent Crapanzano on this same point, especially the introduction to Tuhami (University of Chicago Press, 1981), and "Text, Transference and Indexicality" Ethos 1981. Crapanzano draws particularly on Giraud's <u>Desire</u> in the <u>Novel</u> and the work of Lacan.

and evaluate their depth of support as a way of estimating also which opinions will dominate for how long.

The effort to develop an anthropology of complex societies and of the United States in particular is still in its preliminary stages at Rice. Marcus has written a series of papers on the idealogy of kinghip among Business dynasties, exploring the notion that the nature of legal instruments such as the Massachusetts Trust and the role of professional fiduciaries have transformed the understanding of "family" for people involved in the difficult attempt to keep dynasties from dissolving. A particularly provocative result of this research (based both on interviewing and archival research) is the suggestion that the professional fiduciary's ethic (disinterested service) is one of the key models for the ethic of America's "Establishment" at least until the Johnson years, an Establishment composed of sons of such business families, whose relation to philanthropy and public service was claimed to be analogous to that of the fiduciary to their families' fortunes.

My own contribution to our Americanist efforts so far has been an exploratory course on "American Culture" (17). The overall framework was to explore the degree to which the United States can be understood (or is alleged to be) in terms of: (a) exceptionalism (e.g. the seventeenth century idea that God specially created America, the nineteenth century idea of the frontier as

⁽¹⁷⁾ I gather that in Brazil the effort to speak of a "Brazilian culture" was criticized widely some years ago as an ideological stance which would sweep under the carpet problems of integration, ethnicity, regionalism, etc. There was a similar period in mid-century in the U.S. when Americanization was an ideological force. Since the 1960s and the new celebration of ethnicity, this ideologization has been defused, and the question is an open one to what extent there are nationally operative symbols (viz. for instance Robert Bellah's notion of a civic religion). I suspect that Americans always operate on at least three levels; there is a national public code, there are also local, be they regional, ethnic, or religious; and there are personal codes. Thus while there might be a civic religion, belonging to particular churches often carries local indices of status, which may or may not carry over on a national scale.

burning off European decadence; or the notion that the natural wealth of North America meant that American society would be subject to status conflict rather than European style class conflicts), (b) the notion that when the American frontier fills up, America will increasingly be subject to social tensions of the same sort as Europe (America as an immature Europe); or the notion that America is the most advanced society (it is Europe which must catch up); particularly in terms of modern technology and communication, and in terms of a new psychological structure (the much discussed transition from an old inner-directed, guilt-controlled, Protestant work ethic to a new other-directed, narcissistic personality rewarded for skills in interpersonal relations). Among the topics treated are symbolic politics (e.g. the Prohibition movement seen as an effort of the old Republican small town elites to protest their loss of power to new immigrant groups; the use of public rituals such as the Tercentennary Parade in Newburyport, MA, or the Reconquest dramas in Santa Fe, N:M., to deny but simultaneously expose social conflict); the ways intellectuals characterize America seen as reflecting changing characterizations of American Society by intellectuals (historians, social scientists, literary critics) as ideological indexes of social change (e.g., the study by Michael KAMMEN of the American revolution which have progressively become more conservative; or the periodic changes in opinion by historians, say from the Progressives to the Liberals of mid-century); ethnicity as expressed through autobiographies, and the mass culture debate. I've found the last two topics particularly rewarding.

Recent ethnic autobiographies reveal a striking three-level exploration of what ethnicity is all about, or at least how it is transmitted as such a powerful element of consciouness. There is first of all what might be called cognitive statements: all the standard sociological analyses of the history of particular groups, the socio-political context, the need for solidarities of various sorts. Much more interesting, recent autobiographies explore processes which are analogous to those of dream-work: that is, they utilize a flux of images which operate differently from ordinary

language or rational discourse. Just as when a patient comes to a psychoanalyst and tells his dreams, there is a process of translation from modes of imagery into verbal form, a translation which is often approximate and which may introduce distortions and changes of a non-random sort. So too anxieties are often related is these autobiographies through myth fragments, partially understood customs, memories which do not form an articulated whole (such as an old time ethnographer aimed to present), but which are emotionally powerful and recurr in particular situations $^{(18)}$. Thirdly, these autobiographies also play with processes like psychoanalytic transference, where the patient relates to another as he had to a previous person, but where he does not provide any verbal text of his actions (i.e. unlike dreams, where there is a text however distorted) (19) Recognition and exploration of these complex components in ethnic behavior is something that sociology has not been able to deal with, something for which perhaps anthropological tools of distinguishing indexical usages from referential language may provide some leverage (20).

The study of mass culture in an important sense goes back to the work of Adorno, Benjamin and the Frankfurt School. They posed the critical questions of how culture is produced and distributed, to what extent audiences and consumers can be manipulated, to what extent art forms can stimulate or deaden consciousness. In the urgency of concern with the rise of fascism and totalitarian controls, their suspicious critiques were powerful.

⁽¹⁸⁾ See for instance the autobiographical novel <u>Warrior Woman</u> by Maxine Hong Kingston, a Chinese American.

⁽¹⁹⁾ See for instance <u>Passage</u> to <u>Arrarat</u> by Michael Arlan, an Armenian American.

⁽²⁰⁾ Michael Silverstein has been a key figure in stressing to anthropologists the implications of the distinction between referential language and indexical usages. See for instance his essay in the Keith Basso and Henry Selby, ed., Meaning in Anthropology, where he challenges (particularly symbolic) anthropologists who have been looking to linguistics for methodological models, that linguists deal best with what may be the least interesting parts of culture. Two innovative anthropological uses of these concepts are Crapanzano (ft. 16) and G. Obeysekere's Medusa's Hair (Cambridge University Press, 1981).

Many of their judgments, however, in the light of a later day, must be dismissed, e.g., that jazz and popular music is infantalizing and merely a means of reducing consciousness into passivity. The course attempts to take a series of components of modern mass culture — films, sports, music — and to explore to what extent the music of Elvis Presley reflected the poor white southern environment from which he came, the music of Sly Stone followed the euphoric and then despairing mood of the black community in the 1960s, or rock in the 70s reflected struggles between creative expressions and market commoditization; or why it is that American fiction almost never uses the vehicle of a runner, while European fiction often finds the struggle of runners an excellent vehicle; what is it about the imagery of baseball that appeals to the American mind, and why has the popularity of baseball declined in recent years (is the pastoral imagery of spring breezes, May showers, and new sprouted grass incompatible with enclosed Astrodomes, artificial turf and television transmission?).

In all these efforts, one attempts to get beneath the appearance of reality to systematic and competing social processes, to explore the forms of communication in terms of which people act, and to provide a tool for raising critical self awareness. While the formulation of this style of anthropological inquiry surely arises out of particular historical currents in post-Vietnam America, the issues have international sources and resonnances and perennial meaning. What will be of great interest is to see how they are differently pursued in different countries, which are more parochial, and which of wider collaborative or disputive interest.